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of Foreign Languages

## THESIS

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Didactics of English and Applied Linguistics

# THE EFFECT OF TASK-BASED DESIGNED MATERIALS ON FIRST- YEAR L.M.D STUDENTS' AUTONOMY IN READING LITERARY TEXTS

Presented and defended  
publicly by: Mrs. Yamina BELAL

Board of examiners:

CHAMI Nidhal	Professor	University of Oran 2	Chairman
OUAHMICHE Ghania	Professor	University of Oran 2	Supervisor
KERMA Mokhtar	MCA	University of Oran 2	Examiner
BEDJAOUI Fewzia	Professor	University of Bélabess	Examiner
IDRI Nadia	Professor	University of Béjaia	Examiner
BOUGUEBS Radia	MCA	ENS Constantine	Examiner

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## DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the substance of this dissertation is entirely the result of my investigation, and that due reference or acknowledgement is made, whenever necessary to the work of other researchers.

Name of the candidate: BELAL Yamina

Date: 20 /02/2022

Signature:

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## **DEDICATION**

**To**

**My husband, Mr. Hakim CHOBTI, for his support and encouragements**

**To**

**My children for having sacrificed their play time and time out**

## **Abstract**

In the aim of finding appropriate pedagogical tools susceptible of promoting first-year students autonomy in reading literary texts and to provide empirical evidence about the effectiveness of the task-based approach in teaching literature, this study implemented the task-based teaching approach in the form of task-based materials to first-year LMD students. The experimental design of the study involved an experimental group and a control group, each group containing 20 students. While the task-based designed literary materials were used with the experimental group, the control group was taught literature following the content-based approach of teaching literature. To find out the effect of the task-based materials on first-year students' autonomy in reading literary texts, pre and post-tests quantitative tools were administered to both groups. The results were crosschecked by qualitative research tools. The quantitative and the qualitative data showed that the implementation of the task-based materials improved the experimental group students' autonomy in reading literary texts in many ways. At the competency and skills level, the experimental group improved their literary competence achievement test scores better than the control group. At the readiness level, the experimental group adopted more appropriate beliefs and attitudes towards literature reading than the control group. Similarly, at the metacognitive and cognitive level, the experimental group revealed an improved awareness of the global (high-order) literary reading strategies better than the control group. These findings came to suggest the relevance of the task-based designed materials in promoting autonomy in reading literature for first-year students. The findings came also with a number of other recommendations and suggestions for decision-makers, course designers and teachers.

**Keywords:** Learner Autonomy, Autonomy in Reading Literary Texts, Literary Competence, Readiness for Autonomy, Metacognitive and Cognitive Literary Reading Strategies, Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), Task-Based Designed Materials.

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## **List of Abbreviations**

**ADRL:** Acceptance and Desire for Responsibility in Literature

**B.A:** Bachelor of Arts

**CLT:** Communicative Language Teaching

**EFL:** English as a Foreign Language

**ELT:** English Language Teaching

**FL:** Foreign language

**GLOB:** Global Reading Strategies

**L1:** First Language

**L2:** Second Language

**LC:** Literary Competence

**L.M.D:** Licence, Master, Doctorate

**MKSRL:** Metacognitive Knowledge of Self as Reader of literature

**MKTRL:** Metacognitive Knowledge of the Task of Reading Literature

**PSS:** Problem-Solving Strategies

**RAPs:** Read-Aloud Protocols

**RFARLTQ:** The Readiness for Autonomy in Reading Literary Texts Questionnaire

**SORS:** Survey of Reading Strategies

**SORSAL:** Survey of Reading Strategies Adapted to Literature

**SUP:** Support Reading Strategies

**TBLT:** Task-Based Language Teaching

**TESOL:** Teaching English to Speakers of other Languages

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# **GENERAL INTRODUCTION**

## **General Introduction**

### **1- Background of the study**

Since the decline of behaviourism in educational psychology, the ultimate goal of education has ceased to be filling up learners' minds with knowledge and information; it has rather become the promotion of autonomy in learners. Put in another way, the goal of modern education is now to cultivate independent and self-reliant learners capable of coping with upcoming learning situations. That is why learner autonomy and its promotion have been the concern of educationalists and researchers for decades. Since the concept of autonomy has entered the mainstream of language education in the 1980's, it has spilled a lot of ink, and the volumes written about autonomy in language learning are to date uncountable.

Several approaches and models have been proposed for the promotion of autonomy in language learning (Wenden, 1987; Oxford, 1990; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Ellis & Sinclair, 1989); most of them focus on learner-training or learner development. The models proposed concern the promotion of autonomy in language learning as a whole subject. However, the EFL curriculum at the tertiary level is organized into several subjects and courses. It is probable that students may develop greater autonomy in one subject and not in another because autonomy, as observed by Holec (1981), is not transferable (being autonomous in one subject does not necessarily imply to be autonomous in another subject). For example, practitioner teachers may have encountered at one occasion throughout their experience, students who could develop high level of autonomy in speaking and listening skills but not in reading and vice-versa.

Among the subjects programmed in EFL curricula at the tertiary level which involve great level of autonomy is literature. If the reading of literature is an experience to be lived, teachers of literature cannot read a literary text on the behalf of their students; Rosenblatt (1966) suggests: "no one else can read a literary work for us" (p. 30). Put differently, literature and its reading cannot be seen as a body of knowledge that teachers impart to their students, it is rather a set of skills and competencies to be developed in students progressively. In this sense, Brumfit and Carter (1986) argue that the role of teachers is simply to create conditions for successful learning.

Unfortunately, this perception of literature teaching is not translated in the reality of the second/foreign language classroom. Be it in Algeria or in other countries of the world researchers have observed that the literature classroom still maintains Freire's Dichotomy "teacher"- "learner" and "bank of education". For example, Bisong (1995) observes that in Nigeria and in the absence of a "systematic training in how to read literary works" students make use of study guides and notes called lectures' 'handouts' (p.291). Likewise, in Norway, Wiland (2018, para 2) reports: "occasional reports from students seem to indicate that the teachers' interpretation, based on authorised criticism is still the only valid answer to whose literary competence counts". In other words, students in Norway need to know authorised critics' view in order to meet their examination demands. In the Algerian context, Belal and Ouahmiche (2021) after reviewing the body of literature about the situation of literature teaching in the Algerian universities, come up with the following conclusion:

All in all, there seems to be an incongruence between the literature course stated objectives, teachers' interpretation of these objectives, the course content, methodology of teaching and way of assessment. In other words, the whole course package needs to be reviewed so that it meets the expectations of the teachers and the students alike. (p.336)

## **2- Statement of the problem**

Broadly speaking, the literature syllabus in EFL departments in Algerian universities seems rather to foster in the students reluctance to literature than autonomy in reading literature for several reasons related to objectives, content, and methodology of this syllabus.

For one thing, the content of the syllabus is made up of canonical texts that belong to former centuries (see appendices A and B). The complexity of the language of such texts as well as their irrelevant themes makes students' interaction with them and interest in reading them improbable.

For another, both the methodology of teaching and mode of assessment seem to perpetuate the dichotomy 'teacher' versus 'learner' and to foster in students the habit of rote learning. Indeed, the use of a teacher-centred method whereby the teacher explains the ins and outs of the literary text, disregarding students' own understanding and interpretation of the text itself, has only led to students' ultimate dependence on the teacher and their lack of self confidence in reading literary texts. For example, Fehaima (2017)

reports that most of the teachers interviewed in her study utilize talking and explaining facts about literature. Similarly, Kheladi (2013, p.120) sums up his research by observing: “unfortunately, literature teaching at the tertiary level is still regrettably “talk and chalk”” in describing the teacher-centred method predominantly used in literature classes in the university of Tlemcen.

On top of all these observations, the educational system in Algeria has only reinforced students’ distance from literature and reluctance to read. This is revealed in the scarcity of literary texts in the middle school and secondary school English textbooks. For instance, it can be noticed that Algerian pupils from the middle school to the secondary one are not asked to read short stories or poems in English. At the tertiary level, the teaching time of literature moved down from more than four hours a week in the classical four-year B.A (licence) to only half and one hour in the present LMD three-year B.A degree.

From a personal perspective, the researcher as a former student and a teacher in the EFL department has often wondered about the discrepancy between the potential benefits of literature in the EFL context and the reality of literature teaching. The latter has only relegated the role of literature in language teaching whereas literature is a real reservoir for not only language input but also cultural representations and a resource for personal development.

Indeed, the short time allocated to the teaching of literature and students’ lack of interest and reluctance to read due the presence of different means of entertainment and distractions are challenges for teachers, researchers, and educationalists. Overcoming such challenges can be by finding an appropriate pedagogy that can draw students’ interest back to the pages of literary texts and to foster in them a lifelong interest and ability to read, i.e., to promote in them greater autonomy in reading literature.

As a matter of fact, there have been several pedagogical proposals to improve the teaching of literature in the second/foreign language classroom. For example, Ali (1994), Davis (1989), Carlisle (2000), and Wiland (2018) propose models of teaching literature following Iser’s (1978) reader’s response theory. Baurain (2007), Durant (2001) and Neranjani (2007) suggest an activity based or a task-based approach. Stylistics is yet another approach of teaching literature that was advocated by Widdowson (1979).

### **3- Purpose of the Study**

The present study enters within the perspective of implementing an approach of teaching literature that is likely to promote students autonomy in reading literary texts.

This approach consists in selecting accessible and interesting literary texts for students and designing tasks that students have to perform before, while, and after reading these texts. The tasks are a combination of different approaches of teaching literature, such as content-based tasks, language-based tasks, stylistic tasks and reader-response tasks. Instead of the lecture mode of teaching, the tasks can be performed in-class or online with the teacher's guidance and monitoring.

As students read and perform the tasks, they are likely to become more aware of the processes and strategies used while reading. That is to say, they might be able to monitor, check, and evaluate their reading and understanding, then raise their 'literary response' or judgement about the text.

By tapping into the reading strategies used in literary texts, the task-based materials can be considered as a learner-training programme which a lot of researchers (Chamote & Rubin, 1994; Ellis & Sinclair, 1989; Wenden, 1989) advocate for the promotion of learner autonomy. For example, Cohen (1998) argues that "the most efficient way for learner awareness to be heightened is by having teachers provide strategies-based instruction to students as part of the foreign language curriculum" (p.65).

Chamot and Rubin (1994) cited a number of studies which provide empirical evidence about the correlation between learning training programmes and students' autonomy in language learning. However, very few studies can be found about the effect of strategy-training programme on achieving greater autonomy in reading literary texts.

Indeed, a lot has been advocated for the importance of adopting a learner-centred methodology in the teaching of literature both in the Algerian context and in the world (e.g. Belal & Ouahmiche, 2021; Bensemmane, 2004; Bisong, 1995, Widdowson, 1979). However, there are very few empirical data which support its effective use. The purpose of this study is, therefore, to provide empirical evidence about the effect of implementing a learner-centred methodology, namely the task-based methodology on first-year students' autonomy in reading literary texts.

Accordingly, an experimental study was designed and implemented to provide such evidence. The design was as follows: the experimental group received the treatment, i.e. literature instructions in the form of the task-based designed materials (see appendix C) for a ten-week literature course. On the other hand, the control group received literature instructions following the teacher-centred approach. Both the control and the experimental group students' autonomy in reading literary texts was measured before and after the treatment in order to answer the following core question of the study.

#### **4- Research Questions**

The core and the overarching research question of this study is the following:

**Is there a significant relationship between the use of task-based designed literary materials and First-Year students' development of autonomy in reading literary texts?**

Yet, measuring autonomy is still debatable and controversial in language learning let alone in reading literary texts. To date, there is no standard test (like the language proficiency ones) to measure learner autonomy progress (Benson, 2010). But the need of providing some evidence about the effectiveness of certain learner-training programmes in raising students' autonomy has led some researchers (Benson, 2010; Sinclair, 1999; Lai, 2001; Tassinari, 2012) to devise ways of measuring learner autonomy attainment.

One of these ways consists of breaking down the construct of autonomy into measurable constructs. Since autonomy is "a potential ability" Holec (1981, p.3) that can be manifested into behaviours, it is argued that it involves measuring the behaviours through which it is manifested. Similarly, Tassinari (2007, p.28) contends that autonomy is "a construct of constructs".

Thus, in the context of this study, it is argued that autonomy in reading literary texts is manifested in the following observable behaviours or constructs: 1) the degree of literary competence achievement (the practical skills needed in literary reading), 2) the degree to which students show readiness for autonomy in reading literary texts (their attitudes, beliefs about literature and about their abilities as readers), and finally 3) in their awareness and use of the metacognitive and cognitive strategies involved in reading literary texts. It follows that to answer the core and overarching research question stated above, the study goes by answering the following research questions:

RQ1: Is there a significant relationship between the use of task-based designed materials and first-year students' development of literary competence?

RQ 2: Is there a significant relationship between the use of task-based designed materials and their readiness for autonomy to read literary texts?

RQ 3: Is there a significant relationship between the use of task-based materials and first-year students' awareness and use of metacognitive and cognitive strategies of reading literary texts?

## **5- Statement of hypotheses**

The following directional hypotheses were tested during this study:

Hypotheses 1: The use of task-based designed materials in the literature course will result in a higher achievement of literary competence for first-year students as compared to those who were not introduced to the task-based materials.

Hypotheses 2: The use of task-based materials in the literature course will result in a higher level of readiness for autonomy in reading literature for First-Year students as compared to those who were not introduced to the task-based materials.

Hypotheses 3: The use of task-based designed materials will result in higher level of awareness and use of metacognitive and cognitive strategies of literature reading for first-year students as compared to students who were not introduced to the materials.

## **6- Significance of the Study**

In the last two decades, there has been an increasing interest in literature teaching in the Algerian University (Benzoukh & Keskes, 2016; Bensemmane, 2004; Djafri, 2012, 2013; Fehaima, 2017; Kheladi, 2013; Miliani, 2004). Many of these studies came up with the conclusion that literature teaching to EFL students at the tertiary level is full of deficiencies and need to be reviewed; therefore, they present several recommendations and suggestions to improve the situation of literature teaching to EFL undergraduate students. One of these suggestions is to bring the learner to the centre of the literature programme by adopting teaching approaches that foster in the students a habit of reading and appreciating literature (Belal, 2012; Bensemmane, 2004; Kheladi, 2013).



The significance of this study lies in the actual implementation of one of these recommendations in order to provide empirical data about the extent to which students' autonomy in reading and appreciating literary texts can be affected by such an approach, namely the task-based approach of teaching.

The data generated from this study can be used as a basis for curriculum development which, in turn, will be of great significance to the effort made to enhance the quality of tertiary education in Algeria notably in what concerns developing students' autonomy.

More precisely, the designed materials of this study can be considered as a framework for designing learner training programmes for advanced levels or for other subjects. Course designers and teachers could amend and adapt from the task-based framework according to the course objectives and the students' needs in terms of skills and strategies to be instructed.

In terms of theoretical contribution, the study provides new theoretical conceptualisation of the concept of autonomy by adapting it to the reading of literary texts. Based on the definitions of learner autonomy in language learning and on research about literary reading, autonomy in reading literary texts is conceptualised at three levels: the competency and skills level, the willingness or the affective level, and the cognitive and metacognitive awareness and use level.

## **7- Limitations of the Study**

Conducting an experimental study involves several limitations and constraints. These are listed as follows:

1. The results of the study might be confounded by the prior autonomy in reading literature. Some students show at the beginning high level of readiness for autonomy and autonomy to read literary texts than others, so students' development of autonomy may be attributed to their prior readiness for autonomy and autonomy to read literature than to the task-based designed materials used.
2. The participants were not selected randomly. Due to the existing subdivision of the major areas of study in the department and the corresponding scheduling issues, random assignment was not feasible.

3. Non-random selection of the participants might have affected their level of autonomy in reading literature attainment.

4. The small sample on which the study was conducted and the limited time of instruction (10-week) may have affected the significance of the scores obtained from both groups.

## **8- Definition of Terms**

### **A) Task-based Teaching/Task-based Materials**

It refers to organizing the teaching content into series of tasks. The course material, therefore, consists mainly of tasks.

For the purpose of this study, the tasks are meant to raise students' awareness of the cognitive and metacognitive strategies involved in reading literary texts and train students in their use; thus, the relevant definition for this study is the one which stresses the cognitive processes involved in performing tasks. One of these is Prabhu's (1987) which stipulate that a task is "an activity which requires learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some processes of thought and which allows teachers to control and regulate that processes". (p.17)

### **B) Learner Autonomy and Autonomy in Reading Literary Texts**

The definition of learner autonomy from which this study is adapting is Dam's (1995) which stipulates:

Learner autonomy is characterized by a readiness to take charge of one's own learning in the service of one's needs and purposes. This entails a capacity and willingness to act independently and in co-operation with others as socially responsible person. (p.1)

Drawing from this definition, autonomy in reading literary texts is defined by the researcher as follows:

Autonomy in reading literary texts in the context of the present study involves the willingness and the capacity to select and read literary texts independently. While willingness concerns learners' positive attitudes and beliefs about literature reading and oneself as reader, capacity is related to self-management while reading. Capacity entails handling the metacognitive and cognitive strategies of reading literary texts such as monitoring and evaluating understanding in the aim of issuing value judgments which will

eventually lead to the promotion of literary competence. The latter is a set of skills through which autonomy in reading literary texts is manifested.

The definition suggests that autonomy in reading literary texts is manifested at three levels: literary competence, willingness to read independently which is revealed in readiness for autonomy in reading literary texts, and awareness and use of metacognitive and cognitive literary reading strategies.

#### **a) Literary Competence**

Literary Competence (LC), as perceived in this study, consists of the LC described by Culler (1975) and extended by Lazar (1993) and the reader-response advocated by Iser (1978) and Rosenblatt (1978). Therefore, literary competence in this study contains the following skills and abilities:

1. Basic level of understanding of the literary text.
2. Awareness of language use for literary purposes.
3. Ability to infer the meaning from context.
4. Ability to identify the elements of fiction (setting, character, plot, conflict, and theme).
5. Ability of raising a response to literature.
6. Literary production.

#### **b) Readiness for Autonomy in Reading Literary Texts**

It refers to students' willingness to be autonomous readers of literature, and it consists of the set of attitudes and beliefs about literature as a subject, their perception of themselves as readers of literature (metacognitive awareness of themselves as readers of literature), and their perceptions of the task of reading literary texts (metacognitive awareness of the task of reading literary texts).

#### **c) Metacognitive and Cognitive Literary Reading Strategies**

They refer to the aspect or the component of capacity in autonomy in reading literary texts.

If metacognition entails regulating, monitoring and evaluating the reading process, then metacognitive literary reading strategies refer to those "high-order literary reading"

strategies (Goh,1991) or point-driven reading strategies(Vipond&Hunt,1984) such as reading with the purpose of finding the writer's point or purpose, checking and evaluating understanding, comparing the text with other literary works...etc.

Cognitive strategies refer to the actual performance of the reading strategies in order to extract meaning from the text. In addition to the usual reading strategies used to process written texts such as using context clues to guess unknown words, rereading to improve comprehension, there are the cognitive strategies related to processing literary texts which are listed by Zwaan (1993) such as paying attention to the surface structure to understand how meaning is being made and engaging in elaborate inferencing by constantly making and checking hypotheses.

#### **D) Literary texts**

They refer to written texts of fiction belonging to the short story genre.

### **9- Organization of the Study**

In addition to this introduction which sets the context of this study, the thesis includes seven chapters and a conclusion. The review of the literature which extends from chapter one to chapter four aims to provide theoretical and critical insights into the key constructs of this study. The first of these constructs is autonomy which is the dependent variable in this study. Chapter two will zoom on the skill of reading and reading literature while chapter three will review literature teaching in the EFL context. The literature review will end by chapter four which will shed some light on the independent variable namely, task-based teaching. Chapter five provides detailed description of the research methodology of the study. It starts by describing the design of the study, the data collection instruments, the subjects, the teaching materials, and it ends with describing the procedures of data analysis. The sixth chapter presents the results obtained from the quantitative and qualitative research tools. The seventh and last chapter deals with the analysis and the discussion of the results obtained to provide answers to the directional hypotheses and the main research question stated in this introduction, the chapter ends with providing some recommendations and suggestions for further research. Finally, the thesis ends with a general conclusion.

## **Chapter one**

# **On the Concept of Learner Autonomy in Language Education**

## Chapter One

### On the Concept of Autonomy in Language Education

#### Introduction

The aim of the present chapter is to shed some light on one of the key constructs of the present study, namely, the concept of autonomy which is the dependent variable. The concept, as it will be demonstrated, is a complex and a multifaceted one that is why it is crucial to delineate at the outset what is meant by autonomy in order to be able to determine whether or not students' autonomy in reading literature has been promoted. To this end this chapter starts by the historical background of this most valued , most desired concept in education nowadays, then the different definitions of the concept found in the literature are presented. Based on these definitions, an operational definition of autonomy in reading literary texts is provided. Next, section three pinpoints the main components that make up learner autonomy while section four and five discuss ways of measuring and promoting autonomy in language learning. The last section deals with the relationship between literature and learner autonomy. Each section can be said to serve as a guideline to the study.

#### 1-1 Historical Background of the Concept of Autonomy

Since the appearance of the concept of autonomy in language education with Holec's (1981) report to the council of Europe, it has not ceased to inspire scholars and researchers and to spill a lot of ink. For example, Pemberton (1996) listed more than 22 books about autonomy in language learning that appeared between the year 1980 and 1995 in addition to well known journals special issues devoted to learner autonomy. Nevertheless, the concept is still the object of debates and controversies. This is mainly due to the nature of the term itself which is described by Little and Dam (1998, p.1) as "semantically complex".

Etymologically and according to the Concise Oxford Dictionary (2011), the term autonomy derives from Greek *autonomia* meaning "state having its own laws". The term then, belongs to politics and appeared in ancient Greek with the term democracy to describe relationships between states or political communities (Lawson1998). It was understood and defined as "the independence and self determination of the community in

its internal and external relation” (Lakoff, 1990, p.388).The term was borrowed by other fields and was used in psychology, political philosophy, in education and language education.

However, centuries before becoming “a buzzword” in language education, as Pemberton (1996, p.2) puts it, thoughts and ideas about autonomous learning or autonomy in learning were found in the writings of the philosophers of the enlightenment and mainly John Jack Rousseau. In his book *Emile*, the story of a boy who was brought up in a country and in direct interaction with the nature, Rousseau presented a model of education where the learner discovers by himself through experiencing with the nature. In Rousseau’s model children develop naturally into individual subjects to their own authority rather than the authority of others. For Rousseau, instructors or teachers are permissive rather than repressive individuals who support learners and learning. This is because learners are responsible for their own actions and learn by enjoying or suffering the consequences. This principle of learners’ responsibility for their own learning is a key idea of learner autonomy (Benson, 2001). Another philosopher of the enlightenment whose ideas carried the seeds of autonomy is Kant. He emphasised on the individual’s potential to make rational decisions individually, therefore; his ability to act autonomously. Due to the emphasis of these philosophers on the individual beings’ capacities to make reasonable and free decisions, it is often argued that autonomy is a western construct whose roots are to be found in the philosophy of the enlightenment (Schmenk, 2005).

Undeniably, autonomy as conceived nowadays with its great influence on modernist thinking came from the West, but its roots lay much deeper in the history than the philosophy of the enlightenment. They are to be found in other civilisations and philosophies. For example Hsu (2005) claims that throughout the history of Chinese education, autonomy has been implemented both implicitly and explicitly through the implementation of autonomy related concepts such as individual differences, learner training, rights to learn, self-training, etc. In fact, Pierson (1996) presents some ancient authoritative Chinese voices which are consistent with the practice of autonomy. One of these is from the Sung Dynasty scholar, Chu Hsi (1130-1200) who states:

If you are in doubt, think it out by yourself. Do not depend on others for explanations. Suppose there was no one you could ask, should you stop learning? If you could get rid of the habit of being dependent on others, you

will make your advancement in your study. (p 90 as cited in Pierson, 1996, p.56)

Another principle of autonomy to be found in the Confucius heritage is individual difference in learning. Confucius believed that human intelligence differs across individuals; therefore, teaching cannot be extended uniformly.

The principles of autonomy can also be found in the Islamic civilisation. Although Islam is considered as one of the most conservative religion, one of the philosophical principles of this religion is freedom to choose and taking responsibility for one's own choices. According to AL-Sadi (2015) autonomy is original and essential notion in Islam. All people are born equal and free is a right guaranteed by Islam. Therefore, autonomy in Islam is maintained as personal, educational, and social right regardless of the colour, ethnicity, and the sex of the individual (Hadi, 2018). As far as learning and education are concerned, contrary to the prejudice opinion that Islam is a dogmatic religion, the Islamic tradition abounds with instructions and incentives to look for wisdom and knowledge independently by working *raison*, common sense and critical thinking. The holy Quran itself invites readers to use their critical thinking and common sense when reading it. Critical and independent thinking in the aim of finding the reality is an essential principle of learner autonomy. Thus, autonomy principles are not at odd with eastern and oriental civilisations.

Nevertheless, it was only in the 1960's and 1970's that the term autonomy came into fashion in education philosophy with the writings of John Dewey (1952), Bruner (1960), Freire (1972), Illiich (1971), and Rogers (1969). Their innovative ideas include pragmatism of education, i.e., learning to be active participants in the political, social, and economic life rather than learning a subject *per se*. Experiential learning and learner centeredness were also central to their conception of education as they were pivotal also in constructive education.

In addition to these theoretical foundations, autonomy in education and language learning cannot be isolated from the political and the social context in which it appeared. In fact, according to Pemberton (1996) and Benson (2001), autonomy came as a response to the social, political and economic demands in Europe of improving "life quality" not in terms of consumerism but by respecting individualism in the society. For example, Holec's (1981,p.1) report to the Council of Europe, which is considered as a landmark of autonomy



entrance into the mainstream of language education , started with a “ description of the social and ideological context within which ideas of autonomy in learning emerged” (Benson, 2001,p.7). In brief, the construct of autonomy as conceptualised nowadays in language education was born in the West and drew its foundations and principles from the Western ideological philosophy (Schmenk, 2005).

Just like other western concepts (democracy and freedom of expression in politics, capitalism in economics), autonomy in education has become a globalised word. Researchers and teachers from different ethnic groups and cultural backgrounds started using the construct of autonomy and prescribing it as the healing antidote to all sorts of educational issues. In the Algerian context, the country knew some political reforms in the 1990s which appeared in the introduction of democracy. These political reforms entailed reforms in other sectors and notably in education. Therefore, the Algerian educational sector witnessed a series of reforms which started in the 1990s by importing and applying western methodologies and constructs such as the Competency-Based approach in primary and secondary education and the rules and the principles of the Bologna process by adopting the LMD (Licence, Master, and Doctorate) in higher education. These reforms were introduced in the aim of providing education and training that correspond to the demands of the globalised market by cultivating efficient, independent, and autonomous learners able to cope with the increasing demands of the worldwide market (Abdellatif-Mami, 2013).

Unfortunately, both the political and the educational reforms did not reach the expected objectives. The implementation of an imported democracy has just led to a veiled Unitarian regime in which one president kept governing for twenty years. Likewise, at the educational level, the Competency-Based approach and the LMD system , according to research (Hadi, 2018; Boukhentache, 2019; Djafri, 2012) continue to maintain Freire’s (1972) dichotomy teacher- learner and “ bank of learning” in a system of education where all what matter are the “scores and marks” and not the knowledge and the skills acquired (Abdellatif-Mami, 2013).

Obviously, the problem does not lie in the imported western constructs and methodologies, which seem to work well in Europe and the western educational context, but in the way they have been implemented in Algeria. In this sense, Schmenk (2005) warned from “cultural blindness” in the process of globalising the construct of autonomy,

that is applying it without taking into account the local specificities. Schmenk's recommendation to TESOL researchers is to reflect on the theoretical and practical background of autonomy as a cultural and political concept. Indeed, the conception and the practice of autonomy in highly industrialised and individual societies (western societies) are likely to be different from its conception and practice in group community societies like the Algerian society where the community voice is much more valued than the voice of the individual.

The Algerian educational system has been, for many generations, built on power relationship and extreme dependence on the teacher as a model. Changing it into a more autonomous model of learning does not happen overnight by merely dictating principles and objectives. Such change needs the involvement of all the participants in the educational scene: decision-makers, researchers, teachers, and learners or learners' parents. Most notably, the role of research is crucial in providing guidelines and insights into how to take learners out of extreme dependence on teachers to independent self-reliant learning. The present study enters within this perspective of findings pedagogical tools that may lead students to great independence or autonomy in an important subject as literature.

In sum, the concept of autonomy as conceptualised in language education nowadays draws substantially from western civilisation, yet some of its principles are not strange to other civilisations in the East. However, given the political and the cultural dimension of the concept, care must be taken when implementing it worldwide. In this sense research plays an important role in informing educational participants on how to move from extreme dependence to greater autonomy, which is one of the objectives of the present study.

## **1-2 Definition of Learner Autonomy in Language Education and in Reading Literary Texts**

Learner autonomy is not "a single, easily describable behaviour" (Little, 1991, p.7). However, the concept needs to be defined for construct validity. An operational definition is needed in order to be clear about what we mean when we talk about autonomy and notably in reading literary texts in the context of this study.

### **1-2-1 Definition of Learner Autonomy in Language Education**

Historically, as mentioned earlier, the first definition of the concept of autonomy in language learning appeared in Holec's (1981) report project to the Council of Europe. Since that seminal definition, several definitions of autonomy appeared in the literature. Most of the definitions, however, expand on Holec's definition by adding other dimensions to learner autonomy. Hsu (2005, p.12) contends that the "term learner autonomy developed from a core concept with more layers being added overtime". Broadly speaking, there are three main widely cited definitions which are given three main labels: the technical definition, the psychological definition, and the political definition. (Benson, 2001; Cotterall, 2008)

To begin with, Holec (1981, p.3) defines learner autonomy as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" and elaborates that "to take charge of one's own learning is to have, and to hold the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of this learning [...]", i.e., "determining the objectives; defining the contents and the progressions; selecting methods and techniques to be used; monitoring the procedure of acquisition (rhythm, time, place, etc.); evaluating what has been acquired".

For Smith (2008), the term capacity in Holec's definition implies "competence". Sinclair (2000), on the other hand, contends that Holec's definition of autonomy as "a potential capacity to act in a given situation –in our case learning- and not the actual behaviour of an individual in that situation" (Holec, 1981, p.3) is decisive in understanding and conceptualising the concept of autonomy in language learning. Elaborating the notion of "potential capacity" in Holec's definition, Sinclair (2000, p.7) argues that this "potential for learning behaviours presupposes in the learner a high degree of metacognitive awareness, i.e., knowledge about learning". In other words, Sinclair perceives learners' capacity for autonomy as their metacognitive awareness. Both of Smith's (2008) and Sinclair's (2000) interpretations of learner autonomy have implications for the understanding of autonomy in reading literary texts in this study.

Commenting Holec's definition, Benson (2007, p.22) notes that this definition "has proved remarkably robust and remains the most widely cited definition in the field". Similarly, Pavia (2006) observes that Holec's definition provided the essence of learner autonomy which is learners' central role in managing the learning process.

Nevertheless, Holec's definition has been criticised for its focus on decision-making abilities without highlighting the cognitive process involved in effective self-management (Benson, 2001). For Cotterall (2008), Holec's definition emphasizes the technical aspect of autonomy suitable for programmes in self-access centres which is reflected in the five types of decisions he listed. These are 1) determining objectives, 2) defining content, 3) selecting methods, 4) monitoring procedure of acquisition and 5) evaluating what has happened.

Little's (1991) definition complements Holec's definition by giving a psychological dimension to the "capacity of taking responsibility of our own learning" and by emphasizing the cognitive process underlying self-management in learning. For Little (1991):

Essentially, autonomy is a *capacity* – for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action. It presupposes, but also entails that the learner will develop a particular kind of psychological relation to the process and content of his learning. The capacity for autonomy will be displayed both in the way the learner learns and in the way he or she transfers what has been learned to other contexts (p.4).

This definition involves learner's control over their cognitive processes. It assumes that certain underlying psychological capacities are needed to manage one's own learning (Benson, 2007). These underlying psychological capacities include metacognitive learning strategies such as planning, monitoring and evaluating learning and are revealed in the way a learner learns a subject and the way he/she is able to transfer these strategies to other subjects of study.

The third dimension of autonomy underplayed in each of Holec and Little's definitions is the political and transformative dimension. According to Benson (2001) the term "control over learning" is more suitable than the term "take charge of one's own learning". Therefore, "an *adequate description* of autonomy in language learning should at least recognise three levels at which learner control may be exercised: learning management, cognitive process, and learning content" Benson (2001, p. 50). While the first two levels of control, i.e. learning management and cognitive process are accounted for in the technical definition of Holec and the psychological one by Little, there is no

mention of the third level of control which is the learning content. For Benson (1996) the technical (learning management) and the psychological (cognitive process) co-exist with the political and social dimension which manifests itself in the freedom of determining goals and purpose of learning. Decision about learning content cannot be made at the individual level, but it is made at the collective level.

By perceiving learner autonomy as a capacity of making decisions and taking control and responsibility over learning, the three definitions mentioned above emphasize the metacognitive, cognitive, and individual aspects of learner autonomy, the affective and the social-interactive aspects are found in what is known as the Bergen report definition in which Dam (1995) posits:

Learner autonomy is characterized by a readiness to take charge of one's own learning in the service of one's needs and purposes. This entails a capacity and willingness to act independently and in co-operation with others as socially responsible person. (p.1)

Such a definition came to settle the debate created by earlier definitions over the confusion between autonomy, individualism, self directed learning, and learning on one's own. If autonomy entails a "capacity to work both independently and in cooperation with others", autonomy, then is relevant for class instruction.

More importantly, Dam's (1995) definition adds to the cognitive and metacognitive characters emphasized in the definitions by Holec, Little, and Benson, an affective character revealed in the term "willingness" which can be interpreted as the desire and the motivation to take charge of one's own learning or to be autonomous. In fact, this affective dimension is crucial for autonomy in learning as Littlewood (1996) demonstrates.

What comes out from the four definitions (Holec, 1981; Little, 1991; Benson, 2001; Dam, 1995) is that learner autonomy has four main characteristics. These are:

- 1) It is an individual capacity, but it can be achieved by the cooperation and the interaction with others (Pemberton, 1996).
- 2) Learner autonomy is a capacity which is not innate, but susceptible to be promoted in any individual no matter his or her background. In Holec's (1981, p.3) words "It is a potential capacity".

3) Learner autonomy is revealed in learners' control over their learning process by making decisions, taking responsibility, and self-management;

4) Learners' "willingness" that is motivation and desire to take charge is as important as the capacity to take control.

Although learner autonomy is designed to describe the whole language learning process and not one particular skill, the above definitions and characteristics of autonomy in language learning were inspired and drawn from to come up with a practical definition of autonomy in reading literary texts which is the object of the present study.

### **1-2-2 Definition of Autonomy in Reading Literary Texts**

Based on the different definitions of autonomy in language learning, autonomy in reading literary texts in the context of the present study involves the willingness and the capacity to select and read literary texts independently. While willingness concerns learners' positive attitudes and beliefs about literature reading and oneself as reader, capacity is related to self-management during the reading process. Capacity entails handling the metacognitive and cognitive strategies of reading literary texts such as monitoring and evaluating understanding in the aim of issuing value judgments which will eventually lead to the promotion of literary competence. The latter is a set of skills through which autonomy in reading literary texts is manifested.

The cognitive and metacognitive strategies of reading a literary text as well as literary competence which are key factors of autonomy in reading a literary text are discussed in chapter two. The present chapter continues discussions about the components of autonomy, ways of promoting learner autonomy and learner autonomy measurement. All of them are relevant in the context of this study since its aim is to promote autonomy in reading literary texts and measuring the degree of its attainment.

### **1-3 Components of Learner Autonomy**

As previously mentioned in the definition, an autonomous learner is characterized by willingness and a capacity to take charge and responsibility for his/ her own learning. In the same vein, Littlewood (1996) defines an autonomous person as "one who has an independent capacity to make and carry out the choices which govern his or her actions" (p.472). While the term "willingness" is not mentioned in Littlewood's definition, he

suggests that this “capacity” depends on two main ingredients: “ability” and “willingness”. In turn, each of these two ingredients is made up of two major elements: “ability” consists of knowledge and skills and pertains to the metacognitive awareness and the cognitive processes whereas “willingness” relates to both motivation and confidence. For Littlewood (1996) all of these four components need to be present for acting autonomously.

Similarly, Quoc Lap (2005) posits that central to learner autonomy are four factors: cognitive factors, affective factors, metacognitive factors, and social factors. Not unlike Littlewood and Quac Lap, Tassinari (2012) argues that the essential components of learner autonomy are: 1) a cognitive and metacognitive component, 2) an affective component, 3) an action-oriented component (skills, learning behaviour), 4) a social component (learning and negotiating learning with partners). Tassinari presents a model of autonomy where the four components interact with each other.

Drawing from these models and frameworks, the present study assumes that the factors that make up learner autonomy in reading literary texts are: 1) the cognitive and metacognitive factors, 2) the affective component, the willingness or the readiness and 3) the action-oriented component (represented by literary competence). The fourth component which is the social factor or the social component has been disregarded since reading literary texts is essentially an individual ability which does not involve a great deal of interaction except in discussions after reading.

### **1-3-1 The Cognitive and Metacognitive Component**

Several researchers (Benson, 2001; Dawn Wong, 2007; Haque, 2019; Littlewood, 1996; Sinclair, 2000b) posit that metacognition is crucial for learner autonomy. In fact, the definition of metacognition is consistent with the definitions of learner autonomy in many ways. Flavell (1979) defines metacognition as the ability to plan, monitor, manage, and reflect on the process of language learning. Such a definition is echoed in Holec’s (1981) conception of learner autonomy as involving responsibility for determining learning objectives, defining the contents and progressions of learning, selecting methods and techniques to be used, monitoring the procedure of acquisition, and evaluating what has been acquired.

Similarly, Sinclair (2000) argues that “the potential capacity” mentioned in Holec’s (1981) definition implies that learner autonomy is not a set of behaviour or actions that

may appear or not in different circumstances, but it is a capacity or an ability inherent in the individual learner and stems from his/her metacognitive knowledge of self as a learner, subject matter to be learnt, context of learning, and processes of learning. In other words, Sinclair (2000) identifies learner's autonomy with metacognitive awareness which she categorises into three levels.

In addition to making decisions about purposes of learning, when and how to learn, monitoring and evaluating learning which are all related to metacognition, autonomous learners, as described by Benson (2001), need to have control over their learning or cognitive process and need to have the skill of carrying out the appropriate choices or decisions. Such character is related to the actual performance of learning, i.e. cognition, using cognitive strategies which Ellis (1997) defines as "those that are involved in the analysis, synthesis, or transformation of learning materials". Among the cognitive strategies used in language learning, Oxford (1990) mentioned reasoning, synthesizing, outlining, reorganizing information.

Research findings suggest that there is a link between autonomous behaviour and the use of learning strategies (Brown, 1994; Oxford, 1996; Wenden, 1991). Most of these studies suggest that strategy instructions (cognitive and metacognitive) lead to the promotion of learner autonomy. For example, Darasawang and Reinders (2010) contend that "one way to develop learner autonomy is to train students how to use cognitive and metacognitive strategies so that they can manage their learning without the help of teachers" (para3 as cited in Haque, 2019, p.2016). Similarly, Wenden (1991) argues that autonomous students' behaviour inevitably involves the use of strategies.

Since the present study is concerned with autonomy in reading literary texts, the metacognitive and the cognitive component is taken into account by identifying the different metacognitive and cognitive strategies used by competent readers of literary texts according to research (see chapter two). Students' awareness and use of these strategies are compared pre and post-experiment to determine the effect of the materials on the promotion of learner autonomy in this aspect.

### **1-3-2 Willingness or the Affective Component**

Although the affective component was underplayed in the earlier definitions of learner autonomy by Holec (1981), Little (1991), and Benson (2001), researchers



(Cotterall, 1995; Dam, 1995; Littlewood, 1996; Sinclair, 2000) suggest that having the capacity, i.e., control over the metacognitive and cognitive process is not enough for achieving autonomy. Littlewood (1996) presumes that in the absence of willingness (motivation and confidence to take responsibility), an individual learner though possessing ample opportunities to develop his ability and skill (capacity) and organize his/her learning, he/she would not do so if he/she thinks this as the teacher's role. In Sinclair's (2000, p.4) words: "irrespective of their capacity, learners will not develop autonomy unless they are willing to take responsibility for their own learning". For instance, teachers and educators may have encountered learners who possessed intellectual capacities to take control of their own learning, but do not feel like to do so for absence of willingness which varies according to situations and depends on a number of factors.

In the same vein, Hsu (2005) acknowledges that one of the most important components of autonomy is "*willingness*" which comprises intrinsic motivation, positive attitudes and beliefs. For instance, Dickinson (1995) suggests that there is a strong link between learner autonomy and intrinsic motivation. The latter is, in turn, related to the theory of self determination in its perception of capacity for and attitude towards learning. In other words, learners' intrinsic motivation can be said to stem from his/her positive attitude and beliefs about self as learner and the learning process which Sinclair (2000) terms metacognitive awareness of self as learner and considers crucial for autonomy.

Such affective factors have been emphasized by proponents of learner training (Wenden, 1987; Ellis & Sinclair, 1989); for example, Wenden (1987) argues that autonomous learners are self-confident learners who are aware of their important role in the learning process. Consequently, gauging learners' readiness and willingness for autonomy has preceded autonomy promotion programmes (e.g. Cotterall, 1995; Chan, 2001; Thang and Alias, 2007). For instance, Cotterall (1995) designs a questionnaire made up of twenty-six items to investigate ESL students' beliefs about autonomous learning because she assumes that "the beliefs and attitudes learners hold have a profound influence on their learning behaviours"( p.195).

Accordingly, in the context of the present study, students' willingness or readiness to take control of their literary texts reading is considered as an integral part or component of their autonomy in reading literary texts. It comprises student's beliefs and attitudes towards literature and their beliefs or their metacognitive knowledge about themselves as

readers of literature and about the task of reading literature. These attitudes and beliefs are investigated pre and post-experiment to determine the effect of the task-based designed materials on them.

### **1-3-3 The Action Oriented Component/ Skills and Behaviours**

The third component of autonomy taken into account in the present study is the third component in Tassinari's (2012) model, namely the action-oriented or the skills and behaviours component. Although learner autonomy as conceptualised by Holec (1981) is a capacity which does not necessarily manifest into observable skills and behaviours, researchers have attempted to find a link between language proficiency attainment and autonomy. For example, Dafei (2007) asserts that one of the requirements of proficiency is for learners to be autonomous. In a study with Iranian students, Zarei and Gahremani (2010) find that higher level of reading comprehension could be fostered by autonomy. In other words, autonomous learning can lead to higher reading comprehension level.

In fact, autonomous learners, by virtue of their control over their cognitive process and their willingness to learn, display skilful use of the language. This suggests that learners' competent and skilful use of the language can be an evidence of their level of autonomy. Within this frame of thought, the present study considers literary competence as the action-oriented component through which autonomy in reading literary texts is revealed.

What should be noted after identifying the components or the factors of autonomy in language learning is that these components co-exist and interact with each other. In other words a capacity without willingness does not lead to autonomous behaviour and vice versa. Similarly, the action-oriented component does not exist without the capacity (the cognitive and metacognitive component) which, in turn, presupposes the affective component or willingness. For these reasons measuring learner autonomy has proved to be problematic as it is demonstrated in the next section.

## **1-4 Measuring Learner Autonomy**

### **1-4-1 Issues in Measuring Learner Autonomy**

The fact that autonomy is a multifaceted and a multidimensional concept makes its measurement complex and problematic. This complexity is revealed in the considerably few existing publications on the assessment or measurement of autonomy as compared

with the huge amount of publications that conceptualise and theorise the concept itself (Benson, 2007; Benson, 2010). Benson (2001, 2010) gives three main reasons why learner autonomy measurement is problematic.

The first reason is related to the multidimensionality of autonomy. Being “a construct of constructs” (Tassinari, 2012, p.28), autonomy can manifest itself in several forms. Taking into account one form of behaviour, for example, setting goals and planning for learning does not account for the whole picture of autonomy nor does it allow saying that one student is more autonomous than another. Benson(2010) asserts: “the recognition that autonomy can take different forms would appear to preclude an international “test of autonomy” but not necessarily context specific tests designed to assess individual’s gains in autonomy” (p.28). In other words, although it is unlikely to design a standardized international “test of autonomy” just like the ones of language proficiency, Benson(2010) does not exclude the idea of assessing learners’ gains in autonomy in certain aspects of learning provided that the learning context specificities are taken into account.

The second reason is related to the nature of the concept itself. According to Holec (1981) autonomy describes “a potential capacity to act in a given situation -in our case learning- and not the actual behaviour of an individual in that situation”. That is to say learners’ behaviours are underlain by learners’ capacity for controlling, managing, monitoring and evaluating their learning process which is inherent in the individual learner and does not necessarily appear in any circumstance.

Third, another issue related to measuring learner autonomy, mentioned by Benson (2010), concerns its developmental process. In fact, little is known about the stages learners go through in developing their autonomy. In addition, once acquired in one specific learning domain, it is not easily transferred to other domains, subjects or competencies.

In spite of all these issues concerning the measurement of autonomy, Benson (2001) concludes:

The fact that the measurement of autonomy is problematic does not necessarily mean that we should not attempt to measure it... If we aim to help learners to become more autonomous, we should at

least have some ways of judging whether we have been successful or not. (p.54)

As a matter of fact, researchers have adapted some approaches to measure learner autonomy attainment. These measurement approaches differ from each other according to the conceptualisation of the concept of autonomy itself by the researcher.

#### **1-4-2 Readiness for Autonomy and its Measurement**

Holec (1981) suggests that “prior to any autonomous language programme, learners should go by a deconditioning process” (p.22). During this process, learners’ perceptions, assumptions, and attitudes that run counter autonomous behaviour are replaced by the ones that favour autonomous learning behaviour. In the same vein, Cotterall (1995) argues that learners’ beliefs are important in planning for autonomy because “the beliefs and attitudes learners hold have a profound influence on their learning behaviour” (p.195). She pursues that the belief learners hold may either contribute or impede the development of their potential for autonomy; therefore, an investigation of learners’ beliefs should enable teachers to assess their learners’ “readiness” for autonomy and then to determine appropriate support for each learner.

In addition to beliefs and attitudes, Sinclair (2000) considers that metacognitive awareness, i.e., knowledge about learning can directly affect learners’ readiness for autonomy or learners’ “potential capacity to act autonomously in a given situation” (Holec,1981,p.3). For Sinclair (2000), this metacognitive awareness includes knowledge about the learner himself or herself, Knowledge about what is being learned (the task of learning), and knowledge about the learning process.

Several studies (Cotterall, 1995; Hadi, 2019; Le, 2013) attempted to measure learner’s readiness for autonomy since learners’ beliefs and attitudes are crucial in influencing their “willingness” to take control of their learning. For example, Cotterall (1995) designed a twenty-six items questionnaire to investigate ESL students’ readiness for autonomy by exploring five factors. These are: the role of the teacher, role of feedback, learners’ independence in the study, learners’ confidence in study ability, experience of language learning, and approaches to studying. She concludes “These beliefs will affect (and sometimes inhibit) learners' receptiveness to the ideas and activities presented in the

language class, particularly when the approach is not consonant with the learners' experience" (Cotterall, 1995, p.203).

In the Algerian context, Hadi (2018) explores students' readiness for autonomy at the tertiary level in a direct question and find that more than half of them, that is 51% of them admitted that they were not ready at all to take charge of their learning. The reason behind this lack of readiness to take responsibility lies in their educational experience in which they depended totally on their teachers.

For the purpose of this study, first-year students' readiness for autonomy in reading literary texts is conceptualised as the affective component of learner autonomy termed by Littlewood (1996) and Dam (1995) as "willingness". This encompasses students' attitudes and beliefs about literature, students' metacognitive awareness about the learning task and the learning process.

#### **1-4-3 Approaches to Assessing Learner Autonomy**

Measuring the attainment degree of learner autonomy has been approached indirectly by finding its relationship with observable and measurable factors such as measuring learners' proficiency improvement gains (Green & Oxford, 1995), investigating learners' motivation and perceived strategy use (Nunan,1997), evaluating strategy training in terms of effective and frequency of use (O'Malley & Chamot,1990).

However, according to Sinclair (1999) such approaches suffer from some shortcomings. One of these shortcomings is the difficulty of excluding other variables to make a clear-cut correlation between learner autonomy and other factors. In the same vein, Benson (2010) admits that there is a relationship between autonomy and each of these constructs: strategy use (Wenden, 1996), certain kind of beliefs (Cotterall, 1995), and motivation (Ushiod, 1996), "but these constructs should be kept distinct from autonomy" (p.91). Instead, Benson (2010) proposes a model of assessment based on his conceptualisation of the construct of autonomy. If learner's autonomy refers to a certain kind of relationship between the student and the learning process, which he terms "control", then measuring it implies measuring the degree to which learners are in 'control of important dimensions of their learning" (p.79). Three poles of attraction are presented in his framework: student control, other control, or no control. Though plausible, Benson's model does not present practical ways in which it could be implemented. What is relevant;

however, in his model for the purpose of this study is Benson's assertion that measuring autonomy does not imply measuring the degree to which the learner is free or independent from others control, but the degree to which he/she is in control of the learning process.

Other approaches for measuring learner autonomy which seem more relevant for the context of this study consist in breaking down the construct of autonomy into measurable constructs (e.g., Champagne et al, 2001; Lai, 2001; Sinclair, 1999a; Tassinari, 2012). For example, Tassinari (2012) proposes a dynamic model for assessing learner autonomy which comprises four dimensions: the cognitive and metacognitive dimension, the action oriented (skills and competencies) dimension, the affective and emotional dimension, and the social cooperative component. These components are reflected in lists summarising learners' competencies, skills, choices, and decision-making with "can do" statements that describe in details these competencies and skills. A distinctive characteristic of this model is that it takes into consideration the interactive relationship between the four components and their interdependence. The model also uses self-assessment instead of imposing external form of assessment, which Tassinari (2012) considers opposing the essence of learner autonomy. Tassinari's model was validated by experts from CRAPEL, *Université Nancy 2*.

Another approach to assess learner autonomy which is in many ways relevant for the purpose of this study is Sinclair's (1999). In this model, Sinclair focuses on autonomy as a capacity rather than as behaviour. As such measuring learner autonomy consists in measuring or monitoring this capacity to infer learners' degree of autonomy. Sinclair (1999) contends:

[t]he principle challenge is to evaluate the "capacity" for making informed decisions about language learning. In other words, it is necessary to monitor learners' metacognitive awareness, an area which has mostly been neglected by the teaching profession and educational researchers. (p.101)

Underlying the capacity for making informed decisions about language learning is their metacognitive awareness of learning which derives from metacognition. The latter is a term coined by Flavell (1970) to describe learners' awareness of the learning processes. Sinclair (1999) contends that there is a strong relationship between metacognitive awareness and learner autonomy. Therefore, measuring learner autonomy involves assessment of the development of metacognition which, according to Sinclair (1999a)

involves three important areas: the learner himself/herself as a learner, the subject matter, i.e. the English language and in this study literary texts reading, and the process of learning. To these three areas, Sinclair (2000) added a fourth one which is the learning context. Sinclair (2000) proposes a set of questions relevant for the assessment of these areas and some criteria of evaluation.

In the context of this study, learners' metacognitive knowledge of self as learner and learners (readers of literary texts) and their metacognitive knowledge of the task of reading literary texts are integrated in the readiness for autonomy in reading literary texts questionnaire and in the interviews. They are investigated by a set of questions pre and post-test.

The reason behind integrating Sinclair's (1999) model of autonomy assessment in the readiness for autonomy in reading literary texts questionnaire is that the present study adapts Littlewood's (1996) framework that describes learner autonomy in terms of four components: capacity composed of knowledge and skills and willingness made up of motivation and confidence. The assessment of willingness consists in measuring readiness for autonomy before and after the experiment. On the other hand, the measurement of capacity is dealt with by first measuring students' literary skills via the literary competence test and second by assessing students' awareness and use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies of reading literary texts using SORS adapted to literary texts and the read aloud protocols.

In sum, although the measurement of learner autonomy seems to be problematic, research has suggested some models for measuring the degree of autonomy attainment. Such assessment approaches are particularly essential in programmes seeking to promote learner autonomy in language learning. These autonomy promotion programmes are the object of discussion of the following sub-section.

## **1-5 Promoting Learner Autonomy**

### **1-5-1 Why Promoting Learner Autonomy**

The ultimate goal of education in the era of knowledge and technological growth in which we live has ceased to be "filling empty containers" or "depositing credit into banks" (Freire, 1972). Instead, the overarching aim of education is life-long learning or learner

autonomy; in other words, preparing learners to be effective citizens capable of thinking independently to cope with upcoming events.

What has been noted is that no educational institutions can teach a learner all the knowledge and skills of a particular domain. Nor could any language programme or teacher pretend to inculcate in a learner a native-like proficiency. Therefore, the objectives of all teaching shifted the focus away from what to learn to how to learn or “learning how to learn” (Bruner, 1960). Instead of focusing mainly on the content to be learnt, teaching should draw learners’ attention to the processes involved in learning and their capacity as learners to learn independently by acquiring some strategies. Put in another way, teaching should aim at cultivating autonomous learners.

This capacity of thinking and learning independently is not innate according to Holec (1981), nor is it cultural specific (Little, 1990), but it is susceptible to be promoted in any learner of a normal intelligence around the world. Accordingly, several researchers (e.g., Wenden, 1987, Ellis & Sinclair, 1989) have been concerned with ways of promoting learner autonomy, and eventually several approaches for promoting learner autonomy have been proposed.

### **1-5-2 Approaches of Promoting Learner Autonomy**

Broadly speaking, Benson( 2001) distinguishes between approaches which seek to provide opportunities for learner control outside the classroom and are referred to as the technology-based approaches and in-class arrangements which “ focus on the production of behavioural and psychological changes that will enable learners to take greater control over their learning” (Benson,2001,p.114). Similarly, Le (2013) notices a distinction between two main approaches: outside the classroom practices like the Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) and self-access centres, and in-class arrangements like provision of choice, change of teachers and learners’ roles, and learner training or learner development programmes

#### **1-5-2-1The Resource-Based and the Technology-Based Approaches**

The resource-based approach consists in the self access centres which are defined by Benson (2001) as learning facilities which include audio, video, and computer workstations, audiotapes, videotapes, computer software, and a variety of printed



materials. Many of them contain areas for group work and counselling desks. The technology-based approaches consist in the use of CALL and the internet.

These outside classroom approaches gained a lot of interest in the 1990s; their importance has appeared to be notably crucial in the last worldwide health crisis of Covid19 virus. The lock-down imposed by this crisis led to the shutting down of public educational institutions. The only way to pursue educational programmes and to meet examination dates worldwide was the technology-based approaches of teaching.

However, in the normal course of life, the in-class approaches are supposed to be more efficient in raising learner autonomy. Several proponents argue that (language) classroom is where learner autonomy begins (e.g. Ellis & Sinclair, 1989; Nunan, 1997). The in-class approaches can be classified as curriculum-based, teacher-based, and learner-based. (Benson, 2001; Le, 2013)

### **1-5-2-2Curriculum-Based Approaches**

According to the proponents of this approach (Cotterall, 1995; Lee, 1998) learners involvement in the process of decision making about the “what” learning content and the “how” method of teaching is likely to bring about “learners’ decision-making, *flexibility, adaptability, and modifiability*” (Quoq Lap,2005,p.30). According to Benson (2001), the origin of curriculum-based approaches is to be found in the process syllabus which emerged in the 1980s as a result of the development of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) ideas and task-based learning. The main principle of these approaches is that language learning content should be selected and organised within the communicative processes that take place in the classroom itself (Breen & Candlin, 1980 as cited in Benson, 2001, p.146). However, there are very few accounts concerning the relationship of the process syllabus and the promotion of learner autonomy.

This gap was filled by a number of initiatives in which learners were encouraged to take responsibility at the curriculum level. One of these initiatives is Dam’s (1995). Her initiative consisted in trying to involve students in a secondary school in Denmark in the decisions concerning the choice of classroom activities and the learning materials. She found that sharing the responsibility with the learners in planning and conducting learning activities caused them to be actively involved and led to better learning and increased their capacity to evaluate the learning process. (Quoq Lap, 2005).

In addition to Dam's (1995) model, there are the autonomous learning modules in Finland and the talk-base in Thailand. All of them have become established ones, attesting the evidence of the effectiveness of curriculum-based approaches in promoting learner autonomy. Their effectiveness according to Benson (2001) is mainly due to the fact that they address control holistically (control over self management, cognitive skills, and over the content).

Although the present study does not involve students much in curriculum decisions, but one of it does take students' interest and level of understanding when selecting the course content. Moreover, one of its implications and recommendations is to involve students more in the selection of the content of the literature course.

### **1-5-2-3The Teacher-Based Approaches**

Benson (2001) observes that although the different approaches for promoting learner autonomy seems the application of different methods, in practice, all of these approaches are "no more than a framework for interaction between teachers and learners and their effectiveness often depends on their implementation by teachers on a day-to-day basis" (p.71). The teacher-based approaches place a lot of emphasis on teacher's professional development and on teacher education.

More particularly, these approaches consist in converting the role of the teacher from that of knowledge detainer and informant to that of a counsellor and a facilitator. Instead of imparting knowledge and information to the students, the teacher need to involve the learners in their learning process by raising their awareness of their ability to be in charge of their learning; therefore, he enables the learner to take over some of the his or her roles as a teacher (Le, 2013). Proponents of this approach such as Scharle and Szabo (2000) propose some ways of passing over the control from the teachers to the students; they perceive the promotion of learner autonomy as a gradual process containing three phases. Through the use of learning activities, (1) learners should be made aware of the nature of language learning and their contribution to learning, put in another way, raising learners' awareness, then (2) they need some practice in their new attitudes as responsible learners (i.e., changing attitudes), and finally (3) they will be ready to take over some roles from the teacher and enjoy the freedom that accompanies their new roles as responsible for their own learning. (Quoq Lap, 2005)

However, not all teachers are ready to give up their dogmatic roles in the classroom; some of them show even resistance to this new classroom order. For example, Sinclair (2001) mentioned an anecdote about how a teacher of Russian literature could not understand and even put down the autonomous attitude of a student who instead of obeying the teacher's instructions continued the reading of a novel independently. Such remarks make teacher's development and teacher's education a must and have led to the emergence of the concept of teacher autonomy. The latter arises from the realization of many the teachers involved with learner autonomy of the importance of their role in the process of helping learners take greater control over their learning (Benson, 2001). In this vein, Thavenius (1999) contends that developing autonomy in the learner involves the teacher in ways that he/she cannot realize; "it is not just a matter of changing teaching techniques, it is a matter of changing teacher personality". (p.172)

The teacher's role is notably crucial in the present study for the implementation of the task-based materials advocated for the promotion of greater autonomy in reading literary texts. Unless the teacher is ready to give up some of his traditional roles in explaining everything, the materials are unlikely to bring about the expected autonomous behaviour in reading literary texts.

#### **1-5-2-4The Learner-Based Approaches**

The learner-based approaches focus on bringing about behavioural and psychological changes that are necessary for learners to be able to take greater control over their learning (Benson, 2001). The learner-based approaches are also referred to as learner-training or learner development; they emerged from research on learner-training in Europe and the work on learning strategies in North America in the 1960s and the 1970s. However, in the 1990s the two schools merged together and from then on, the term learner development started to be used to refer to both strategy-training and learner-training. Although there are still some researchers who still prefer to use the term learner-training, Sheerin (1997) argues that learner-training implies the imparting of a set of skills by someone to someone else whereas she defines learner development as "a cognitive and affective development involving increasing awareness of oneself as a learner and increasing willingness and ability to manage one's own learning." (Sheerin, 1997, pp. 59-60)

On the other hand, Sinclair (1996) prefers to maintain the term learner training and suggests giving the term “training” a broader, more educational view by adopting the following definition:

Learner training aims to help learners consider the factors which affect their learning and discover the learning strategies which suit them best, so that they may become more effective learners and take on more responsibility for their own learning. (Ellis & Sinclair, 1989, p.2)

In the light of the two definitions, learner-based approaches involve highlighting effective learning strategies used by the good language learners (Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975) in the aim of systematically training learners how to use them effectively. It was suggested that the effective use of learning strategies (metacognitive, cognitive, and communicative) can lead to improvement in language learning.

More importantly, it has been claimed that the effective handling of learning strategies, i.e. using them independently, flexibly, and effectively, is equivalent with autonomy in learning. In this sense, Wenden (1991) argues:

In effect ‘successful’ or ‘expert’ or ‘intelligent’ learners have learned how to learn. They have acquired the learning strategies, the knowledge about learning, and the attitudes that enable them to use these skills and knowledge confidently, flexibly, appropriately and independently of a teacher. Therefore, they are autonomous.  
(p.15)

Two principle issues are raised in this learner development programmes. The first concerns the type of strategies that are likely to lead to learners’ control and management over the learning process and the second concerns approaches of instructing or acquiring these strategies by the learners so that they can use them effectively and flexibly to cope with language learning challenges to be autonomous learners.

#### **1-5-2-4-1 Strategies of Developing Control over Learning Management**

The most cited research about language learning strategies is O’Malley & Chamot (1990) who after interviewing secondary school ESL learners on the strategies they use

while learning their second language come up with three main categories of strategies: the metacognitive strategies, social strategies, and cognitive strategies.

First, the metacognitive strategies: they concern thinking about the learning process; O'Malley and Chamot (1990) identify seven groups of metacognitive strategies. These are: planning for learning (i.e., asking questions about learning objectives, learning content, learning techniques or learning strategies to use), monitoring the learning task (i.e. checking understanding, adjusting the learning techniques or strategies) and evaluating learning (i.e. assessing how successful the learning performance was and how can it be improved). These strategies were found to be of great significance for successful language learning. In fact, the metacognitive strategies of deciding about what to learn, how to learn it and evaluating the learning are abilities emphasised by several definitions of learner autonomy.

Second, the social and affective strategies: while the former involve interacting and cooperating with others in order to achieve a learning objective, the latter are related to affect and include anxiety control, lowering one's anxiety, self-motivation and encouragement and the like of strategies related to affect.

Third, the cognitive strategies: “[they] are limited to specific learning tasks and involve more direct manipulation of the learning material itself” ( Brown, 1994, p. 124). Examples of these strategies include note taking, deduction, translation, inferencing, transfer,...etc)

The three set of strategies are congruent with the components of learner autonomy conceptualised in Littlewood's model and in Tassinari's framework. The metacognitive and the cognitive strategies are represented by “knowledge” and “ability”. The social and affective strategies are represented by “willingness”.

Acquiring these strategies implies acquiring greater level of autonomy; therefore, several approaches have been presented for the acquisition of learning strategies. Among these are : 1) direct advice on language learning strategies and techniques, 2) training based on “ good language learner” research and insights from cognitive psychology, 3) training in which learners are encouraged to experiment with strategies and discover which work well for them, 4) synthetic approaches embedded in language classroom programmes, 5) integrated approaches treating learning strategies as a by-product of

language learning, 6) Self-directed approaches in which learners are encouraged to train themselves through reflection, self-directed learning activities (Benson, 2011).

However, according to Benson (2001) the claim that strategy use leads to autonomy need to be treated with caution. He points out that some research has found out that some learning training programmes end up instructing strategies in a decontextualized way making learners knowing about the strategy without actually handling its use. The challenge, according to Murayana (1996), is to make students change their perception of learning from completing tasks set by others to constructing knowledge by themselves.

Following this line of thought, the task-based designed materials in this study can be considered as a learning training programme due to the embedded reading strategies in each of the tasks. Rather than teaching the literary text reading strategy explicitly, learners are trained to use these strategies systematically. In other words, the cognitive and metacognitive literary reading strategies are contextualised and related to each other.

#### **1-5-2-5 The Role of Designed Materials in the Promotion of Learner Autonomy**

Learning training or learning development programmes require highly educated and motivated teachers capable of guiding learners towards acquiring autonomous behaviour. (Wenden, 1991). What is crucial, however, for both teachers and learners in such programmes are carefully designed teaching materials in which learner autonomy techniques are presented effectively (Sinclair, 1996).

Indeed, well designed instructional or teaching materials are crucial for guiding both learners and teachers in the process of acquiring greater autonomy in learning. Whether they are meant for on-line learning, for self-access centres or for classroom instructions, materials are decisive in maintaining students' interest in learning, motivating them, and building their knowledge about themselves as learners in the aim of moving towards self-directed learning. Moreover, well-designed materials can serve as a beacon to teachers involved in learner-training teaching programmes in case of ambiguities or confusion. In sum, According to Lee (1996, p.169), the roles assumed by effective materials whether in self-access, on line, or in-class instruction are both *affective* (increasing motivation in learning) and *cognitive* (guiding learners towards constructing their own learning).

Despite the importance of material design in learning training programmes and for learner autonomy in general, it has received relatively little attention and empirical studies in this area are scarce (Lee, 1996). Few researchers (Allwright, 1981; Dickinson, 1987; Frankel, 1982; Sheerin, 1989), however, have made some contributions in the topic. For example, Dickinson (1987) suggests three sources of materials: authentic texts, commercially produced courses, and materials specifically designed for self-instruction. Though Dickinson's list of sources is specified for the use in self access centres, given the period of lock-down when all educational institutions were shut, this study argues that these sources can be used for both in-class and on-line courses. A strong case was notably made for the use of authentic texts for fostering autonomy. (Benson, 2001), and literary texts are considered one type of these authentic texts.

In order to fulfil their assumed functions in learning-training programmes (on-line or in-class), the instructional materials need to have certain criteria. First, they need to be interesting and motivating to ensure learner's interaction and maintain their interest in learning. Secondly, they need to be well-structured, systematic and accompanied with clear and simple instructions. Thirdly, they should be 'good-quality'. Finally, they should be 'learning' materials rather than 'practicing' materials. Sturtridge (1982 as cited in Lee, 1996, p.169) since the latter are designed for remedial purposes whereas the former are intended to expand learners' knowledge about their own learning. (Lee, 1996)

For Sinclair (1996), the most important criterion of teaching materials intended to develop greater learner autonomy is "explicitness". By explicitness Sinclair means the extent to which the learning training or the strategy training are made explicit by the material designer. According to Wenden (1987 as cited in Sinclair, 1996, p. 153): "such criteria is crucial for any learner-training programme because it made both teachers and learners aware of the strategy they are introduced to, which situation they can use it, and to eventually evaluate the use of this strategy". Explicitness entails that material designers should make learners aware of: 1) the fact that the task they are performing is a learning-training task and that its significance will appear in the process of the course, 2) purpose of the task and its significance, 3) what it requires the learners to do, 4) how to do the task, 5) whether it is a new task or it has been recycled.

Most of these criteria are taken into consideration in the design of the task-based literature materials which are designed both for inside classroom instruction and on-line

instruction in this study. As such the materials in this study can be considered as learner-training programme whose effect on increasing learner autonomy will be studied.

## **1-6 The Relationship between Learner Autonomy and Literature**

The relationship between autonomy and literature is both internal and external. In other words, literature reading plays an important role in developing learner autonomy, but greater autonomy is also needed to read literary texts to achieve greater learner autonomy.

As mentioned in section 1-1-5 above, appropriately designed materials are crucial for the promotion of learner autonomy. Researchers (e.g. Dickinson, 1987; McGarry, 1995) have presented strong arguments for the value of authentic texts in fostering autonomy. The importance of authentic materials in promoting learners' autonomy lies in their potential to elicit from the learner "authentic interaction" Widdowson (1979). This interaction can then result in meaningful autonomous learning experience (Lee, 1996, P. 169). In this sense, Literature offers a database of authentic materials that are likely to raise this "authentic interaction". However, "authentic interaction" does not occur by merely exposing learner to authentic materials, learners need to interact and respond to this authentic material (Widdowson, 1989).

Put differently, for authentic interaction to occur, the materials need to fulfil two main functions: The first is an affective one; it consists of motivating and maintaining students' interest, and involvement. The second is cognitive; it is "providing comprehensible input and suggesting systematic learning process" (Lee, 1996, p. 169).

Therefore, selecting appealing, motivating literary texts and not too overwhelming linguistically is likely to maintain students' motivation and interest in reading (fulfil the affective function). Such materials are kind of resources of rich and comprehensible input that learners are able to interact with and to react to it. For example, students' involvement in unravelling the plot of an interesting novel or a short story may absorb them both mentally and emotionally; therefore, they can achieve the authentic interaction which leads to greater autonomy.

For another, literature constitutes a provision of language input, particularly in regions where there is limited access to spoken input as in Algeria. Hill (1986) argues that literature is full of examples of real-life language in different situations, thus, it presents a variety of models for communication practice that learners can be sensitised to.



Moreover, literature reading calls on students interpretative skills because the message of literary texts is not straightforward, and a literary text can have several interpretations. Readers of literature need to engage in inferencing by building hypotheses, checking them, and reformulating new ones to arrive to the possible meanings of the texts. These processes increase students' awareness of their abilities as readers and self-reliant independent thinkers, which, in turn, has a direct implication for learners' autonomy.

However, for literary texts to stimulate learners' autonomy by achieving this authentic interaction, learners need to develop autonomy in reading literary texts. Put differently, in order to make literature as a resource of comprehensible input and a resource for intellectual development and affective maturity, the literature teachers and literature materials should make their objective the development of a taste for literature in the students. In this vein, Sinclair (1997) argues that "the teacher's ultimate aim is, presumably to develop in the students the ability to read and understand the meanings embedded in the language [ ], and to encourage in them an interest in reading English which will motivate them to choose and read texts independently with understanding and enjoyment" (p.142). For Sinclair (1997) rather than imposing absolute autonomy for which students may not be ready, the role of the teacher should be to develop in the students a taste for literature. This will enable the students to develop the ability for selecting according to their own interest, and to deal with the language, discourse, style, form and contexts of these texts. In other words, part of the teacher's responsibility in literature classes is to enable learners to be more responsible for their learning.

Although some literature teachers may argue that they are already doing so, i.e., enabling learners to take on more responsibility for their learning, the reality of literature teaching and students' lack of motivation in reading literature reveals an opposite state of fact.

The claim that autonomy is not an innate capacity, but it can be acquired via appropriate training (Holec, 1981) has led to the emergence of learner training programmes, whose aims are to train students on the techniques, processes, and strategies to be more autonomous in language learning. Proponents of learner-training such as Dickinson and Carver (1980) suggest that learners need to be prepared psychologically and methodologically and to be given opportunities for self-directed learning in order to develop the capacity for autonomous learning.

According to Sinclair (1997), the psychological preparation can be in the form of class discussions about topics of reading in their mother tongues and areas of difficulties or problems when reading literature in a foreign language.

The methodological preparation concerns familiarity with literary metalanguage appropriate for their level, but also the methodology used in the classroom. The notion of explicitness is crucial for Sinclair's conception of learner-training. To raise learners' awareness, they need to be informed about the why and the how of an instruction, a task or an activity so as these tasks are not carried out blindly (Wenden, 1986). By making learners aware of the importance of certain techniques and strategies of learning, they may be able to transfer them to other contexts and situations. Therefore, they take more responsibility for their learning.

In addition, on the way of making learners more independent learners, teachers should provide them with opportunities for self-direction. At the beginning, these opportunities may be minimal such as choosing a partner or choosing a text from a set of texts, or selecting a group of activities. Gradually, learners might be encouraged to suggest books or texts for the class.

Furthermore learner-training strategies need to be systematic. In other words, autonomy and learning to learn need to be carried out in a systematic way. This combination consists of integrating metacognitive with cognitive strategy training. Sinclair (1997) suggests applying in literature teaching an approach based on asking students questions to stimulate reflection and experimentation. The systematic strategy training needs to be embedded in the act of reading such as the pre-reading tasks in which students are encouraged to activate their schema or background knowledge before reading. On the other hand, in the while reading tasks, students are encouraged to monitor and evaluate their reading. In fact the literature abounds with a wide range of options suitable for the promotion of autonomy in reading.

To sum up, if the promotion of learner autonomy is seen as the ultimate goal of language learning education nowadays, Literature could have an important role in achieving such a goal. Literature and literary texts have all the potential of promoting learner autonomy if learners acquire greater independence and autonomy in reading literary texts. Sinclair suggests a pedagogy in which students are progressively led to autonomy in reading. It consists of psychological preparation, methodological preparation,

providing opportunities for self-direction, and systematic training. While her model sounds plausible for teaching literature with small “I” as she suggests, the aim of this study is to teach literature with “L” i.e., for acquiring literary competence. Accordingly, though in essence the models proposed by Sinclair and the TBLT are the same (same objectives), the content and procedures vary.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter provides an overview about the concept of autonomy. It starts with the background and the origin of the concept and then its definition in the field of language learning and in reading literary texts. The different definitions of autonomy make it possible to delineate the different components of this construct which is by definition a multi-faceted concept. This chapter also provides insights into ways of promoting and measuring the attainment of autonomy which serve as a framework for this study. Finally, the chapter ends with the relationship between literature and autonomy which proves to be intrinsic and extrinsic.

**Chapter Two**  
**On the Nature of Reading and Literature Reading**

## **Chapter Two**

### **On the Nature of Reading and Literature Reading**

#### **Introduction**

An understanding of literary texts reading involves necessarily an understanding of the reading skill itself. This section presents an overview about reading and the different processes and strategies underlying this skill. Besides, since this study is concerned with EFL learners, the chapter deals with the challenges and difficulties that may encounter second language readers. Finally, the section will zoom in on the nature of literature reading, and what it involves.

#### **2-1 Models of Reading**

Reading and second language reading has been viewed differently by different learning theories. From the mid 1950s to the early 1970s, behaviourism was the dominant learning theory. Following this theory, whether in L1 or L2 reading was viewed as a passive mechanical decoding of linguistic information in which the reader begins by letters and moves to words and sentences up to the construction of meaning. In an indication of the processing mode, this model was called the bottom-up processing; its main advocates were Gough (1972), LaBerge and Samuel (1974).

On the other hand, from the late 1960s and the beginning of 1970s the cognitivists came up with the contradictory model which was called the top-down processing model, researcher like Goodman (1967, 1985), Smith (1979, 1982) claim that reading is not a linear process, but one in which readers constantly form hypothesis, test predictions, and use their knowledge of the world. Goodman (1967) refers to this model as “a psycholinguistic guessing game”.

Drawing from the work of psycholinguists like Goodman and Smith about native language reading, Clarke and Silberstein (1977) and Coday (1979) suggest psycholinguistic models of second language reading in which reading was viewed as an active process of text comprehension made possible by readers' use of their background knowledge and appropriate strategies (e.g. previewing using contextual clues, or making inferences). The bottom-up processes were neglected and little attention was paid to them.

The bottom-up model was based on L1 reading research and was extended to L2 reading. One of the outcomes of this model was the emergence of the phonics-based method whose emphasis was letter-sound correspondence at the expense of higher-level elements (Alderson & Bachman, 2000).

Similarly, the top-down model influences greatly both L1 and L2 reading methodology. This influence is revealed in textbooks where both L1 students and L2 learners are encouraged to make guesses, predictions, and inferences (Davies, 1995; Wallace, 1992) with very little attention paid to the phonemic or the lower levels of processing.

The criticism of the bottom-up and the top-down models led in the last decades to the emergence of the interactive models of reading which perceive reading as an interactive cognitive process. In these models, the two modes of processing and the interaction between bottom-up and top-down processes are taken into consideration. Proponents of these models in first language reading were Rumelhart (1977, 1980) and Kintsch (2004). In second language reading, Carrell and Eisterhold (1983), Carrell (1985), and more recently Khalifa and Weir (2009) are considered as landmarks for the interactive model.

Broadly speaking, the interactive model of reading assumes that the reader engages in a top-down processing of a text by recruiting his/her background knowledge. The latter is made up of world knowledge, knowledge of the language and the written conventions. This knowledge is combined with the reader's expectations or purposes for reading and experience. All these are applied for the interpretation of the text by integrating new information from the text into pre-existing mental schemata. Good readers also make constant adjustments to the text by bringing about background knowledge relevant to the text.

Simultaneously, the reader uses a bottom-up approach by applying his linguistic knowledge (orthography, vocabulary, syntax) as well as some reading strategies for the decoding of the text (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000). An example of the interactive model of reading is Khalifa and Weir's (2009) which instead of the bottom-up and the top-down concepts uses two dimensions of reading, the careful and expeditious modes of reading. They operate either at the local or the global level.

The local level refers to decoding activities such as word recognition, lexical access, syntactic parsing, and establishing propositional meaning at the sentence and clause level. Global level or global comprehension, on the other hand, refers to the understanding of main ideas and essential details at the macro-structure level of a text. This includes inferencing, building a mental model creating a text level representation, and creating intertextual representation. The careful reading involves comprehension of the contents of every part of the text whereas expeditious reading refers to strategies such as scanning, skimming and search reading or reading for extracting particular information.

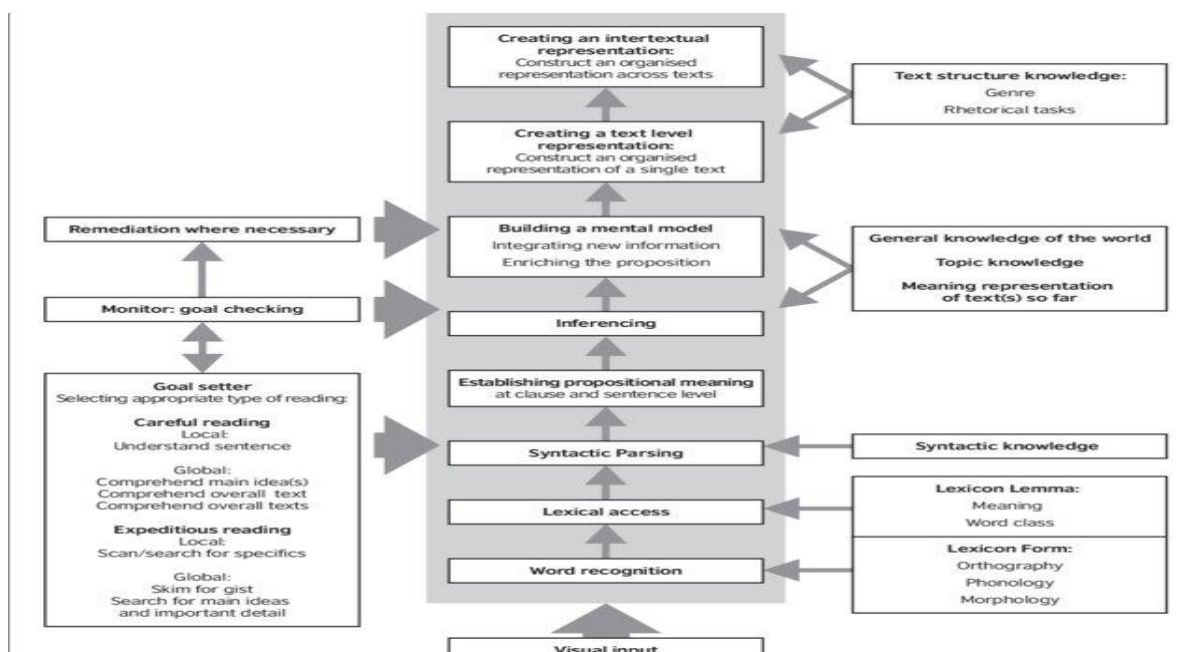


Figure 2-1 A model of reading Visual input syntactic knowledge

Source: Khalifa and Weir, 2009, p. 43

Such a model, which describes efficient L1 and L2 readers, implies that good readers need to draw on both expeditious and careful reading strategies and to operate at both the global and the local level. This, in turn, suggests that good or efficient readers need not only to have a good language proficiency level, but they also need to have a good grasp of the reading strategies (global and local). The following section looks at the main characteristics of efficient readers.

## 2-2 Metacognitive Strategies for effective reading

In line with studies about the good language learners to determine the factors behind their success in language learning, research was undertaken in the field of reading for the same objective, i.e. highlighting the characteristics of successful and effective

readers. In particular, attention was paid to the reading strategies used by those skilled readers. Research aimed to determine the different reading strategies, how and under what conditions they were used

Exploratory descriptive studies using think aloud methods identified the relationship between certain types of strategies and successful readers (Hosenfeld, 1977). However, the relationship between strategy and comprehension is not direct and straightforward. The use of certain strategies does not necessarily lead to successful reading comprehension (Carrell 1989). Anderson (1991) argues: “Successful second language reading comprehension is not simply a matter of knowing what strategy to use, but the reader must know how to use it successfully and to orchestrate its use with other strategies”. (p.19)

The latter observation of Anderson shifts the focus away from knowledge of reading strategies to awareness and control of these reading strategies which pertains to metacognition. In other words, proficient or skilled readers whether in L1 or L2 do not only know about the array of strategies to use when reading but are also aware of how to use them efficiently for the purpose of comprehension.

Indeed, several studies (e.g. Garner, 1987; Kern, 1989; Block, 1992; Revive, 1993) recognize metacognitive awareness as a crucial element in comprehension whether in L1 or L2 reading. Moreover, Auerbach and Paxon (1997) and Carrell et al (1989) consider metacognitive awareness to be a critical factor for proficient and strategic reading. According to Flavell (1979), who was the first to coin the term, metacognition is knowledge that takes as its objects to regulate any aspect of any cognitive behaviour.

Carrell (1989), adopting the Flavellian model, posits that metacognition in the context of reading is usually understood to consist of two types of cognition: first, *Knowledge* of strategies for learning from the text, and second the *control* readers have of their own actions while reading for different purposes. In the same vein, Auerbach and Paxon (1997) argue that metacognition “entails knowledge of strategies for processing texts, the ability to monitor comprehension, and the ability to adjust strategies as needed” (pp. 240-41). Zhang (2001) summarises the definitions of metacognitive reading strategies as follows:



learners' thinking about the reading process, planning for reading, monitoring comprehension while reading- overseeing, supervising, evaluating the reading process and the effectiveness of strategies used in reading, and verifying what is read, as well as specific steps in problem solving during comprehension.(p.275)

The above definitions of metacognition in reading are in many ways consistent with Sinclair (1999) perception of autonomy (see section 1-4) in language learning. In other words, both learner autonomy and metacognitive reading involve planning, monitoring, and evaluating the learning or the reading process. Such a remark leads to the conclusion that promoting learner autonomy in reading equals promoting metacognitive awareness of reading i.e. knowledge of strategies to comprehend from the text and control of the use of these strategies while reading.

The present study adopts the same view of Sheory and Mokhtari (2001) who suggest that:

The reader's metacognitive knowledge about reading includes an awareness of a variety of reading strategies and that the enterprise of reading is influenced by this metacognitive awareness of reading strategies [ ] it is the combination of conscious awareness of the strategic reading processes and the actual utilization of reading strategies that distinguish the skilled from the unskilled readers(p. 3)

In addition to the metacognitive awareness or the metacognitive strategies, L2 readers do face other challenges and difficulties which are discussed in the following subsection.

### **2-3 Challenges and Difficulties of Reading in a Second or a Foreign Language**

Cultivating proficiency in reading one's own language is a demanding task, but it is much more demanding when reading in a second or a foreign language. Based on the components of the skill of reading, research has attempted to pinpoint the main challenges and difficulties faced by second or foreign language readers.

According to Alderson (1984), an important question to answer in order to sort out the difficulties and challenges of second language readers is whether reading in a second language is a reading problem or a language problem. To answer this question, he presents two controversial views. The first is that second language reading problems are mainly due to inappropriate language proficiency, and the second view considers that L2 problems stem from first language reading ones. In other words, poor L1 readers necessarily face reading problem in the second language or the foreign language.

In support of the first view, Alderson presents research findings by Clarke (1979) and Cooper (1984) which show that reading difficulties in the second language are due to second language readers' inability to use the linguistic cues to determine meaning and to the weaknesses in their vocabulary knowledge. These remarks have led to the conclusion that there need to be a "threshold of second language competence" (Alderson, 1984, p. 04) that must be reached before successful second language reading is possible.

The opposite view is the one supported by Goodman and Goodman's research (1978 as cited in Hudson 2007, p. 62). It posits that "there is no absolute threshold below which there is no comprehension whatsoever". After analysing the miscue reading text of second language learners from different ethnic groups, Goodman and Goodman come up with the conclusion that first language reading processes are applied in second language reading no matter the difficulty of the texts. Yet, some of these processes might not be fully applied until language ability has been improved.

Nevertheless, Hudson (2007, p. 63) notes that the majority of the groups examined by Goodman and Goodman (1978) has first languages of alphabetic orthography which accounts for their relative ability to process English as a second language. Such ability of transferring L1 reading processes to second or foreign language reading does not necessarily apply to languages which do not have alphabetic orthography such as Japanese and Chinese.

In fact research shows that second or foreign language reading difficulties might be the result of transferring inadequate first language reading strategies. For example, after analysing the written entries journal of 25 Chinese trainee teachers, Paris (1996) suggests that her subjects' stronger tendency to use bottom-up processes was closely linked to their L1 literacy tradition and their understanding how reading should proceed.

The results of the studies mentioned above suggest that reading courses need to take into account learners' linguistic threshold, i.e. proficiency level to select texts within this threshold and second to instruct the relevant reading strategies of the target language.

Another challenge or difficulty related to second or foreign language reading concerns fluency (reading speed) or automaticity of word processing. Second language readers do not recognise and decode words as rapidly as in their first language reading. According to Alderson and Bachman (2000) at beginner levels, there might be graphic as well as lexical problems; however, the problems may persist even with more advanced learners. It has been claimed that readers will read measurably more slowly in their second language than in their first language, and will never overcome the level of automaticity. (Hall 2005)

Furthermore, background knowledge or content schema is another important factor for reading comprehension. As Freire and Macedo (1987) observe that reading does not involve only the decoding of written words of a given language, but it is preceded by and intertwined with knowledge of the world. Language and reality are dynamically interconnected. The understanding attained by critical reading of a text implies perceiving the relationship between text and content.

For example, Hudson (2007) cites several studies in which culturally embedded texts were processed by second language readers with difficulty and sometimes the meaning of these texts was distorted. One of these studies was Pritchard's (1990) who analysed the recall protocols of 11<sup>th</sup> grade readers from the U.S and the Pacific island nation of Palau read culturally familiar and unfamiliar passages in their native language, he found that the subjects recalled significantly more ideas from the culturally familiar passage than from the unfamiliar passage. Besides, he noticed that there was significantly more distortion in the recall of the culturally unfamiliar passage than the culturally familiar one.

Another research was that of Abu-Rabia (1996 as cited in Hudson 2007, p. 153) who examined the effects of schema and beliefs on second language reading comprehension. The study consists in comparing the reading comprehension and the attitude score of 2 groups of students. The first were Israeli Arabs studying Hebrew as a second language, and the second group were Israeli Jewish studying English. Each group were given two texts to read followed by comprehension questions. One contained

culturally familiar text and was translated to the readers' second language. (Hebrew English), and the other contain culturally unfamiliar content and was written in the readers' first language. The results of the analysis indicated that the students comprehend better the text where familiar cultural content is presented than texts where unfamiliar cultural context is presented no matter the language of the text. Such findings suggest that culturally specific information in the text should be highlighted prior to each reading assignments in order to avoid misunderstanding, distortion of meaning and to facilitate the processing of the text.

In summary, second and foreign language readers' ability to read competently depends on a number of variables. These are the language proficiency variable, the first or native language reading ability, their mastery of strategic reading in their L1, the degree to which they have acquired decoding automaticity, and availability of content schemata or the background and cultural knowledge. All of these variables need to be taken into account when designing a reading course for second language learners.

What have been presented so far concerns reading in general, that is to say the reading skill related to all kind of texts. Whether or not literary reading involves the same models and strategies is a question discussed in the following sub-section.

## **2-4 First and Second Language Reading of Literary Texts**

### **2-4-1 Characteristics of Literary Texts**

Before delving into the processes involved in reading literary texts, the main differences that distinguish a literary text from a non-literary one need to be highlighted. The difference between literary and non literary texts lies in both the form and the communicative purpose of each of them. In response to the formalist view which states that the main characteristic of literary language is its deviation from the everyday use of the language (disturbs, upsets the routine normal view of the language) (Carter, 1997), Widdowson (1975) contends that deviant language or violation of linguistic rules is neither a necessity nor a condition for a discourse to be literary. These characteristics i.e. creativity, distortion, and violation of linguistic rules do exist in everyday life (Carter & McCarthy (1995). However, what is distinct about literary discourse is that "non literal expressions figure as part of a pattern which characterises the literary work as a separate and self contained whole" (Widdowson, 1975, pp. 36-37). In other words, the meaning in a

literary text is created out of a combination between the linguistic items and pattern in which it appears. This pattern is specific because it is superimposed on the linguistic code and is unexpected by our inferring process.

By working the language into a unique and distinctive design, the literary writer hopes to achieve a specific communication objective different from everyday communication objective. While in the latter, the language is used to convey useful and immediate messages by a restatement of a reality, the literary communication conveys “an individual awareness of reality” (Widdowson, 1975, p. 70). Put in another way, the literary writer conveys his perception of reality through the way he manipulates the language into patterns.

It follows that the processes of reading a literary and non-literary text are different. First, if the purpose of reading a literary text is to be informed, search or gather information (scientific or news), through the immediate reality stated in the text, the purpose of reading a literary text is to understand the writer’s “perception of reality”. To do so, the reader needs to attend to the language used by the writer to achieve his purpose. By contrast to non literary texts, reading a literary text does not involve informative, instrumental, and pragmatic purposes, but a purely aesthetic purpose which is related to feelings and emotions. Furthermore, contrary to non-literary texts, literary texts could have more than one interpretation and more than one single understanding. In this sense, Rosenblatt (1978) uses the dichotomy efferent Vs aesthetic attitudes to the reading. In efferent reading, the reader is interested in the information contained in a text; the process of reading is a process of deciphering this information. In contrast, during aesthetic reading, the reader’s primary concern is with the process of reading and the experience he/she is living throughout this process, i.e., his/her interaction with the text.

Due to these main differences, it is claimed that reading literary texts requires in addition to the basic reading skills of decoding and the bottom-up and top-down processes, specific skills and competencies. One of these is literary competence or LC.

#### **2-4.1.1 Definition and Components of Literary Competence (LC)**

Since literary texts are different from non literary ones in both the language they use and the purpose of their communication, understanding literary text goes beyond a basic understanding of the language of the text, as Brumfit (1986, p. 187) puts it: “it is the

significant of the text that is important to the good reader, not its ability to be translated exactly”.

Owing to these differences between literary and non literary texts, Culler (1975) in his book “*Structuralist Poetics*” comes up with the concept of “literary competence”. In an analogy to Chomsky’s linguistic competence, Culler considers that readers of literature are unable to make sense of a literary text unless they possess a degree in literary competence. He contends:

...any one wholly unacquainted with literature and unfamiliar with the conventions by which fictions are read, would...be quite baffled if presented with a poem. His knowledge of the language would enable him to understand phrases and sentences, but he would not know, quite literally, what to make of this strange concatenation of phrases. He would be unable to read it as literature...because he lacks the complex ‘literary competence’ which enables others to proceed. He has not internalised the ‘grammar’ of literature which would permit him to convert linguistic sequences into literary structures and meanings. (p. 185)

In other words, to be able to read, understand and process a literary text as such, the reader need to be familiar with conventions by which literature is written otherwise he/she would not be able to make sense of the string of words that form the literary texts. Culler (1975) attempts to pinpoint some of the literary conventions which operate for particular genres, for example, he posits that competent readers of novels are able to identify the plot, distinguish the plot from background information and summarise the story. Quoting and expanding on Culler’s literary conventions that operate for a novel, Lazar (1993, p. 13) suggests that “competent readers of novels are able to recognize how themes in the plot may be reflected by themes in the sub-plot, how particular characters come to embody certain values or attitudes how the narration is shaped by a particular point of view and so on”. Lazar pursues that even if it is not possible to list all the skills and competences that make up literary competence, it is important for the teacher to delineate the type of literary skills that the teaching programme is targeting.

Later on, and just like communicative competence came as an extension and remedial to the concept of linguistic competence Schmidt (1982) reconsiders literary

competence by taking into account the sociological system of literary production and reception. In other words, not unlike communicative competence, literary competence must be viewed as a capacity that develops by experiences in an interpretative community (Fish, 1980).

In his conception of LC and didactic of literature, Fish (1980) shift the focus away from the literary text (the grammar of literature and the literary conventions by which the literary text is written) to the act of reading and the reader himself/herself. In consonance with the reader-response theory in literary criticism (Rosenblatt, 1978 and Iser, 1978), Fish (1980 as cited in Wiland, 20018, par.11) posits that “Meaning is not a product to be found, but an experience to be had, an event, possible only because the reading experience is slowed down. This event is personal in the sense that no reader will experience the text exactly as another reader experiences it”.

Adopting Rosenblatt (1978) and Bleich (1978), Fish considers the reader at the centre of the literature reading experience. The reader’s activities are not leading to meaning but are in themselves carrying meaning for “They include the making and revising of assumptions, the rendering and regretting of judgements, the coming to and abandoning of conclusions” (Fish, 1980, pp. 158-159).

Because the reader is at the centre of literary communication, achieving a level in literary competence is equated with achieving “defined capacities of judgement” (Brumfit & Carter, 1986, pp. 16-17). These capacities of judgement are reflected in a “response to literature”. In order to develop such a taste or a response to literature learners go by six levels according to Thomson (1979) : 1) Attending willingly, 2) Elementary perception and comprehension, 3) Empathising, 4) Analogizing and searching for self-identity, 5) Distanced Evaluation of the participants, 6) and reviewing the whole work as the author’s creation.

The LC described so far is intended for native and for ideal users of the literary system for example, expert readers of literature or literary critics, literary competence or LC for second or foreign language readers and in educational settings involves other criteria including the linguistic competence and the cultural criteria. Carter & Long (1990) argue that “literary and language competence cannot be separated” (p. 6). If literary language is language patterned for specific communication purposes, then LC is connected

with reader's ability to perceive how these patterns of language serve the literary message/objective.

Similarly, Zyngier et al (2007) consider that literary awareness (the term that they use for LC) depends on sensitivity to the language or language awareness. They contend: "It is assumed that once students are able to find stylistic patterns in text, describe them accurately with reference to their literary repertoire, they will be able to apply the same strategies to other texts autonomously" (p. 199).

Therefore, part of LC is to develop sensitivity to language and the ability to interpret its creativity and playfulness. Such characteristics are not absent in everyday language, as noticed earlier in this section, but may be culturally grounded or embedded. This suggests that second language readers should be sensitized to these cultural references on which the literary language is embedded. Brumfit & Carter (1986) suggests:

Different cultures will value different things and that for students from other cultures, attention needs to be given to the selection of material which on the one hand is representative of different traditions, discourse-types, writers, etc. in English literature but which on the other is also 'valued' appropriately by the readers to whom it is taught. (p. 17)

In addition, raising a response to literature, which is an integral part of LC, develops within a process; such a response might not be developed if students are exposed to literary texts with which they cannot find elements of identification. Literary competence can only be fostered in students by selecting texts which are accessible at an experiential level. In other words,

Students need to be able to identify and identify with the experiences, thoughts and situations which are depicted in the text. They need to be able to discover the kind of pleasure and enjoyment which comes from making the text their own, and interpreting it in relation to their own knowledge of themselves and of the world they inhabit. (Carter & Long, 1990, pp. 5-6).

Only with such materials can we suppose that sensitivity to language use and to literary values or purpose of communication can evolve and progress in foreign or second language readers.



Though “It is hard to define what is involved in literary competence” (Carter, 1991, p. 6), it is far better for both teachers and learners to be explicit of what skills and sub-skills students need to acquire in order to achieve some degree in LC (Lazar, 1993). Therefore, based on the above definitions, the first-year LMD major of English students should acquire an LC (related to the reading of short stories) that is made up of the following:

#### **A)Basic Level of Understanding**

This component refers to the literary text readability or accessibility to learners. If a literary text is beyond students’ “linguistic threshold” and contains too many cultural references unknown to the EFL students, it is unlikely that these students can comprehend the text, infer its meaning and interact with it. To attain a basic level of understanding, it is better to choose texts which are not too far beyond Learners’ comprehension level. Students’ comprehension of the text is revealed in their ability to summarize the story and answer comprehension questions.

#### **B)Awareness of Language Use**

It involves sensitivity to the literary language and the ability to detect stylistic patterns used for particular literary purpose. For example, the ability to detect the way language is combined to imitate children’s language, or male’s and female’s language use.

#### **B)The Ability to Infer Meaning from Context**

An important component of LC, which Zyngier et al (2007) terms cross-linking consists of making relationship between different parts of the text by reading forward and backward and reading between the lines in order to make inferences.

#### **C )Ability to Identify Elements of Fiction**

This ability is related to Culler’s (1975) definition of LC and the ability of the competent reader of literature to identify the conventions by which fiction is written. This ability comprises: identification of the plot, building character’s profile, distinguishing between the main theme and the sub-themes of the story, and identifying the conflict.

#### **D) Ability to Raise a Literary Response or Elements of Literary Response**

It is related to the aesthetic reading of literature as opposed to efferent reading (Rosenblatt, 1978). It consists of the ability to identify with some events or character of the story, the ability to empathize, and to issue value judgements.

#### **E) Literary Production**

According to Zyngier et al (2007), competent readers of literature by virtue of their sensitivity to both the literary language and the literary meaning and due to their ability to process the text as their own, they can exhibit some literary creativity.

#### **2-4-3 Cognitive and Metacognitive Literary Reading Strategies**

As it was already observed earlier in this section, effective or proficient readers make use of a variety of reading strategies both cognitive and metacognitive. It is claimed that the effective and the successful handling of these strategies is behind successful and skilful reading. The set of cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies discussed earlier are not specific to particular texts or genre of texts which may lead to the conclusion that these strategies are used in all types of texts including “literary texts” or “aesthetic texts”.

In fact, some researchers (e.g. Alderson & Bachman, 2000 and Brumfit, 1986) claim that it is unlikely that competent readers of literature use different types of strategies from the ones they use in informative or academic texts. For example, Alderson and Bachman (2000, p. 60) argue that: “It is unlikely that separate skills for processing literary texts exist”. Nevertheless, given the differences that distinguish literary texts from non-literary texts and notably the distinction made by Rosenblatt (1978) of efferent versus aesthetic reading, some researchers (e.g. Zwaan, 1993; Graves & Frederiksen, 1991; Davis, 1992; Corcorans & Evans, 1987; Vipond & Hunt, 1984; Goh, 1991) have attempted to look at the way literary texts are processed and the strategies used in processing them.

Although little research has been done to date about the nature of reading literature to come up with a final conclusion concerning literary reading strategies (Alderson & Bachman, 2000), the few existing research on literary reading strategies can serve as a background for the purpose of this study.

One of these is Zwaan’s (1993) who designed a subtle experimental study in which he compared the cognitive strategies used by successful or competent readers of literature

and less successful L1 readers of literature. The results of his study summarise the main cognitive strategies used by successful readers of literature as follows.

- 1- They are involved in elaborate inferencing right from the beginning of the processing of the literary text but the inferencing is delayed until necessary
- 2- They pay attention to the surface structure of the text and how meaning is being made but delay judgement of what it means
- 3- They put a lot of demands on their working memory
- 4- They read with “indeterminacy” constantly asking questions such as what it all means? What is going to happen?
- 5- They accept and tolerate ambiguity and uncertainty and view it as part of the process
- 6- They process texts which would seem inconsistent or illogical in order to arrive to a coherent interpretation
- 7- They are slow at reading and process in a more “bottom-up” way
- 8- They view literary reading as a demanding activity but value it.

Less successful readers of literature as well as second language readers of literature were reported to use different strategies. In a study, Graves and Frederiksen (1991 as cited in Hall, 2005, p.103) compare specialist readers of literature (teachers of literature) with less proficient readers (students of literature) and find out the following:

- While specialists engage in an elaborate inferencing, students stayed at the surface linguistic level.
- Specialists seem to welcome and explore difficulties and ambiguities, whereas students tend to interpret instances of ambiguity as signs of their weaknesses as literary readers.
- While expert readers of literature seem to enjoy the experience of reading literature, ordinary readers report bad memories about the experience.

In another study, Vipond and Hunt (1984) explore the strategies used when reading short stories. They distinguish between successful readers of short stories (point-driven readers) and less successful story readers (story driven or information driven

readers). This distinction comes from the sociolinguistic idea that narration is an interactive event between listeners and story tellers. By extension, the reading of a short story is considered as an interactive event between a reader and a story writer. The idea can be summarized in that while the story teller is narrating, the listeners are looking for the point behind all narration details. In an analogy to story listeners, point-driven readers of a short story are looking for the point by adopting typical reading strategies. For Vipond and Hunt (1984), successful story reading involves social pragmatic and psychological cognitive dimensions. The social pragmatic dimension consists of the readers' awareness of the "writers' voice", and his/her attempt to track the writer's purpose of communication while reading. In other words, successful short story readers enter in an interactive process while reading (Rosenblatt, 1978 and Iser, 1978); and hence, they require significant interactive activities. The psychological cognitive dimension, on the other hand, is related to the use of typical cognitive strategies such as search for coherence strategies, looking at the narrative surface, and transactional strategies.

Coherence search strategies correlate with Zwaan's (1993) findings. Like Zwaan, Vipond and Hunt (1984) find that successful or point-driven readers suspend judgment till they get the whole picture. For example, in case the story contains a flashback or a sudden topic, point-driven readers will take it into account when formulating the last picture. Conversely, Story-driven or information driven readers will operate locally and may judge sudden events or flashbacks as incoherence and may discard them. Also, they may suppress contradictory information which may be necessary for point-driven readers.

The second strategy is looking at the narrative surface and its role. Point-driven readers give great importance to surface linguistic features and pay attention to linguistic deviance; they are aware of their underlying communication purpose and attempt to find reasons for this deviance. Information-driven or story-driven readers, on the other hand, pay little attention to these surface linguistic features and consider non-standard speech as having little significance in the story because they are more focused on main events.

Finally, point-driven readers make use of transactional strategies because they are looking for the point behind the story i.e., intentionality (writer's intentions). As a result, they are more accurate and more subtle readers than story-driven readers. For example, Vipond and Hunt (1984) observe that point-driven readers are more likely to detect irony (mismatch between what the reader and characters expect and what actually happen in the

story). They are also able to differentiate between author and narrator whereas information driven readers are mainly interested in events; therefore, they pay little attention to such distinctions. Moreover, because they are looking for intentionality, point-driven readers tend to have more accurate memory for linguistic surface. Vipond and Hunt (1984) contend: “Point-driven readers keep seemingly irrelevant textual elements in working memory longer, and second they make more effort to integrate separate element” (p. 274).

Vipond and Hunt’s (1984) ideas can serve as a database from which wider and even defining characteristics of all literary reading strategies may be identified. These characteristics are particularly important for educators who want their students to attend to linguistic features of literary texts while reading meaningfully.

Hall (2005) summarizes the empirical findings about the characteristics of reading literature as follows:

- Genre makes a difference: what is thought to be ‘literature’ is read differently from non-literature; poems are read differently from stories.
- Readers of literature tend to look carefully at (certain) surface linguistic forms. But they do this in order to help them infer what lies ‘behind’ the obvious literal meanings of the texts.
- Literary texts are expected to be ‘complex’ in themselves, and/or in the demands they will make on readers
- This behaviour and these expectations are learned if not taught. Cognition is important
- So is affect (personal ‘feelings’, ‘response’).

More specifically:

- Readers of literature pay more attention to precise surface linguistic forms, particularly if they are stylistically ‘foregrounded’ (Van Peer, 1986; 1992; Miall & Kuiken, 1994).
- Reading of literature tends to be slower because more careful and more thoughtful reading reported to be pleasurable.
- Successful literary reading often requires more extensive and elaborate inferencing activity. It also requires the deployment of personal experience and background knowledge.

- Literature readers expect a ‘point’, a meaning beyond the obvious story or situation related, and will actively, even imaginatively, try to construct such meaning and cohesion. ‘Significance’ matters more than facts or truth (‘higher’ truths: Is a character good or bad? rather than, Does he have a moustache/ was he wearing a hat?).
- Literary texts often contain surprises- unexpected language/ events/ developments, which require rapid and possibly extended revision of a reader’s ‘situation model’.
- But literary readers are more tolerant of these than readers of more ‘transactional’ (informational) texts would be, and they will try very hard to accommodate them to their developing understanding of the text.
- Literary readers look for personal relevance and interest in texts purporting to be literary.
- Emotions and feelings are more likely to enter into literature reading experiences. (pp . 98-99)

However, the above mentioned studies concern L1 readers of literature and the differences between competent and less-competent L1 readers of literature rather than L2 readers. In fact, “There is very little actual empirical data relating to the reading and comprehension of literature within the language classroom” (Hanauer, 2001, p. 295). Though it is claimed that studies on L1 readers’ problems can be very suggestive for L2 readers (Hall, 2005, p. 172), it is worth presenting some of the studies carried out on L2 or foreign language reading of literature.

One of these studies is Davis’ (1992). This study involved American students of French as a second language who were given a chapter of Voltaire’s *Candid* to read. Davis (1992) shows that because of students’ insufficient knowledge of vocabulary, they were distracted and often short-circuited, i.e. taken out of the text. Students’ attention was focused at the surface of the text; as a result, they missed the literary point of the text. Put in another way, the difficulty experienced in processing the text at the surface level, prevented the reader from proceeding to higher level of thinking and inferencing which is the essence of literary interpretation.

Another study cited by Hall (2005, p. 117) is a Swiss one, Watts (1991). Using canonical English literary texts with a class of advanced Swiss learners of English, Watts reports, after analysing the reading protocols of these students, problems thrown up by

dialect, informal language and non-standard forms. These advanced Swiss students raised another issue relative to their objective as learners and the relevance of studying such canonical texts. They considered that such literary texts being beyond their level of understanding could not serve the communicative purpose for which they were studying the language.

Replicating an L1 study, Goh (1991) investigates the literary reading understanding of secondary school students in Singapore. He made 122 secondary school students read three short stories, one of which by a local writer, and answer two types of questions: basic literal comprehension questions and “high-order” reading comprehension questions. These high-order comprehension questions can be considered as equivalent to Hunt and Vipond’s (1984) point-driven questions according to Hall (2005).

Goh’s (1991) findings suggest that most of the participants failed to answer the ‘high-order literary skills questions’ (point-driven questions) whereas they answered with relative ease basic comprehension question related to the literal meaning of the text. He interprets students’ difficulty in answering ‘high-order literary questions’, which are the very essence of literary reading, as a sign of their limited linguistic ability. The latter could only enable them to lift words from texts to answer text factual questions. Their difficulty in answering high-order literary questions was also attributed to their L2 less automatic processing which makes elaborate inferencing slower and difficult. However, Hall (2005) thinks that students’ difficulty is related to other factors which Goh did not consider. These include students’ relative immaturity (little life experience), culture and cultural awareness, and more importantly, previous experience in reading literature.

Another important aspect of literary reading is the successful readers’ awareness of textual features and their communicative purposes. Goh finds that only 2 students from the express group out of 120 participants could understand and infer the meaning of dialect and idioms.

He also gives several instances in which his readers fail to make inferences from textual signals. One of these examples is when readers could not make textual inference about an invitation. Another example is related to these students’ failure to answer high-order literary reading questions about the *Necklace* of De Maupassant. He reports that his readers failed to understand the resonance and repetition of “still” in the observation of one of the women’s in the story “still young, still beautiful, still charming”. A point-driven

reader would not have missed that these remarks show this woman's regret, resentment, and envy rather than mere description of facts related to her rival.

Commenting this piece of research, Hall (2005) suggests that the reasons behind students' failure in recruiting point-driven reading skill and making the necessary inferencing for literary reading are not only due to their limited linguistic ability and less automatic processing of the language, other obstacles include students' age (limited life experience) and their L1 literary reading skills.

As a matter of fact, Fecteau (1999) concludes the study which she carried out with college students of French as a second language in the U.S that even advanced students do not read literary texts with the same proficiency and accuracy that they read literary texts in their L1. Fecteau (1999) observes that in addition to the text difficulty and students' language proficiency which are key factors, students L1 literary reading skill is a key factor to take into account by instructors when selecting literary texts for their classes.

Fecteau's study also shows that readers of literature may miss the point of a literary text both in their L1 and their L2 due to their failure to activate the schemata necessary for understanding. Because they lack the appropriate background knowledge, students may misunderstand the story though they understand its literal meaning. That is why Fecteau recommends to literature instructors to elucidate background information prior to any reading.

In the Algerian context, Hamdoud (2009) investigates the metacognitive strategies of knowledge and control used by second-year students when reading a short story by Edgar Allan Poe, her findings show that due to insufficient linguistic competence, students make more use of their bottom-up strategies in spite of their awareness that literary texts should be read for analytical interpretation.

From the above mentioned research, it can be suggested that second language reading of literature can be made successful only if factors related to second language students' proficiency, L1 reading literary skills, and L2 students' background knowledge or previous experience are taken into consideration in the selection of the L2 or the FL literature course contents. Moreover, to cater for the observed deficiencies in reading literary texts and to foster in foreign or second language readers of literature suitable strategies for processing, comprehending and appreciating literature, researchers come up



with some suggestions. For example, Davis (1992) advocates a methodology based on Iser's reader-response theory. Hamdoud (2009), on the other hand, suggests raising students' awareness of the metacognitive strategies of purpose and control through tasks. These suggestions are in line with the purpose of this study which is to implement task-based literature materials to develop greater autonomy in reading literary texts.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter presents an overview of the reading skill and what involves. It demonstrates that several factors enter into play when reading particularly in a second or a foreign language. One of these factors is knowledge of metacognitive strategies which is a key for successful reading. Similarly, metacognitive strategies are behind autonomy in reading. The chapter also sheds light on literary reading and the main competencies and skills that are required to be a competent or an autonomous reader of literature.

## **Chapter three**

# **Literature in Second Language Education**

## **Chapter three**

### **Literature in Second Language Education**

#### **Introduction**

A brief history of literature teaching in second language education is presented in this chapter. This includes the assumed advantages of literature for foreign or second language learners and the different approaches of teaching literature in EFL. Particular emphasis is put on literature teaching in the Algerian EFL syllabus.

#### **3-1 Historical Background of Literature in Language Education**

The role and the importance of literature in language teaching have changed following the change of the language teaching method. From the grammar translation method up to nowadays, the post method area, literature has been an integral part of second language curricula, particularly at the tertiary level.

The origin of integrating literature in language teaching can be traced to the 15th century when the ultimate goal of learning a foreign language, mainly Greek and Latin, was the ability to read and translate the literary classics. From this context emerged the grammar translation method of language teaching which was based on the translation of vocabulary and sentences, the memorisation of grammatical rules, and eventually the translation literary texts from the target language to the learner's L1.

With the coming of the audio-lingual method and structural language teaching, the role of literature in language teaching was relegated. Long (1986) observes: "while language teaching was going through a mechanistic phase, reducing itself to formulas, and forgetting its 'purpose as message', there was hardly a place for literature" (p.46). In this method, emphasis was on oral skills through reinforcement and model drills, a purpose which literary texts could not serve. As a result, there was a split between literature and language teaching. The trend was that mastery of the language should precede the academic study of literature. The argument was: "If students' language is inadequate then let them follow an intensive preparatory course of the language study in their first year....Only then, should they face the terror of 'real literature'" Brumfit (1983, p.3).

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) with its focus on “input enrichment” rather than on “model reinforcement” (Tarvin & Al-Arishi, 1990) and on the use of authentic materials to generate students’ interaction and negotiation of meaning opened a wide door for the use of literature in language teaching. As a result, the end of 1970’s and the beginning of 1980’s witnessed the appearance of many publications that argue for the use of literature in the language classroom. Among these are Widdowson (1975), Collie and Slater (1987), Brumfit and Carter (1986), Maley and Duff (1990), Lazar (1993) to cite but a few. Through these publications, a number of arguments were presented to rehabilitate the use of literature in language teaching. The following sub-section will discuss some of these arguments.

### **3-2 Advantages of Literature in Language Education**

Hirvela (1996) points out that advocates of the use of literature in ELT felt the need to present a carefully reasoned case for the use of literature in language teaching. For example, the arguments presented by McKay (1982), Lazar (1993), Collie and Slater (1987) revolve around the following:

- Literature is beneficial in promoting students’ language skills and developing their overall language proficiency
- Literature helps students develop their academic literacy and critical thinking skills
- Literature is authentic and motivating to students.
- Literature encourages cultural understanding.

#### **3-2-1 Literature is Beneficial in Promoting Students’ Language Skills and Developing their Overall Language Proficiency**

According to McKay (1982) when reading literature, ESL students are developing their linguistic competence both at the use level and the usage level. Usage and use are terms introduced by Widdowson (1978). Usage refers to the knowledge of linguistic rules whereas use refers to how to use these rules for effective communication.

As far as the usage level is concerned, Collie and Slater (1987) argue that when reading a substantial and contextualised body of text, students gain familiarity with many features of the written language such as the formation and function of sentences, the variety of possible structures and the different ways of connecting ideas. Similarly, Povey (1972 as cited in McKay 1982, p.187) contends: “literature will increase all language skills

because literature will extend linguistic knowledge by giving evidence of extensive and subtle vocabulary usage and complex and exact syntax”.

At the use level i.e., the ability to use the linguistic rules for effective communication, an exposure to literature is likely to develop an awareness of the language use. This is due to the fact that literature “presents language in discourse” (McKay, 1982, p. 190). In other words, in literature, the use of a particular form, register or dialect is embedded within a social context. This enables the learner to determine which form or register is appropriate to which context.

Furthermore, the literature content cannot be discussed without a consideration of its medium, i.e. the literary language as Brumfit and Carter (1986) point out “what is said is bound up very closely with how it is said” (p.15). Discussion of any literary text, then, requires a close examination of the language of this text. For example, by examining a deviant use of the language in a literary text, students are not only made sensitive about the effect of departing from a language norm to achieve a literary purpose, but they are also made aware of some general uses of the language (Lazar, 1993).

### **3-2-2 Literature Helps Students Develop their Academic Literacy and Critical Thinking Skills**

For one thing, though the meaning in a literary text is self-contained, the reader does not make sense of it by appeal to simple “conventional formulas”. Instead, the reader has to move backward and forward, in and outside the literary text to make sense of it (Brumfit & Carter 1986). Thus, making sense of a literary text involves the reader in constructing, testing and reconstructing hypotheses about the literary text. Such a process is likely to foster in the reader “the capacity of inferring meaning from context and to develop his/her interpretative skills, which can be later transferred to other situations” (Lazar, 1993, p.19)

For another, literature is emotionally and imaginatively involving to the reader who, while reading, will generate emotions and responses to the text, the characters or the plot. Asking students and encouraging them to spell out their emotions, opinions and responses about the literary text will give them more confidence in their thinking skills and their ability to grapple with the language and the text (Lazar, 1993).

Furthermore, McKay (1982) argues that literature can contribute in promoting students' academic and occupational goals in so far as it can "foster an overall increase in reading proficiency". For her, some literary texts may constitute the affective, attitudinal and experiential variables which will motivate students to read and as such help in the development of reading proficiency.

### **3-2-3 Literature is Authentic and Motivating to Students**

According to Lazar (1993) because literature is highly valued in many parts of the world and it is authentic material, i.e. materials intended for native speakers, reading a piece of literary work by EFL students and tackling it in the classroom may make students experience a real sense of achievement, which is likely to raise their motivation.

Moreover, the motivation may increase during the process of reading. Collie and Slater (1987) argue that when a literary work is explored over a period of time, the learner will be inhabited by the text, knowing what happens next as the events unfold becomes more important than knowing the meaning of every individual word. This happens only when the text is appealing to students, and when the experience with literature is motivating and uncontrolled. Such experience allows the reader to feel that he/she is inhabiting a world which was unknown to him or her.

### **3-2-4 Literature Promotes Cultural Understanding**

Literary texts are embedded in their socio-historical and cultural background. This adds an extra challenge to the foreign language reader. Nevertheless, struggling with cultural references can have its advantages for the foreign language learner.

For instance, McKay (1982) argues that the benefit arising from students struggling with cultural problems is the promotion of students' own creativity. In addition, she claims that literature may work to promote greater tolerance for cultural differences for both the students and the teachers. This is because literary texts create a context for how a particular member of a society feel or behave in the situation dramatized in the text (Lazar 1996); as a result, the reader may understand and justifies the motives underlying the behaviour of a character or a group of people. The task of the literature teacher, then, is to highlight the values underlying the behaviour of characters and points of views of the author

However, literary works are not factual representation of their society. Rather, the representation of the reality in literary texts is partial and portrayed from the author' point of view. Therefore, students should be encouraged to treat the cultural and ideological assumptions underlying the literary texts critically (Lazar, 1993).

All of these assumed benefits and advantages of literature in second language teaching may not be deniable, but they need to be validated via empirical evidence. In this line, Edmondson (1997 as cited in Hall, 2005, p.125) posits: "A lot has been written and claimed for and also against the use of literature in second language classrooms. What have been missing are careful studies of literature". Indeed, some investigations have shown the gap between the assumed benefits in theory and the practice of teaching literature. One such investigation was carried out by Akyel and Yalcin (1990) who show through questionnaires the gap between students' expectations and the current practices of the literature classroom in secondary schools in Turkey. Another is Bisong's (1995) who notices that students misunderstand the objective of studying literature and rely heavily on "lectures' "handouts" which are becoming the main instrument for teaching and learning literature in Nigeria. In the Algerian context, in the last two decades, a number of studies have focused on EFL literature at the tertiary level (e.g. Belal, 2012; Benzoukh & Keskes, 2016; Kheladi, 2013; Djafri, 2012, 2013; Fehaima, 2017). The following section will look at the situation of literature teaching in the EFL B.A course and in particular the first-year literature course.

### **3-3 Literature in the Algerian EFL Syllabus at the Tertiary Level**

The benefits of reading literature are uncountable for both natives and EFL. However, in our digital era with the widespread of social networking, few are those who read literature in their native language and they are even fewer to read it in a foreign language. Even much earlier than this social-networking era, Brumfit (1983) observes "...in many parts of the world, students read little in their own language and even less in foreign languages" (p.4).

Unfortunately, instead of reinforcing literature and its use, the educational system in Algeria has only enhanced and maintained students' reluctance to read literature. This state of facts can be noticed at all educational levels. For example, when browsing school textbooks of English from the middle school to the secondary school in Algeria, one can realize that literary texts are very scarce and not compulsory. The main focus of middle

and secondary education is on the acquisition of practical skills following the Competency-Based Approach of teaching. Algerian middle and secondary school pupils are not obliged or even invited to read short stories, novels, or poems unless the teacher makes a recommendation.

At the tertiary level, within the classical four-year EFL Bachelor of Arts (B.A/*licence*) degree, literature used to have the lion's share of the tutorials. In fact, within that four-year B.A. system (the classical system), there used to be three different courses of literature: English, American and African. With the LMD reform which started in 2004, things have dramatically changed for literature. The three courses have been merged into one course and the total teaching hours given to literature have shrunk to half and one hour a week instead of more than four hours in the classical system; Kheladi (2013) observes: "The limited time allocated to the literature module (one hour and half a week) leave the teachers in a dilemma about whether to teach literature with the knowledge, proficiency it entails or simply brew some kind of bird's eye view" (p.56)

In addition to the limited number of literature classes, the literature syllabus with all its components: objectives, content and methodology suffer from a number of deficiencies according to several researchers and teachers. For example, Miliani (2004) observes that the status of literature in the EFL curriculum at the tertiary level is that of "a king n rags". Similarly, Bensemmane (2004) contends that in the Algerian universities, the personal thoughts and suggestions inspired by literary texts, which are the core of literary analysis, are inhibited by certain teaching practices. In other words, the assumed benefits of literature in promoting EFL students' language proficiency, academic and critical thinking skills, their personal development and motivation have not yet been attained by the Algerian EFL literature syllabus.

As far as the literature course objectives are concerned, Belal and Ouahmiche (2021) note that in both the classical second-year literature course and in the present first-year L.M.D. one, the objectives are stated very vaguely. Instead of highlighting the type of skills and the sub-skills that the course is aiming at developing in students, the two courses are simply listing the literary texts to be presented and taught (see appendix A and B). Such vaguely stated objectives may confuse experienced teachers and mislead novice ones.

What is even more confusing and disturbing for both the teachers and the students is the content of the literature syllabuses. As it can be noticed from appendices A and B



“Algerian curriculum designers seem to favour a chronological arrangement which provide an historical satisfaction, thinking that it best suits the students’ way” (Djafri, 2012, p.61). However, both experience and research have shown that this selection has only fostered students’ distancing from literature. In this vein, Miliani (2004) observes that literature has become an unliked subject by the students among other language-based subjects, the thing that is revealed by students’ relative illiteracy in this area. Such observation is confirmed by students’ rate of failure in literature exams; for example, Belal (2012) report that in the academic year 2009/2010 more than 95 per cent failed in their literature exams by obtaining marks less than the average. These low marks are justifiable, for how can students who are still grappling with the target language understand and interact with canonised, old texts whose language may not be understood at all (Djafri, 2013). In an empirical investigation, Djafri (2013) shows that Algerian students could read, understand, and interact with a contemporary story far much better than when reading a canonical one. So why do Algerian syllabus designers insist on the historical, chronological criterion for content selection as in the syllabus proposed by the University of Oran 2 (see appendix B)?

Not only content but also methodology or techniques of teaching seem to impede autonomy in reading literary texts. Both anecdotal observations and research show that the only teaching methodology used in Algerian literature classrooms is the teacher-centred methodology. The investigations carried out by each of Belal (2012), Fehaima (2013), Benzoukh and Keskes (2017) in different universities of Algeria show that teachers of literature in their majority use explaining and lecturing in their classes. For instance, they find that most teachers of literature at the University of Ouargla are not aware of the different approaches of teaching literature and which teaching strategies they are using to analyse literary texts. Similarly, Fehaima (2017) and Belal (2012) find the majority of literature teachers spend most of the class-time talking and explaining “facts” about literature to the students. Thus, in the Algerian literature classroom, it is the teacher who “works through the text”, not the students (Collie & Slater, 1978, p.7). This teacher-centred methodology has contributed to students’ lack of involvement and motivation and has maintained and perpetuated Freire’s dichotomy of ‘teacher’ ‘learner’.

In fact, Freire’s (1972) notion of “bank of education” appears clearly in the assessment mode of literature and in the way students approach their literature examinations. In the classical four-year B.A. system, the unique mode of assessment was the summative one. At the end of each semester, students took one exam, which most of

the time came in the form of essay questions. In the L.M.D. system, continuous assessment was imposed besides summative assessment. However, the practice shows that the continuous assessment mark is just another form of summative assessment. Because of the tight time schedules and large classes, teachers of literature give quizzes and short factual questions for the continuous assessment mark. Therefore, continuous assessment is emptied from its essence, namely measuring or observing students' processes of learning. Facing this type assessment, after following a course full of factual information, critics 'views and summaries of literary texts, students find themselves memorizing all this information for the sake of answering their exam questions. For instance, Belal (2012) finds that more than 50 per cent of the students interviewed in her study say that they rote-learned teachers' lectures to answer their literature exams. Unfortunately, most of these students failed their literature exams; the reason for the teachers is students' overreliance on memory and their limited language ability.

Obviously such a course does not and cannot serve the objectives of literature in developing students' language proficiency, their critical thinking and academic skills, and raise their aesthetic awareness. Therefore, there is an urgent need to reconsider the literature syllabus in all its components in the way that could lead to greater autonomy in reading literary texts.

### **3-4 Approaches to Teaching Literature in Second Language Education**

There are an array of strategies and techniques for teaching literature in the language classroom. They vary according to the literary theory and the teaching method underlying them. Elucidating some of them will help in understanding their theoretical assumptions and therefore, in designing tasks that draw on the most common approaches.

The approaches listed in what follows are adapted from Lazar (1993) who describes: 1) the language-based approach; 2) stylistics; 3) literature as content; 4) literature for personal enrichment. They are also congruent with Long and Carter (1991) who describe three models for teaching literature: 1) the cultural model; 2) the language model 3) the personal growth model.

#### **3-4-1 Literature as Content**

According to Lazar (1993), literature as content is the most traditional approach and the one used in tertiary education. Literature is at the same time the content of the course

and the medium by which students acquire the language. The content of the course focuses on the study of plot, characterisation, themes in addition to the study of the authors and their historical and literary background.

The prevailing teaching procedure within this approach is lecturing with students taking notes and making comments. The reading mode is extensive, i.e. students read whole literary texts on their own, though extracts from the work studied can be analysed in the classroom. Lessons are, therefore, teacher-centred, and the whole process “tend to be transmissive and product-centred in the sense that the final outcome (usually, a logical, sound interpretation of the works handled) is expected.

The main advantage of this approach is to promote students’ understanding and comprehension of the literary text by activating their schema knowledge. It helps them to get acquainted with literary meta-language. In addition, by exploring the social, historical, and cultural context underlying the literary work, this approach is said to promote and encourage learners to understand cultures and ideologies different from their own (Savvidou, 2004).

Despite its wide use especially in tertiary education, this approach has been criticised in the following points:

First, being a teacher-centred approach, it depends too much on the teacher to explain and paraphrase; thus, minimising students’ participation and the benefits from students’ experiential learning. Second, as students are expected to produce interpretations in their examination, they rely on ready-made ones given by the teacher or critics (Bensemmane, 2001). Third, Brumfit (1983) argues that in such an approach the question of enjoyment or the quality of reader-text interaction will not be given any priority since the students while reading the literary text will be looking for relations and patterns to fit to “a pre-existing mental grid laid down by the teacher and critics”(p.3). Finally, this approach reinforces the separation between language and literature and leaves no opportunity for extended language work. For these reasons, Savvidou (2004) argues that this approach has been rejected by those in TEFL in favour of a language-based approach.

### **3-4-2 The Language-Based Approach**

In this approach, literature is not taught for its own sake, but is used as a resource to develop language proficiency. The literary text is viewed as a resource for language

practice and language activities. One reason is that literary texts contain a variety of styles and registers that learners need to be aware of in order to achieve communicative competence. In addition, as literary texts can accept more than one single interpretation, they can generate a lot of classroom discussions. Thus, the main aim of this approach is not to develop literary competence, but to promote language acquisition. Nevertheless, students can develop literary competence as a result of being exposed to literary texts (Lazar 1993).

Carter and Brumfit (1986) argue that literary competence should be the ultimate aim of teaching literature even to non-native students. However, achieving literary competence for non-native students can be difficult unless they go through some preliminary language-based activities. While native speakers can process and respond to a literary text without need to language comprehension, non-native speakers need some language based activities before they can be able to process it and appreciate it.

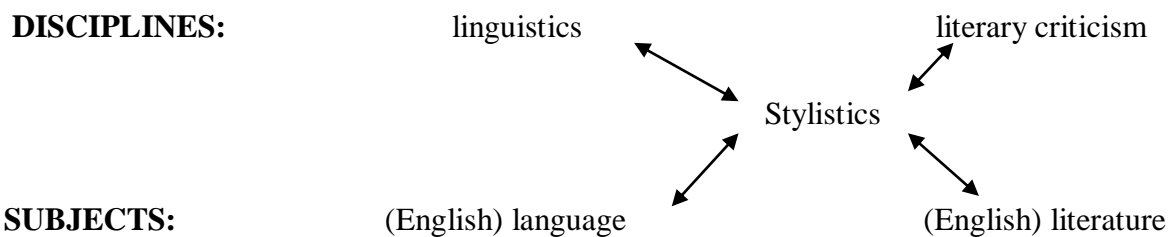
Carter (1986) proposes a number of language-based activities for non-native students of literature. He argues that activities such as cloze procedures, prediction exercises are familiar to students and so “ provide an unthreatening way of bridging the gap between language study and the development of more literary based skills” (p.13).

Others like Collie and Slater (1987) and Maley and Duff (1989) view in literature a resource for designing communicative tasks. The approach is also called the personal-response approach (Hirvela, 1996) since the tasks based on literary texts are designed to make students generate their responses and reactions to the literary text.

### **3-4-3 Stylistics**

In comparison to other approaches of teaching literature, stylistics is relatively new. The book which is referred to as the starting point of the new approach is Widdowson's *Stylistics and the Teaching of literature* (1975).

According to Widdowson (1975) stylistics is an area of mediation between two disciplines: language and literature. As such it involves both literary criticism and linguistics. To illustrate the concept, Widdowson (1975) uses the diagram below:



**Figure 3-2:** The Approach of Stylistics represented by Widdowson

Source Widdowson (1975, p.4)

As shown in the diagram, Widdowson distinguishes between literature as a subject and literary criticism as a discipline. While literature as a discipline aims at training students to become literary critics, literature as a school subject purports to give students a basis for developing their interest and enjoyment for literature. Hence, Widdowson (1975) argues that stylistics is more relevant to literature as a school subject for the reason that stylistics provides some guidelines for literary appreciation rather than ask students to issue literary judgements for which they may not be prepared.

Indeed, the objection made against the approach of teaching literature as content is that students are often asked to issue critical judgements about a literary text without giving them some guidelines to do so; as a result, students recur to ready-made interpretations. Advocates of stylistics argue that stylistics, by combining textual analysis to intuitive interpretations, is ideal in training students in literary appreciation. By using their knowledge of language to analyse a text, students can proceed with some precision to say why the text is liked or disliked (Brumfit & Carter, 1986).

Stylistics, as mediation between linguistics and literary criticism does not involve only linguistic analysis. Rather, linguistic analysis is used to justify or validate intuitive interpretations.

More importantly, stylistics constitutes an approach in which literary study and language learning can be integrated in a harmonious way, and where literary study and language learning are not treated as separate subjects but as complementary. According to Lazar (1993) stylistics for language learners is advantageous in two ways: First, it makes students use their existing knowledge of the language to understand and appreciate literary texts. Second, it consolidates and deepens their knowledge of the language.

Furthermore, although at first sight stylistics may seem too technical and complicated for non-native speakers, the latter have advantages in using the approach over non-native speakers owing to the fact that non-native undergraduate students have learned how to analyse sentences grammatically and have acquired an awareness of the English phonological system (Short & Candlin, 1986)

However, critics of stylistics claim that it has a number of limitations. For example, some teachers consider that the mechanical procedures of language analysis “may be destructive of both responsive enjoyment and imaginative participation in literature” (Brumfit & Carter 1986, p.5). Gower (1986 as cited in McKay, 2001) questions the use of stylistics for EFL learners:

Can we then in any sense say that stylistics helps the EFL learners when its declared aim is to illuminate the mechanism of a text under the microscope? This, as I have said, is a very different thing from reading: the students operate on the text rather than let a poem or a novel speak to them. ( p.129)

For Gower, the textual analysis of the stylistic approach undermines the possibility of reading and enjoying a literary text.

Nevertheless, the value of stylistics as an approach that integrates both language and literature is undeniable particularly in an EFL context. McKay (2001) argues that if stylistics provides learners with a tool to justify their opinions of a text, then the analysis of the text can be related to students’ own aesthetic reading of it.

#### **3-4-4 The Reader Response Approach**

The reader response approach originates from the field of literary criticism. As the name of the theory suggests, the theory shifts the focus away from the text and its author to the text and its reader for literary interpretations. Put in other way, the theory postulates that the reader of a literary text plays as an important role as the text itself in literary interpretations, and that authorial intentions and historical background have little significance in literary interpretation (Hirvela,1996). The theory, thus, emphasises the process oriented approach to reading literature.

There are different models of the reader response theory. The most known are Iser's (1978) Act of Reading and Rosenblatt's (1978) and her transactional theory of literature.

According to Rosenblatt (1966) the reader response involves the reader's active engagement with the text to create meaning. She describes her theory as follows:

No one else can read a literary work for us. The benefits of literature can emerge only from creative activity on the part of the reader himself. He responds to the little black marks on the page [ ] The verbal symbols enable him to draw on his past experiences with what the words point to in life and literature. The text presents these words in a new and unique pattern. Out of these he is enabled actually to mould a new experience, the literary work. (p.30)

For Rosenblatt (1966) students should be encouraged to bring to the text their personal experience, and feeling, their ideas and information as well as their feeling for the language. The successful teaching of literature, then, should make the classroom a place where different responses to a text are shared and debated. A reader may point out to what explains his response and may discover through discussions that a metaphor or a word have triggered a response alien to the text; as a result, he will readjust his response.

Rosenblatt's approach was meant for L1 students of literature; nevertheless, the approach seems quite appropriate for EFL students. Hirvela (1996) notes that the transactional approach developed by Rosenblatt is the reader-response model suitable to the communicative language classroom.

An important premise on which the reader-response approach is based is that there is no one single and correct interpretation of the literary text. As students bring different backgrounds: emotions, personal experiences and beliefs, they will interact with the text in different ways. Individual students will each tell his/her own "story of reading" (Culler 1982 as cited in Hirvela, 1996). In other words, each reader will recreate the text while reading. Thus, each interpretation is actually the idiosyncratic process of reading.

This does not mean that any interpretation is acceptable and there will be an infinite number of responses. Rather, it implies that "there will be more than one interpretation to the text within the range of acceptability (guided by the textual clues)" (Ali, 1994,p.44). Within this scheme of ideas, the role of the literature teacher and the literature classroom is

not to give the correct interpretation, but to guide students to achieve what Ali (1994) calls ‘a mature response’ by going through different stages.

In this sense, the reader-response approach to teaching literature is a student-centred approach in which the teacher acts as a facilitator for students to spell out their responses to the text. It is also a process oriented approach and emphasises the two-way relationship between texts and readers. The approach, then, concurs with the current practices of communicative language teaching in EFL which stress learner-centeredness and experiential learning. More importantly, the approach can be the basis for designing tasks that would elicit students’ own “story of reading”. Ali (1994) suggests that all teaching should be learner-centred in which activities are creative enough to let students explore the meaning of the text.

Although the reader-response approach has not yet made a firm place in EFL as the other approaches, a number of researchers (Davis 1989, Hirvela, 1996; Ali, 1994; Elliott1990) have made a strong case for its integration in literature teaching for foreign language students.

Nevertheless, critics consider that the reader response has limitations for EFL students. One of these limitations is that students interpretation may deviate greatly making it problematic for the teacher to respond and evaluate.

In conclusion, the four approaches to teaching literature listed above, i.e., literature as content; the language-based approach; stylistics and the reader-response are not mutually exclusive. They can be combined to suit students’ needs, abilities and preferences. More importantly, all of the approaches can be the basis for designing relevant communicative literary tasks. Table 3-1 below summarises the different approaches to teaching literature.

**Table 3-1: Approaches to Teaching Literature in the Language Classroom**

Literature as content	The language-based approach	Stylistics	The reader-response
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<b>Aim</b>	literary competence and prepare students in literary criticism	Knowledge and proficiency of the language	Provide a tool for literary interpretation	aesthetic reading, appreciation and enjoyment of literary reading
<b>Teaching techniques</b>	Lectures and class discussions	Language activities and tasks	Textual analysis	Readers' logs, class discussions and debates
<b>View of the literary text</b>	Focus on the socio-cultural background of the text	Resource for language practice	Linguistic artefacts carrying a literary messages	Lazy machineries to be decoded by the reader
<b>Students' participation</b>	Not very important/secondary	Central	Important	Central
<b>Types of task</b>	Project work, essay writing	Cloze procedures, rewriting.	Textual analysis tasks	Readers logs or diaries and readers' journals

## Conclusion

This chapter has presented an overview of the history of literature in language teaching, and it has emphasized the place of literature in the Algerian EFL syllabus at the tertiary level. It is generally argued that in spite of the benefits that literature may have in language learning, the way it is taught does not allow these assumed benefits to be attained. The chapter closes with the different teaching approaches of literature in the language classroom.

## **Chapter four**

# **Task-Based Language Learning and Teaching and Literary Tasks**

## **Chapter four**

### **Task-Based Language Learning and Teaching and Literary Tasks**

#### **Introduction**

This chapter zooms in on a key construct of this study, namely task-based language teaching and learning. It starts by presenting the theoretical framework of the construct, the different definitions of the term task, and the types of literary tasks available in the literature. It ends with a conclusion.

#### **4-1 The Theoretical Framework of Task-Based Language Teaching**

In language teaching, the idea of organising the teaching content into a series of tasks was brought forward by a number of researchers, the pioneers were Prabhu (1987), and Breen and Candlin (1980).

Drawing from research on SLA and cognitive psychology, these researchers argue that the linear process of learning assumed in the structural and functional syllabuses of language teaching were at odd with the actual language learning process which was found to be rather holistic and consisting of transitional sequences. The argument went that if this process was to be catered for, the content of teaching should be specified in terms of holistic units of communication, i.e. tasks. In this way, it would be possible to teach through communication rather than for communication (Prabhu, 1987).

In addition to SLA research, TBLT is premised on the principles of the “progressivist” movement in general education which stresses the importance of the learning conditions over the learning content. It also lays a particular emphasis on experiential learning. According to this view, education should be concerned with providing the optimal environment to facilitate the process of learning. This is done by taking into account, the learners’ needs, abilities and interests. Moreover, students’ active engagement and participation is considered crucial as it is assumed that learners learn by doing rather than by receiving information.

Just like language, literature teaching is best seen as a set of skills and competencies rather than a body of knowledge to be received from the teacher. In this sense, Brumfit and Carter (1986, p. 16) points out: “no teacher teaches directly and

deliberately to students anything worthwhile, teachers simply create conditions for successful learning”. Furthermore, as it was demonstrated by Zwaan (1993) the reading of literature requires the engagement and the active participation of the reader in the reading process. These remarks about the nature of literature teaching and reading call for a learner-centred and a process oriented approach to teaching. One of these teacher-centred approaches is TBLT which is implemented in the present study.

In addition, the argument for the integration of literature teaching goals with language teaching aims concurs with the task-based methodology. As a matter of fact, a number of researchers advocate a task-based approach to using literature in the language classroom, among these: Collie and Slater (1987), Lazar (1993), Maley and Duff (1989), Hirvela (1996) to cite but a few. In his review of books about the teaching of literature, Paran (2000) concludes that the matching of tasks to texts has been pervasive in recent publications. He asserts: “the main problem teachers face when using literature in EFL is not finding suitable texts but rather designing appropriate tasks for them” (p. 134).

#### **4-2 Task Definition and Types of Tasks**

There is no one single definition of the term task. Researchers have given different definitions by emphasizing different aspects.

Prabhu (1987), for example, stresses the cognitive process needed in performing a task. He defines a task as “an activity which requires learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some processes of thought and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that processes” (p. 3). According to this definition, a task should involve students in reasoning, making connections between pieces of information, deducing and evaluating.

Nunan (2004) stresses the linguistic dimension involved in performing a task. He defines a task as:

A piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form. The task should also have a sense of

completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right with a beginning, a middle and an end (p. 4).

Breen (1989 as cited in Ellis, 2000) gives a broad definition of the term task to include language exercises or activities. It is “structured plan for the provision of opportunities for the refinement of knowledge” (p.4).

Although different, these definitions share some criteria for the term task. First and the most important of these criteria is that a task involves the learner in using the language to convey meaning. The primary focus is on meaning rather than on form. Put in another way, a task involves the learner in generating / producing original discourse. This does not mean that there is no attention to form since learners need to pay attention to form to understand the meaning.

Second, a task is characterised by the outcome that students should achieve when successfully performing the task. Other than simply using the language, it is the challenge of arriving at an outcome and the sense of achievement that make the task motivating and involving.

Third, just like in every day communication where the four language skills operate in combination, a task involves an integration of two or more of the language skills. For instance, a task based on a text will involve students in reading and displaying comprehension either in written form or spoken form or both. Similarly, a task that involves listening to the teacher, to peers, or to an audio recording will involve students in responding to the speaker or reacting to him/her in spoken form or written form.

Fourth, tasks involve learners in cognitive processes such as reasoning, selecting, ordering, classifying or evaluating information.

Having identified the most important features of a task, it is clear that not all types of language activities are tasks. However, the list of types of tasks is endless. Almost each TBLT researcher brought forward a typology of tasks. Prabhu (1987), for example, identifies three types of tasks: 1) information gap activity; 2) reasoning gap activity; 3) opinion- gap activity. Not different from Prabhu’s typology, Richard (2001 as cited in Nunan, 2004, p. 162) lists the following tasks: jigsaw tasks, information gap tasks, opinion-gap tasks, decision making tasks and problem solving tasks. Willis (1996) provides a typology of text based tasks; it includes prediction tasks, jumbles, restoration,

jigsaw tasks, comparison tasks and memory challenge tasks. All of these types of tasks can be used in literature classes.

### **4-3 Literary Tasks**

The literature abounds with a variety of types of literary tasks. The teacher can adapt from the existing models to design tasks that take into account the salient features of the literary texts, and the ones that are likely to engage students with the text to come up with an appropriate interpretation.

Among the suggested tasks which the study of a given literary work could begin with is a note taking task in which slides, films, or even lectures about the historical and the cultural background of the work are presented. Students take notes and then compare their notes. Alternatively, the teacher could ask students to compare the socio-historical background in their country with those of the literary work to be studied. The role of such tasks is to invoke or to construct the schema for the students so that the text can be enjoyed by the students.

Lazar (1993) suggests an information exchange task for the exploration of a writer's literary themes and techniques. In a class reading *Eveline* by James Joyce, Lazar suggests that the class can be divided into two groups: A and B. Group A is given a text that discusses the main themes dealt with in Joyce's *Dubliners*; the follow up questions to this text are: what are the main themes in *Dubliners*? How far do you see these reflected in *Eveline*? Group B is assigned a text tackling the 'stream of consciousness' technique and a follow up question that concerns the use of the technique in *Eveline*. After reading and discussing the questions in their respective groups, students, then, come together and exchange the information they learned from their texts. Such information could have been easily transferred in the old fashion way whereby the teacher gives a lecture and students take notes. Instead, the information exchange task put responsibility on the students for the understanding and the transfer of the information and makes the activity a learner-centred.

The study of characterisation, plot, and point of view can all be based on tasks. For example, McKay (2000) suggests for the study of characters the following steps: 1) after reading the story or the novel, students list adjectives that describe the characters; 2) describe each character in a short paragraph; 3) compare the characters or one of the

characters to someone they know; 4) return to the text to justify their answers. Alternatively, the teacher can ask students to complete for each of the characters.

After completing their webs, students can move to a stylistic analysis, by asking them to examine the language of the text to confirm their interpretations since the language used by each character reveals aspects of the personality the writer wants to depict.

The point of view can also be studied through a careful textual analysis of the use of pronouns. A task designed to make inferences about the use of pronouns in a literary text may lead to an understanding of the effect of the writer's choice of a particular point of view on our appreciation and assessment of the characters.

Setting or what Flowers cited in McKay 2000 calls spatio-temporal point of view can be studied through tasks. One such task is to compare the use of tenses (e.g. past and present) at different points of the story. For literary texts where the events unfold in a non-linear manner i.e., where the writer makes use of flashbacks and so the story time and the real time may be confused, McKay (2001) suggests that students could complete a chart with clues from the text.

In support of this view, Sasser (1992) argues that the construction of graphic or advance organisers such as charts, semantic webs, T-graphs, story boards, matrices, Venn diagrams is likely to engage students with meaning. Rather than reading without a purpose, the act of filling in requires critical thinking skills as students sort, categorise, list, analyse and evaluate their reaction and the content of literary texts.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter has presented some theoretical background of the independent variable, namely task-based language teaching and its application in literature teaching. The theoretical framework and the definition of the term task seem to favour the development of students' autonomous learning behaviour in language learning in general due to their emphasis on experiential learning and on learners' full involvement in the performance of tasks. Therefore, some researchers and teachers use the main premises of this theory to design literary tasks for the language classroom.

## **Chapter Five**

### **Research Design and Methodology**



## **Chapter Five**

### **Research Design and Methodology**

#### **Introduction**

After elucidating the key constructs of the study, i.e. autonomy in reading literary texts, the processes involved in reading, characteristics of literary reading, and task-based teachings, this chapter focuses on the methodology adopted and the design of the study. It provides a detailed description of the methodology of this study. This includes the design of the study i.e. the experimental study, the participants, ethical considerations, the research instruments (the qualitative and the quantitative ones), the teaching materials (the task-based materials), procedures of data collection and procedures of data analysis. The chapter ends with a conclusion.

#### **5-1 The Design of the Study**

The present study is a quasi-experimental designed study in which the effect of an independent variable will be studied on a dependent variable. The independent variable in this study is the one manipulated by the researcher which is the task-based designed materials or the task-based literary texts. The dependent variable, on the other hand, is autonomous literary texts reading. The latter is a multifaceted concept which includes literary competence, readiness for autonomy, and awareness and use of metacognitive and cognitive reading literary texts strategies. In other words, the study attempts to find whether or not the independent variable: the task-based designed literary lessons have any positive effect on first- year EFL university students' development of autonomy in reading literary texts. In other words, the study attempts to determine whether the task-based designed materials have any effect on students' literary competence achievement, on their readiness for autonomy to read literary texts, and on their awareness and use of metacognitive and cognitive reading literary texts strategies. However, conducting such an experimental study is not without risk.

It is widely admitted that conducting experimental studies in human sciences has a number of limitations and risks for the simple reason that "it is virtually impossible to control all the factors that should be controlled in order to replicate the laboratory

conditions” (Alwright & Bailey, 1991, p.42). One of these conditions is the RCTs or the “randomised control trials” whereby participants are randomly allocated to a control and a treatment group so as to maximize the causality effect between the intervention and the expected behaviour of the experiment, in fact, the RCTs “have been labelled as the “gold standard”... in evaluating the efficacy of the intervention” (Lee, 2012, p.28). In spite of the efficiency of this technique in enhancing the content validity of experimental studies, it is unlikely to be feasible in educational settings for many practical and ethical reasons. That is why most researchers in ETL turn to quasi-experimental design in which intact groups are drawn on with one group resembling the other to the greatest extent. The thing that was possible in the present study since first-year students majoring in EFL at Mohamed Ben Ahmed university are randomly assigned by the pedagogical administration to groups made of 25 students maximum or 20 students minimum. It is worth noting that the lack of RCTs does not undermine the value of experimental studies in ETL, for as rightly noted by Dörnyei (2007, p. 119) “properly designed and executed quasi-experimental studies yield scientifically credible results”. Dörnyei (2007) pursues that a quasi-experimental study is “the best method.....of establishing cause-effect relationships and evaluating educational innovations.” (p.120)

Following this frame of thought, the present study is designed to determine the causal relationship that may exist between the implementation of an educational tool, i.e. the task-based approach, which is often praised for its virtues in education, and autonomous reading of literary texts. To do so two first-year EFL groups were chosen randomly out of the eight groups enrolled in the first year to be the treatment/ the experimental group and the control group. According to the quasi-experimental design both groups were administered pre-test in order to control any pre-existing difference between the groups which are likely to be related to the outcome (Nunan, 1990). That was in the beginning of the academic year 2019/2020 more precisely in November 2019.

Furthermore, and because statistical data cannot by themselves represent the whole picture of what went on during an empirical investigation or reveal the mental process behind language and literacy learning, we opted for a hybrid quasi- experimental design in which qualitative data was gathered alongside the quantitative ones.

## **5-2 Description of the Task-Based Materials and The Control Group Literature Course Content**

As it was stated, the experiment took place in November 2019, when the 2019/2020 academic year just started with some delay (for some reasons) at the department of English in Mohamed Ben Ahmed university of Oran and lasted 12 weeks. During this period both the experimental group and the control group were pursuing their first academic year in EFL and studying the same subjects with the same contents. The course includes subjects like academic writing, oral expression, research methodology, grammar, civilizations studies and literature. The latter was scheduled once a week for a 90-minute session. As it can be seen in this syllabus (see appendix A), by contrast to the second semester, the first semester does not dictate the type of literary texts to teach through them the elements of fiction and the figures of speech. Therefore, the researcher who was teaching the literature module to both the experimental group and the control group could select literary texts that she considered suitable for the study.

Accordingly, Taking into account students' mixed language proficiency level, variable degree of motivation, and reading abilities, the short story was chosen as the main literary genre to use in this study primarily for its adequate length and relative reading accessibility. However, for the purpose of the experiment, the researcher selected more canonical old short stories than temporary ones for the control group. These short stories were presented to this group following the teacher-centred approach. For the experimental group, on the other hand, the researcher selected relatively accessible and interesting short stories. Three short stories were selected from the panoply of American and English short stories available, and were presented to the experimental group students following the TBL framework (Willis, 1996) which consists of the pre-task, task cycle and language focus. This was altered, for the sake of literary texts reading, into: pre-reading tasks, while reading tasks, and post-reading tasks following the framework suggested by Lazar (1993) and Collie and Slater (1989).

### **5-2-1 The Task-Based Literary Materials**

After the introductory lesson in which the teacher presented a lecture about the literature as a subject, its scope of study, its function in the society, the different literary genres, the definition of the short story, and how to analyze it, the next session started straightaway by introducing and working with the task-based materials. Following these

materials, the study of each story was divided into three phases: the pre-reading tasks phase, the while reading tasks phase, and the post reading tasks phase.

### **5-2-1-1The Pre-Reading Tasks**

For each of the three short stories, a pre-reading task or tasks were designed and presented to the students in the class to perform prior to their first encounter with the literary text itself. The objectives of this pre-reading section are to activate students' schema or background knowledge, to put the text in its social and cultural knowledge so as to limit ambiguities or misunderstanding, and to activate the metacognitive strategy of reading purposefully. The tasks in this phase include information exchange and information gap activities about the writer and his/her historical era, prediction tasks, vocabulary activities (see task types and tasks classification in the previous chapter). The pre-reading phase took half a session, i.e., a 45-minute class session during which the teacher researcher presented the tasks and the tasks instructions and made sure that the students understood the instructions, this usually took 10 minutes maximum. Then, between 15 to 20 minutes, the teacher got the students to perform the tasks in pairs, groups or individually with her supervision. Students then checked their answers in groups or in class. This was followed by a class discussion in which students answers and predictions about the story are invited, it lasted 10 to 15 minutes. During the last 45 minutes of the session, students made their first encounter with the literary text by reading it fully to check their predictions and exchange their first responses or reactions to it. The session ended by presenting the first while reading task which the students had to perform at home, namely, the reading log questions.

### **5-2-1-2The While-Reading Tasks**

The while-reading phase consisted of tasks that students had to perform while reading the short stories. An initial task, which was adapted from Carlisle (2000), required students to outward the mental processes they went by during their reading. On a reading log or a reading journal, students gave answers to questions inherent to what they were doing or thinking while reading the literary text. For example, after reading the first paragraph, what predictions do you make about the story? Which words block your understanding? What images come to your mind? Describing such thoughts might not be an easy task for the students who perhaps had never experienced such a task. That is why

the process is first illustrated by the teacher who initially gave a demonstration of how to perform this first while reading task.

It is worth mentioning here, as it was stated in the introduction, that the tasks in the course combine the different approaches to teaching literature. While the pre-reading tasks treat literature as content or make use of the content-based approach by focusing on the social and cultural context of the text, the first set of the while-reading task uses the reader-response approach which was advocated in literary criticism by Rosenblatt (1978) and Iser (1978) and in TEFL by Ali (1994), Carlisle (2000), and Hirvela (1996).

The main aim of this task was to guide the students in reading literary texts aesthetically by focusing their awareness on what happened during the act of reading (Rosenblatt, 1978). Answering the questions on the reading log would enable the students to outward their experience with the literary text rather than merely reporting facts and information about the literary text. Also, guiding the students to report what went on in their minds while reading is likely to raise their awareness of the metacognitive strategies and consequently improve their autonomy in reading.

The reading log or the reading journal was a task to be performed as homework because it demanded high level of concentration. In the following session, students compare their answers or their readers' stories.

The second set of the while-reading tasks adopt the content-based approach as well as stylistics in dealing with the short story. They aimed at sensitizing students to the LC elements of plot identification, characters' profile, themes identification and point of view. The tasks consisted of graphic organizers which could be classified as information transfer tasks (see type of tasks in the previous chapter). They include T-graphs, matrices, charts, semantic webs, Venn diagrams. Sasser (1992) argues that the construction of graphic organisers is likely to engage students with meaning. Rather than reading without a purpose, the act of filling in required critical thinking skills as students sorted, categorised, listed and analysed the content of a literary text. Furthermore, performing such tasks required the students to focus both on the content and on the form or the language of the literary text. This would likely raise their awareness to the importance of the language or the form in transmitting literary messages. Performing the tasks needed at least one session of 90 minutes in which the students work in pairs or groups with the teacher's supervision. The feedback on their performance took place in the following session.

### 5-2-1-3 The Post Reading Tasks

Finally, the study of a short story ended with the post-reading tasks phase that aimed at raising two important elements of LC. These were namely, issuing a literary response or a literary evaluation (Brumfit and Carter 1986) and second developing literary production ability (Zyngier et al, 2007). The stage was also a synthesis stage which permitted students to see and appreciate the literary text as a whole and so raised in them the metacognitive strategy of self-evaluation or self-assessment with regard to the global meaning or understanding of the text. Since the stage consists of literary evaluation and production, most of the tasks in this stage involve writing. The tasks include genre transfer which consisted of asking students to rewrite the story or events in the story in a different genre, for example in a journalistic genre or to transform part of the story into a poem or a play ...etc. Another task was asking the students to re-write the story or parts of the story from another character point of view (Mckay, 2001). Topic development or essay writing was another task that students could perform in groups then individually by asking them to discuss in groups or in pairs the question of a potential essay exam question (Baurain 2007). The table below presents a summary of the task types and objectives for each stage. The task-based materials used are in appendix F. Table (5-1) below summarizes the different stages and the type of tasks in each phase as well as the teaching objectives of each phase.

**Table 5-1: Types of Task and their Objectives**

Types of Tasks and their Objectives Task cycle	Types of Tasks	Objectives of Tasks
<b>The pre-reading Tasks</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Jigsaw activity</li> <li>- Information exchange game about the writer and his/her social historical context.</li> <li>- Building a glossary of the main words in the story.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- To activate the schema knowledge or the background knowledge.</li> <li>- To trigger the metacognitive reading strategy of reading with a</li> </ul>

		purpose.
<b>the while-reading tasks 1</b>	<b>Reading logs:</b> While reading students complete a reading log by writing down their feelings and thoughts, their comprehension and lack of it.	Raising a response to literature and triggering the metacognitive strategy of task control.
<b>The while reading tasks 2</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Completing charts, tables and grids while reading.</li> <li>- Cloze activities.</li> <li>- Drawing tasks.</li> <li>- Rewriting passages using different pronouns, different tenses.</li> </ul>	Sensitising students to another LC component: the literary conventions (identifying the elements of fiction).
<b>The post-reading tasks</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Continue the story: students imagine and write what happen next in the story.</li> <li>- Rewrite the story in another setting e.g.; Algeria in 2020.</li> <li>- Role plays between students as character.</li> </ul>	Develop in the students another element of LC: literary production, literary judgement, in addition to metacognitive strategy of self-assessment and evaluation.

Table 5-2 represents the timetable of introducing the literary texts and their respective tasks in each week of the study.

**Table 5-2: Timetable of Introducing the Task-Based Materials**

<b>Short Story Title</b> <b>Task Cycle</b>	<b>Eveline</b> <b>by James Joyce</b>	<b>The Happy Prince</b> <b>by Oscar Wilde</b>	<b>The Story of an</b> <b>Hour</b> <b>By Kate Chopin</b>
<b>The pre-reading</b> <b>Tasks</b>	Week 2	Week 5	Week 8
<b>The while reading</b> <b>tasks</b>	Week 3	Week 6	Week 9
<b>The post-reading</b> <b>tasks</b>	Week 4	Week 7	Week 10

On the other hand, the control group study literature following the teacher-centred approach whereby the teacher leads class discussion and dictates the content of the course.

### **5-2-2 The Control Group Literature Teaching Content**

For the purpose of this study the researcher selected canonical short stories. These are: *The Physician's Tale* from *The Canterbury Tales* by Chaucer, *The Fall of the House of Usher* by Edgar Allan Poe, and *Eveline* by James Joyce. The stories were presented following the content-based approach of teaching literature. That is students were invited to read the short stories at home. Whereas the class-time was reserved to teachers' lecture about factual information related to the book. The analysis of elements of fiction of each of the short story was also in class via class discussions which are led by the teaching giving questions and sometimes answering herself.

**Table 5-3: The Timetable of Introducing the Control Group Literature Content**

	<b>Course Content</b>
Week 1	Introduction to Literature (Definition and scope of study)
Week 2	Introduction to Literature continue (Literary genres, introduction to the short story)
Week 3	Chaucer and the Canterbury Tales: historical background of the Middle Ages in England.
Week 4	The Physician's Tale: Study of setting characters, and plot.



Week 5	The Physician's Tale (continue): Themes (morality: Honor and Virginity in the Middle Ages).
Week 6	The Fall of the House of Usher: Poe's biography, the Gothic literature genres.
Week 7	The Fall of the House of Usher analysis: Setting, characters, the gothic style.
Week 8	The Fall of the House of Usher analysis (continue): Plot, themes, and literary devices.
Week 9	Eveline: James Joyce's biography and historical background of Dublin in the end of the 19 <sup>th</sup> century.
Week 10	Eveline Analysis: setting, characters, plot, conflict and themes.

### 5-3 Participants and Sampling

43 freshman students starting their 3-year B.A. course in EFL at Mohamed Ben Ahmed University in 2019/2020 participated in this study. All of them were Algerian students who had just passed the national Secondary exam (the Baccalaureate) with success. Random sampling was not feasible since it was the central administration which assigned students into different groups following certain criteria, that is why the control and the experimental groups were chosen in accordance with convenience sampling. The researcher, as a teacher in the department was assigned to teach literature to two sections; each one was made up of two groups. 22 students in the first section and 21 students from the second group accepted to participate in the study. The first group of students was chosen to be the experimental group whereas the second group was the control group.

Three of the participants dropped out in the middle of the study (Two students from the experimental group and one from the control group); thus, the study ended up with 20 participants in each group. The personal information section in each of the research tools administered show that these students were all of Algerian origin and nationality. Their language proficiency level varied between elementary and upper-intermediate. But overall, they had an intermediate language proficiency level, which was evidenced in their English Baccalaureate exams' scores, which were over 11 out of 20; otherwise, they would not have been admitted in the English department. Their age was between 18 and 24, except 4 students who were over 30. The majority, however, were 18. There were more female

students than male students. In the control group there were 16 female students and four male students whereas the experimental group students counted 9 male students and 11 female students. On the whole, the participants in both the treatment and the control groups belonged to the same socio-cultural background, had approximately the same language proficiency level, and their first language was Arabic, their second language was French whereas English was the target foreign language.

#### **5-4 Ethical Considerations**

According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) researchers must make sure that their actions can in no way jeopardize subjects' rights and values. Based on this principle, the researcher made it clear for the participants that their participation in the study would be mainly and solely for the sake of research and that their acceptance or refusal to participate would have no influence or impact whatsoever on their two mid-terms examinations. That is to say both the participants and non-participants would be treated fairly and impartially and that their identity would be kept confidential.

The researcher also made sure that research activities such as data collection process would not hinder the general learning and teaching process of first-year lectures. As for the treatment or the experiment, it was made sure that the content taught is in harmony with the prescribed official first year literature syllabus.

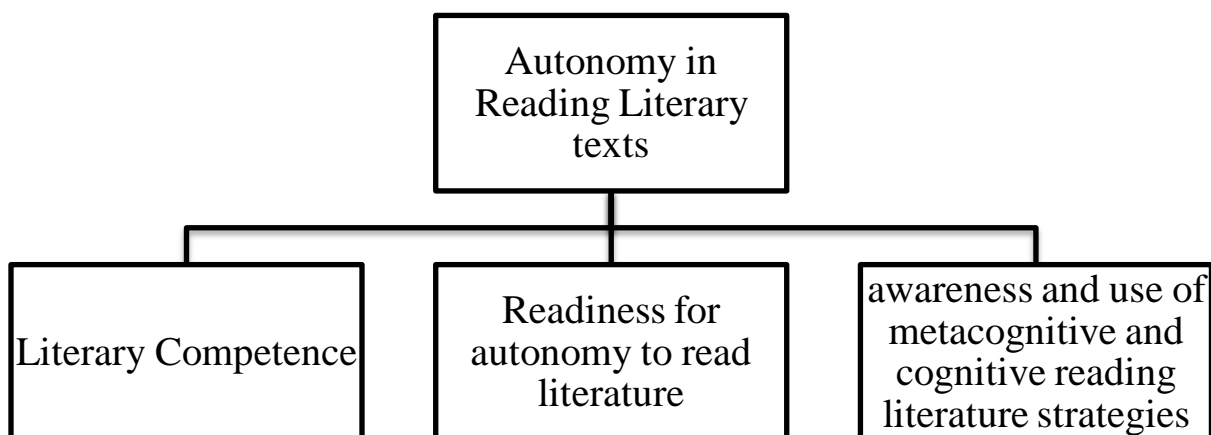
#### **5-5 Data Collection Instruments**

As mentioned earlier, the present study is a hybrid study in which the quantitative tools of measurement were combined to qualitative tools of measurement. Though there was a time when some scholars opposed the harnessing of qualitative instruments with experimental methods, it is now generally accepted that experimental studies can be enhanced in terms of their ability to account for causal connections by integrating qualitative elements. (Goldstein & Blatchford, 1998; Howe, 2004; Rawdenbush, 2005)

Furthermore, the dependent variable namely, autonomy in reading literary texts is such complex and multifaceted that it is unlikely to be tested or measured relying on one single type of measurement. Since autonomy in reading literary texts is not only revealed in the degree to which students attain LC but also in their readiness to read literature autonomously and in their awareness and use of cognitive and metacognitive literary reading strategies, a research tool was designed or adapted to measure each of these

elements of autonomy. Figure 5-1 below demonstrates the multifaceted aspect of autonomy in reading literary texts while Table (5-3) below summarises the research questions and the data collecting instruments used to find them.

**Figure 5-1: Autonomy in Reading Literary Text as a Multifaceted Concept**



**Table 5-4: Research Questions and Instruments**

<b>Research questions</b>	<b>Research tool</b>	<b>The group</b>	<b>Time of administering the tool</b>
Is there a significant relationship between the use of task-based designed materials and first-year students' development of literary competence?	LC pre-test	Experimental group Control group	Before the treatment
	LC post-test	Experimental group Control group	After the treatment
Is there a significant relationship between the use of task-based designed materials and their readiness for autonomy to read literary texts?	RFARLT	Experimental group control group	Before and after the treatment
	Interviews	Experimental group Control group	After the treatment
Is there a significant relationship	SORS	Experimental group	Before and after the

between the use of task-based materials and first-year students' awareness and use of metacognitive and cognitive strategies of reading literary texts?	adapted to literary texts	Control group	treatment
	Think aloud protocols	Experimental group Control group	After the treatment

In the following sub-sections a detailed description of each of these tools.

**5-5-1 The Literary Competence Pre and Post-Test**

An important element in autonomy in reading literary texts is the degree to which students show literary competence which itself contains a number of elements.

In order to gauge students' level of LC before and after the treatment so as to determine the effect of the treatment on this component of autonomy, an LC test was designed by the researcher in a tailor-made style. This is due to the fact that the literature is scarce of such means of measurement. In fact, there is no one acknowledged and approved way to measure LC like the ones in language proficiency. Hanauer (1996, p.143) asserts: "from historical point of view, the field of literature does not have a tradition of systematic test construction". Several researchers have used different ways for measuring LC. For example, Hanauer (1996) develops rating scales to analyze the literary interpretation of students' essays, Shalan (2017) uses an LC questionnaire, Neranjani (2011) designs an LC test for her study and Mozafari and Barjesteh (2016) use an LC questionnaire which they adapt from Neranjani (2011). Each of these means of measurement share in common two main criteria which are: first, they are "generated by a theory of LC" and second, "they are based upon the required tasks or task of literary studies" Hanauer (1996, p.144)

To ensure validity, the two criteria were taken into consideration in the design of the LC test used in the present study. First, the researcher based the design of the test on the definitions of LC provided by Culler (1975), Lazar (1993), Brumfit and Carter (1986) and Zyneiger et al. (2007). Second, the questions in the test were based on the required

tasks or objectives of the first year literature syllabus, i.e., on the required literary competence that first year students had to achieve.

#### **5-5-1-1 Format and Rating Scales of the LC Test**

Thus, the LC pre and post-test used in this study as it can be seen in appendix D and E attempts to activate the definition of LC provided by each of Culler (1975), Lazar (1993), Brumfit and Carter (1986), Rosenblatt (1978), and Zyngier et al (2007). The test consists of asking the students to read a two-page short story and to answer 12 questions. These questions are grouped into six sections each one of them represents a particular aspect of LC. Section one contains questions related to basic level of understanding which is a major requirement of LC according to Brumfit and Carter (1986) and Long and Carter (1990). After reading the short story *Charles* by Sherily Jackson, the students are asked about their global understanding of the short story in four questions. The second section contains three questions related to awareness of language use. Section three contains one major question related to the ability to infer meaning or a message by reading between the lines. The fourth section deals with the elements of fiction, and it includes four questions related to plot identification, characters' profile, point of view and themes. Section five is related to a major and often neglected aspect of literary competence, namely raising a personal response to literature (Rosenblatt, 1978, Brumfit & Carter, 1986). The last section that is section six has only one question related to literary production (Zyngier et al, 2007). The only difference between the LC pre-test and post-test is the literary text or the short story read and analysed. In the pre-test it was *Charles* by Sherley Jackson whereas in the post-test it was *Eleven* by Sandra Cisneros the format and the questions remained the same.

Following the usage in the Algerian university, the test was scored out of twenty. Each correct answer was worth one point except for the questions that needed reflection and analysis, they were worth 3 points, see the rating scales with the LC pre-test and post-test in appendix D and appendix E.

#### **5-5-1-2 Validity and Reliability of the LC Test**

Although the theoretical principles prescribing the elements of LC provide the LC achievement test with construct validity, they were not sufficient to ensure the content validity of the test. Therefore, we turned to teachers of literature, who had been practising

in the domain. Given their experience and understanding of literature teaching objectives, and first-year students' needs and abilities in terms of literary skills, the teachers were in good position to determine whether the LC test had content validity to measure first-year students' LC achievement. Accordingly, the LC test with some follow-up questions were sent to five teachers of literature, two teaching in the department of English at Oran 2 University and three others teach literature in other universities.

All of the teachers approved of the designed LC test and considered it appropriate for measuring first-year students LC. However, most of them found it too long and time consuming, which may affect its reliability due to students' fatigue. To overcome this situation and to secure the reliability of the LC test, it was agreed with the teachers to make the students sit for the test in two times. In other words, the test was divided into two parts. The first one consisted of reading the story and answering the first twelve questions and was set for 60 minutes. The second part contains the last four questions and was scheduled on another day in the week for thirty to forty minutes under the researcher and the teacher invigilation.

The reliability of the LC test was also attempted to be secured by measuring interrater reliability. Both the pre and post LC tests were scored by two ratters, the researcher and another teacher of literature who was given the rating scales of the test. Comparing the scores given by the researcher and those given by the other rater, there was only 1.5 point interval difference between the two raters which made the LC pre and post-test a reliable test.

### **5-5-2 The Readiness for Autonomy in Reading Literary Texts Questionnaire**

According to Littlewood (1996) autonomy consists in the "willingness" and the "capacity" to take control of one's learning. Indeed, the driving force of learners' autonomy is this "willingness" which stems from the attitude that one has about learning and his/ her self-confidence as a learner

Following this line of thought, the readiness for autonomy in reading literary texts questionnaire( RFARLT) aimed to gather information related to students' attitude to literature, their willingness and desire to take responsibility for reading literature, and their metacognitive knowledge about themselves as readers of literature and about the task of reading literary texts. Indeed, part of knowing whether students' autonomy in reading

literary texts had improved or not was knowing whether their attitude to reading literature, their conception of themselves as readers of literary texts and perception and knowledge of the process or the task of reading had improved or not.

To gather such information, the readiness for autonomy in reading literary texts was designed by adapting from questionnaires used in studies related to learners' autonomy in language learning like the ones by Cotterall (1995, 1999), Broady (1996), and Le (2013).

The readiness for autonomy in reading literary texts questionnaire (RFARLT) is divided into four parts. Part one concerns attitude to literature; it starts from item 1 to item 7: attitude about literature and its importance in developing language ability, cultural understanding and personality. Part two starts from item 8 to item 14 and deals with desire and acceptance of responsibility in literature classes. Since the act of reading literature is individual and no one can read literature for someone else, this set of questions aims to determine the extent to which students accept to take responsibility for reading literature. As for the last part, i.e., from item 15 to item 28, it aims at determining the kind of metacognitive knowledge students have of themselves as readers of literature and of the task of reading literature.

#### **5-5-2-1 Validity and Reliability of the RFARLT Questionnaire**

The RFALT can be said to have both content and construct validity. Construct validity refers to the extent to which a research tool measures effectively and efficiently the domain that it purports to measure (Nunan, 1990). The RFARLT questionnaire was designed to capture the Key aspects of learners' readiness for autonomy to read literature which is made up of the set of attitudes and beliefs about literature reading. The items in the questionnaire were carefully selected and adapted to the context of this study (literary reading) while maintaining the number of items in the questionnaire relatively limited to avoid students' fatigue.

Construct validity, on the other hand, deals with the extent to which the tool of measurement activates or articulates the construct as defined in the literature. The main construct that the RFARLTQ attempts to articulate is the affective component of autonomy manifested in 'willingness for autonomy' or 'readiness for autonomy'. To do so the questionnaire includes items that tap into the nature of 'willingness' as described by

Littlewood (1996) and ‘potential ability’ as described by Sinclair (1999). Put in another way, the RFARLT questionnaire activates Dam (1995) and Littlewood’s (1996) definitions of ‘willingness’ for autonomy by including items related to students’ motivation to read literature (attitudes to literature and desire to take responsibility); it also tries to articulate Sinclair’s (1999) conceptualization of ‘potential capacity’ by containing items related to students’ metacognitive knowledge of themselves as readers and of the task of reading literary texts. In addition, as the questionnaire is adapted from previous studies (Cotterall, 1995; Broady, 1996; Le, 2013) the theoretical foundations of these studies provide the bases upon which this questionnaire is founded. In sum, it can be argued that the RFARLT basic constructs are accepted and deeply rooted in the literature.

As far as the reliability of this questionnaire is concerned, during the piloting stage, the internal consistency reliability was calculated using the Cronbach’s  $\alpha$  coefficient of reliability. The reliability of this questionnaire was found to be 0.8272. It is suggested that the value of 0.7 is usually an acceptable coefficient, which, in turn, implies that the reliability of the RFARLT questionnaire is acceptable.

Additional factors that count for the reliability of a research tool are fidelity to real life, context- and situation-specificity, comprehensiveness and meaningfulness to the respondents (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). These factors were taken into account during the process of questionnaire design and piloting.

### **5-5-3 Survey of Reading Strategies Adapted to Literary Texts**

In addition to ‘willingness’ to take control which is measured by the RFALT questionnaire, autonomy is also manifested in awareness and use of metacognitive and cognitive reading literature strategies. To gauge this important element of learners’ autonomy, the “Survey of Reading Strategies” known as SORS was adapted to literary texts. SORS was designed by Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) “to measure ESL students’ metacognitive awareness and perceived use of reading strategies while reading academic materials” (p.2)

Drawing from the literature of the main characteristics of strategic literature reading (Zwaan, 1993; Graves & Frederiksen, 1991; Corcorans & Evans, 1987; Vipond & Hunt, 1984) which are detailed in chapter 3, section 2-4-3 above, SORS were adapted to



the reading of literary texts by changing statements to be relevant to the reading of literary texts, the format was kept as it was designed by Mokhtari and Sheory (2002).

The latter is quite simple; it contains 30 items each of which uses a 5-point likert scale ranging from 1(I never or almost never do things) to 5(I always or almost always). These 30 items are categorized into three types: Global strategies (GLOB), Problem solving strategies (PROB) and support strategies (SUP).

The global reading strategies count 13 items and are those techniques related to planning and directing reading, i.e. the metacognitive strategies. An example of a global reading strategy in SORS for academic texts is: "I read with a purpose in my mind". This was converted to "I read to find the writer's purpose or point in the story" to suit literary texts reading. This is because unlike reading academic texts or textbooks, reading a literary text does not involve finding information, but it involves reading for pleasure by finding the point. Vipond and Hunt (1984) demonstrate that competent readers of short stories are "point driven", i.e. their global aim is to find the point behind the story. Similarly, item No.3 "I think about what I know to help me understand what I read" in the initial SORS for academic texts was altered to "I think about what I know about the writer and his background to help me understand the story" to fit the context of reading literary texts. In the same way, item No.6, 8, 21, and 24 were adapted to fit the reading of a short story rather than academic texts by applying findings of studies about competent readers of literature.

The problem solving strategies (PROB) count 8 items and are the techniques used while working on the text. "They are localized, focused techniques used when problems develop in understanding textual information" (Mokhtari & Sheory, 2002, p.4). Since second/ foreign language readers of literature are also involved in problem solving like when reading non-literary texts, items like guessing the meaning of unknown words and re-reading the text to improve comprehension were left unchanged. However, item No. 19 was adapted from " I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read" to "I picture and visualize characters and events to understand and remember".

The last 9 items concern the support reading strategies. They are the "basic support mechanisms intended to aid the reader comprehending the text" (Mokhtari & Sheory, 2002, p.5). They include techniques like using a dictionary or a glossary, taking notes, underlining or highlighting which second language readers need to use for both literary and

non literary texts. Therefore, they were kept unchanged in the adapted version to literary texts. At the exception of items No. 2, 10, 22, 26, and 30 which were adapted to the reading of a short story. For example item No. 22: “I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in the text” was converted to “I go back and forth in the text to find motivation, feelings, and relationships between characters”. Such strategy is adapted from Vipond and Hunt’s (1984) findings about competent readers of literature who were found to possess “coherence search strategies”. Another example of item change is item No. 30: “when reading, I think about information in both English and my mother tongue”. This was adapted to “I refer to my literary Knowledge both in English and my mother tongue”.

#### **5-5-3-1 Validity and Reliability of SORSAL**

On the whole SORS adapted to literature is based on an already tested and approved research tool which is the Survey of Reading Strategies by Mokhtari & Sheorey (2001). However, the items adapted to literary texts need also evidence of their validity and reliability.

For one thing, these adapted items draw from studies about cognitive literary reading strategies (e.g., Zwaan, 1993; Vipond & Hunt, 1984) as already explained in this chapter. For another SORS adapted to literary texts intends to measure students’ awareness and use of literary reading strategies. This objective is respected since this tool does not go away from its defined objective. As such it can be argued that SORS adapted to literary texts has both content and construct validity.

The reliability of Mokhtari & Sheorey’s (2001) SORS was tested and found consistent results relative to the instruments’ reliability (internal reliability equals to 0.89 or better). For further ensuring the reliability of SORS adapted to literature, internal consistency was calculated during the piloting stage. The Cornbach’s  $\alpha$  coefficient was found to be equal to 0.8812. This suggests that SORS adapted to literature is a reliable research tool.

#### **5-5-4 Semi-Structured Interviews**

To cross-check the data obtained from the quantitative tool (the RFARLTQ) concerning students’ readiness to read literature autonomously, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 5 participants from each group at the end of the experiment.

As the name suggests, semi-structured interviews predefined the set of topics that the researcher (the interviewer) is going to investigate with the respondents. Bell (1999, p. 139) suggests: “Where specific information is required, it is generally wise to establish some sort of structure”. Such predefined structure allows not only the comparison between one interview and another, but also between the interviews and other data collection instruments.

In this vein, MacKey and Gass (2005) define semi-structured interviews as surveys whereby the researcher prepares at the outset a number of questions which will be directed to all the participants and gather various responses that can be compared.

For the aim of this study, the researcher designed, protocol F (see appendix F) and include basic questions that were asked during the interviews. Most of these questions were derived from the RFARLT questionnaire.

Each interview was arranged with the participant in an isolated classroom; with the students’ agreement, each interview was audio-taped. It took approximately between 15 and 20 minutes for each one. The participants were given the choice to answer in any language they wish (French, Arabic, or English). As for the questions, they were asked in English and Arabic to relief the participants and take them out of the context of teacher-students interrogatory. The audio-taped interviews were then, transcribed, and analysed to find recurring themes valuable for the study.

#### **5-5-5 The Read- Aloud Protocols**

To obtain further information about cognitive and metacognitive awareness of strategy use in reading a literary text, the think aloud protocols (TAPs) were used with three participants from of the experimental and the group. Given the fact that literature reading involves higher order of cognition, the read-aloud protocols seemed the best way to reveal such cognition. This is due to the very nature of the RAPs which are defined by Oster (2001) as “a technique in which students verbalize their thoughts as they read and thus bring into the open the strategies they are using to understand a text”.

Practically, the techniques have not only been used as a research tool to disclose or unveil metacognitive and cognitive strategies used while reading but also as a means through which such strategies can be developed and enhanced. In this study, the reading

journals or the diaries can be considered as a way in which the Read Aloud protocols was used for training and enhancing metacognitive strategies of literary texts reading.

As a research tool, the RAPs were used to determine the extent to which students' awareness and use of metacognitive and cognitive literary reading strategies have changed after the intervention. To this end, the six students who accepted to volunteer to do the RAP exercise (three students from the experimental group and three from the control group) were given a short training session during which they were briefed on what was expected of them. The training session started by an explanation of what was meant by RAPs. Then, following the recommendations of Ericson and Simon (1984), the training started by a warm-up activity, which served as a demonstration activity. This warm up activity consisted of asking the students to solve an anagram while talking aloud. Students were given a set of scrambled letters for example: "SEROTRUS" and were asked to find the word that is formed by these scrambled letters while talking aloud. While students were doing the demonstration session and talking aloud, the researcher took notes of all that went wrong during the modelling session and drew students' attention to them. After that the students were given a short text and were asked to sit in pairs and to take it in turn to be the researcher and the subject talking aloud while the researcher was observing and taking notes. Once the researcher judged that the students were ready for the RAPs, the training session ended.

Each of the volunteered students met the researcher when was the student and the teacher free of their classes. The student is again briefed of what he had to do and then is given the short story to read with the instructions on it. The story is the fable *The Unicorn in the Garden* by James Thurber. After each three lines, the text contains a box which signals where the student should pause and start speaking. To ensure that the task is within the cognitive and linguistic capabilities of the students, it was left free to the participants to verbalize in Arabic, French or English. Sitting next to the student, the researcher started the recording as soon as the subject participant started talking; the only instruction given to the participant was to go on talking. During the exercise, the researcher was taking note of the different pauses and hesitations made by the student. Once the participant finished the reading of the story and finished his verbalization, a brief interview took place with this participant about the different pauses and hesitations made during the exercise.

To analyse the qualitative data obtained from think-aloud protocols, first of all, the tape-recorded think-aloud protocols were transcribed by the researcher. The transcriptions were translated into English. The English transcriptions were then coded in relation to the strategy framework derived from the literature review. Any strategies that were mentioned by students, but not included in the strategy framework, were also reported.

## **5-6 Instruments Piloting**

Although the instrument and the teaching materials were based on sound theoretical foundation, their reflection and design reflect the individual perception of the researcher. As such, they could be subject to misinterpretation or misunderstanding. The piloting stage could identify instances of misunderstanding and misinterpretation. The piloting stage of the research tools used in the present study took place in the academic year 2018/2019. The aim of this phase was mainly to refine the research tools and the teaching materials before the actual experiment is implemented. Therefore, before administering the last version of the instrument, several steps were taken to ensure the appropriateness and the efficiency of these tools.

### **5-6-1 Piloting the LC Test**

Several first-year teachers of literature were given the LC test to give their opinions and to comment on its relevance for testing the first-year student LC achievement. Most of them agree that the LC achievement test was valid and relevant for first-year students, but they were worried about its length. Therefore, they suggest cancelling some of the questions for time constraints.

Likewise, after administering the LC pre-test to 10 students who were following their first-year literature course with the researchers, their feedbacks on the test clarity was positive but they were uncomfortable with the time it took.

Accordingly, it was decided to split the test into two parts and administer it in two different classes instead of cancelling some of the questions. This arrangement was feasible since the researcher was teaching both the experimental and the control group in the following academic year (when the main study took place).

## 5-6-2 Piloting the RFARLT Questionnaire

colleagues at the University of Oran 2 accepted to review the first draft of the RFARLT questionnaire. The first draft was also administered to 15 fifteen of the researcher's first-year students. Based on the colleagues' comments and the students' feedbacks, some of the initial items in the first draft were altered as table 3-4 indicates.

**Table 5-5: The Altered Items of the RFARLT**

No. of Item	First Draft Version	New Version	Reason for Alteration
6)	Students who read a lots of literature are very good writers.	Students who read lots of literature in English can write well in English.	For more accuracy about the kind of writing.
15)	I am a competent reader of literature.	I am a confident reader of literature.	The word confident is more appropriate than competent that can be misleading
16)	With some difficulties, I can manage to read and understand literary texts.	I manage to read and understand literary texts.	The focus is on the ability to read rather than on the difficulty.
17)	I can just guess the general meaning from context.	I can guess the general meaning of the texts from context.	The adverb just is misleading.
29)	I should have some knowledge about the historical background of the literary text I am reading.	To understand a literary text, its historical background should be known	The focus of this part of the questionnaire is on literary reading and understanding, which is why the statement starts with it

### 5-6-3 Piloting of SORSAL

The first draft of SORS adapted to literature was submitted to two literature teachers and two teacher researchers in EFL reading to review the instrument. The first draft was equally administered to 20 twenty first-year students in the academic year 2018/2019; these students were immediately asked about their opinions and feedbacks concerning the clarity and readability of the items in the questionnaire.

Following the teachers' and the students' opinions, some of the items in the first draft were altered as follows.

**Table 5-6: The Altered Items of SORSAL**

<b>No. Items</b>	<b>First Draft Version</b>	<b>New Version</b>	<b>Reason for Alteration</b>
1)	I read with the writer's point in my mind.	I read with the writer's purpose in my mind.	
3)	I think about what I know about the writer and his society to help me understand the story.	I think about the writer's life and his country to help me understand.	
15)	I use pictures to guess and increase my understanding.	I use pictures if there are any to increase my understanding.	
30)	When reading, I refer to literary knowledge both in English and in my mother tongue.	When reading, I refer to my knowledge about literature both in English and my mother tongue.	

### 5-6-4 Piloting of the Task-Based Teaching Materials

During the academic year 2018/2019 the task-based materials were piloted with a group of students. The teacher noted down for each lesson. The main observation that the teacher and the students came up with was that some tasks were time-consuming. Therefore, for the main study, some of the tasks particularly the while reading and the post

reading ones were arranged to do at home. All the debates and the discussions were decided to be in the classroom.

Initially, four short stories were planned to be presented following the task-based approach, the piloting study demonstrated that it was impossible to programme four short stories in one semester of study (taking into account the public days off and other inconveniences). Thus, the main study was limited to present three short stories instead of four.

### **5-7 Data Collection Procedures**

In the beginning of the study, that is the first week of November 2019, the LC pre-test was administered to both the experimental group. That was on an arranged day-off of both the students and the teachers, in one of the amphy-theatres of the universities. Few days later, during the introductory lecture, the RFARLT and SORS adapted to literature were administered to both groups.

After ten weeks, during which the task-based materials were implemented and the control group lectures were delivered, the post-experiment data collection took place. It consisted of two phases: The first phase took place before the end of the experiment, i.e., in the course of the classes and was concerned with the collection of the qualitative data via TAPs and the semi-structured interviews. As each student was interviewed individually, it was relatively easy for the researcher and each of the participants to find a free hour and a venue for the interview and the read aloud protocols.

The second phase concerned the administering of the post experiment quantitative data, i.e., the LC post-test, the RFALTQ and SORS adapted to literary texts to both the experimental group and the control group. This was at the end of the first semester classes on an arranged day between the researcher and the participants.

### **5-8 Data Analysis Procedures**

The quantitative data obtained from the LC pre and post-test, the RFARLTQ and SORS adapted to literary texts, were processed on the statistical package for the social sciences software (SPSS version 25), then a paired sample t-tests and independent sample t tests were conducted on this numerical data to test hypothesis 1, hypothesis 2, and hypothesis 3 (mentioned in the introduction).



First to test hypothesis 1, the experimental group scores on the LC pre and post-test were processed on SPSS in order to carry out a paired sample t-test. The latter would determine if there is any significant difference between the LC pre-test scores and the LC post-test scores. The same was done with the control group scores on the LC pre and post-test. Afterwards, the gained scores in the LC test of each group were compared by conducting an independent sample t test in order to see whether the difference between the two groups is statically significant or not and, therefore accept or refuse hypothesis 1.

Second, to test hypothesis 2, i.e., the effect of task-based designed materials on students' readiness for autonomy, for each part of the questionnaire a paired sample t test was conducted to determine whether the difference between the pre and post-tests was statistically significant. Then, the gained means for each group were compared using an independent sample t test to accept or reject hypothesis 2.

The same procedures were carried out with the data obtained from SORS adapted to literary texts. The experimental group awareness and use of metacognitive and cognitive reading strategies were assessed pre and post-experiment. Afterwards, a paired sample t test was directed to determine the significance of the difference between the pre and post-experiment results. The control group means on SORS were also compared pre and post tests. The gained means of each group for each set of strategies, i.e., global, support, problem solving were compared by applying an independent sample t test. This was done for the purpose of accepting or rejecting hypothesis 3.

As far as the qualitative data was concerned, the interviews typescripts as well as the RAPs scripts yielded good amount of data which was analysed to find recurring themes relevant to research hypotheses 2 and 3. These qualitative data was then compared with the quantitative obtained from RFARLT and SORS adapted to literary texts.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter presented the methodology adapted in this study, it started by describing the quasi-experimental design of the study and then moved to providing a description of the teaching materials used with both the experimental and the control group. In addition, a detailed description of the participants and the ethical consideration was provided. In spite of the quasi-experimental design, the research made use of qualitative research tools besides the quantitative ones, which made the study a hybrid one.

The quantitative research tools were given full description; these are the LC pre and post-test, the RFARLT, and SORS adapted to literary texts. The quantitative tools consist of the semi-structured interviews and the read aloud protocols. The chapter ended by describing the procedures adopted in the analysis of the data.

## **Chapter Six**

### **Presentation of the Results**

## **Chapter Six**

### **Presentation of the Results**

#### **Introduction**

In this chapter, the results obtained from the instruments described above are presented. These results are organized into two sections. The first section presents the quantitative data which were collected from the LC pre and post-tests, the RFARLT questionnaire, and SORS adapted to literary texts reading. The second section, on the other hand, deals with the qualitative data obtained from the semi-structured interviews and the read aloud protocols.

#### **6-1 Quantitative Data**

The quantitative data were obtained from the LC pre and post-tests, the readiness for autonomy in reading literary texts (RFARLT) questionnaire, and from SORS adapted to literature. Therefore, they are presented in this order

##### **6-1-1 The LC Pre and Post-Test Results**

To answer the first research question which is whether there is a relationship between the use of task-based materials and students' improvement in LC, an LC pre-test and post-test were administered to both the experimental and the control group.

The scores obtained by both the experimental and the control group in each of the LC pre-test and post-test ( see appendices F and G) are compared using statistical indicators to see whether there is any significant difference across the groups.

##### **6-1-1-1 The Experimental Group LC Pre and Post-Test Scores Comparison**

To test the first directional hypothesis, which states that the use of task-based designed materials in the literature course will result in a higher achievement of literary competence for first-year students as compared to those who were not introduced to the task-based materials, a paired sample t-test was conducted by introducing the experimental group pre and post LC test scores on SPSS. The results indicated in table6-1 below show

an increase in the marks of the experimental group students. In the LC pre-test before the experiment (M=9.35, SD=2.70). These figures increased to (M=12.95, SD= 2.05) after the experiment in the LC post-test with  $t(19) = -13.55$  and a p value  $p = .000$ . In other words, with a level of significance smaller than the critical value  $\alpha$  set at 0.05, it can be argued that the pre-test mean score and the post-test one were statistically different. In fact, the mean increase in the test scores was 3.600 with 95% confidence interval ranging from -4.155 to -3.044. These statistic indicators lead to conclude that there was a significant improvement in the experimental group LC achievement test after the experiment.

**Table 6-1:** *The Experimental Group Paired Samples T-Test Analysis of the LC Achievement Test*

		Paired Differences								
		Mean	SD	Std Error Mean	95 % Confidence interval of the Difference		(t)	DF	Sig (2) tailed	
		Mean	Std. Dev		Lower	Upper				
<b>Pre-test</b>		9.35	2.7							
<b>Post-test</b>		12.95	2.5	3.60	0.265	-4.14	-3.04	-13.5	19	0.000

However, these findings do not necessarily imply the acceptance of hypothesis 1. To confirm or reject this hypothesis, the control group students' scores pre and post-tests' results need to be compared with the positive achievement of the experimental group.

#### **6-1-1-2 The Control Group LC Pre and Post-Test Scores Comparison**

A paired sample t-test was conducted also to check whether or not the control group students' LC achievement scores improved. The results of the t-test which appear in table 4-2 below show that there was an increase in the marks of the control group students. The mean score and the standard deviation moved from (M= 9.71, SD=2.19) in the LC pre-test to (M= 11.77, SD= 2.11) in the LC post-test. The  $t(19) = 16.79$  and the  $p= 0.000$  which is smaller than the critical value  $\alpha$  set at 0.05 indicate that the difference between the pre and

the post-test scores are statistically significant. This suggests that the control group students improved their LC achievement scores after the experiment.

**Table 6-2:** *The Control Group Paired Samples t-Test Analysis of the LC Achievement Test*

		Paired Differences								
		Mean	Std	95 % Confidence		(t)	DF	Sig (2)		
			Error	interval of the				tailed		
			Mean	Difference						
		Mean	Std. Dev	Lower	Upper					
<b>Pre-</b>		9.71	2.19							
<b>test</b>										
<b>Post-</b>		11.77	2.11	2.06	0.12	-2.31	-1.80	-16.7	19	0.000
<b>test</b>										

Put in another way, despite the fact that they were not exposed to task-based materials, the control group students improved their total LC score by a mean of 2.06. This improved difference needs to be compared with the experimental group difference to reject or accept the first research hypothesis concerning the relationship between the use of task-based materials and students' improvement in LC.

### **6-1-1-3 LC Gain Mean Scores Comparison between the Experimental and the Control Group**

The gained scores of the experimental group and the control group were processed on SPSS and an independent sample t-test was conducted to compare the means of the gains of the two groups. Table 6-3 below presents the results.

The table shows that the experimental group had an average gain of 3.60 with a standard deviation of 1.56 while the control group shows a gain mean of 2.037 with a standard deviation of 0.48. The mean difference between the two groups gain was 1.56

**Table 6-3: LC Gain Means Comparison between the Experimental and the Control Group**

	Mean	SD	t- test	DF	Sig(2-tailed)
<b>Experimental group</b>	3.60	1.18			
<b>Control group</b>	2.037	0.48	1.56	0.28	5.44 38 0.000

The independent samples t-test showed that this difference was statistically significant  $t(38) = 5.44$  with  $p=0.000$ , that is smaller than the critical value  $\alpha= 0.05$ .

Accordingly, it can be concluded that the first hypothesis of this study is supported and that the experimental group LC achievement test scores are significantly higher than those of the control group after the treatment.

### **6-1-2 The Results of the Readiness for Autonomy in Reading Literary Texts Questionnaire (RARLTQ)**

As it was already mentioned, the RFARLT questionnaire was administered to both the experimental group and the control group to check the second directional hypothesis. In other words, the aim of this questionnaire was to determine whether the use of task-based materials would result in higher level of readiness for autonomy for first year students introduced to task-based materials as opposed to those who were not introduced to the tasks. In what follows, the results of the questionnaire administered to both the experimental and the control group pre and post experiment are reported and compared. The presentation of these results follows the four parts of the questionnaire (see section 5-5-2 above), that is students' attitude to literature, their acceptance and desire for responsibility to read literature, their metacognitive awareness of themselves as readers of literature, and their metacognitive awareness of the task of reading literature.

### 6-1-2-1 Students' Attitude to Literature

According to Cotterall (1996), the beliefs that one holds about the usefulness and the importance of a subject are likely to determine his/her willingness in taking responsibility for his/her learning , i.e., to be autonomous. Therefore, the first seven items (from item No.1 to item No. 7) in the RFARLT questionnaire were intended to collect first year students' attitude to literature and literature reading.

First, the experimental group results obtained before and after the treatment are presented in order to determine whether their attitude to literature have been affected after the treatment. Second, the same will be done with the control group. Then, the pre and post test mean differences of both groups will be compared.

#### 6-1-2-1-1 The Experimental Group Students' Attitude to Literature Scales Pre-Experiment Vs Post-Experiment

The table below displays students' responses to the first seven items in the questionnaire concerning their attitude to literature and literature reading. For each item, a mean score was computed from students responses measured by a five likert scale (i.e., 1: Strongly agree, 2: Disagree, 3: Neutral, 4: Agree, 5: Strongly disagree). To account for the decimals in the computed means, the following scale was set: from 1 to 1.8 strongly disagree, from 1.81 to 2.60 disagree, from 2.61 to 3.40 neutral, from 3.41 to 4.20 agree, and from 4.20 to 5 strongly agree.

**Table 6-4:** *The Experimental Group Students' Attitude to Literature Pre and Post-Test*

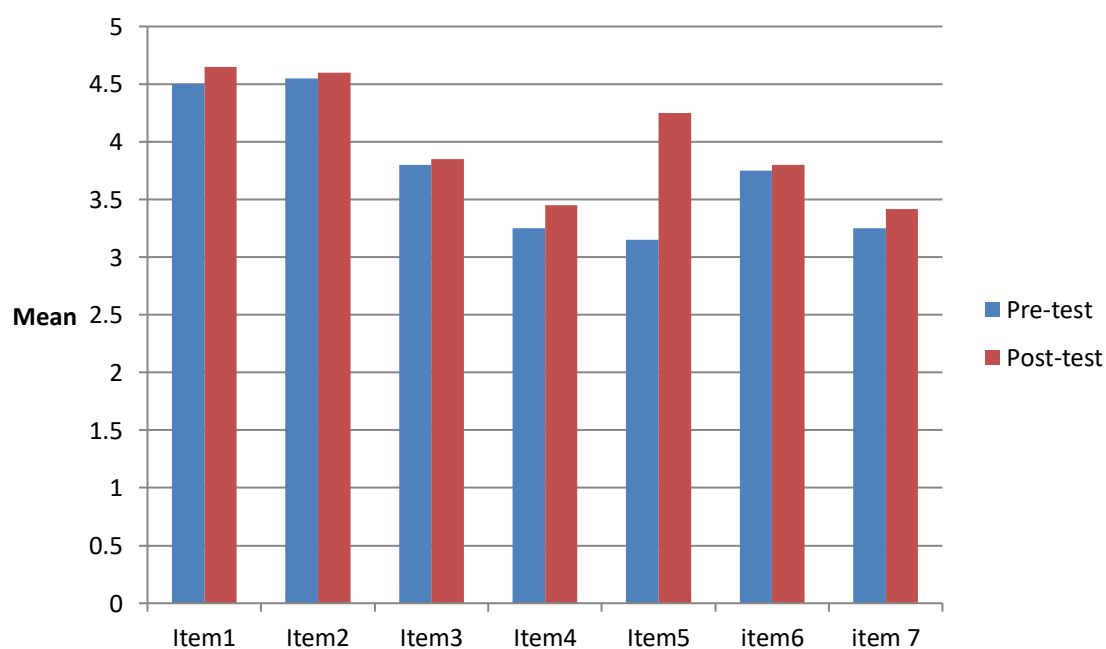
Item number	Pre-experiment		Post-experiment		T (19)	P Value
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
1) Literature is an important subject to study at university	4.50	0.25	4.65	0.23	1.016	0.32
2) Literature written in English can help me improve my language proficiency	4.55	0.17	4.60	0.25	1.11	0.27



3) Reading literature in English is pleasant and entertaining	3.80	1.02	3.85	0.95	0.22	0.82
4) Literature in English can help me improve my cultural knowledge	3.25	0.87	3.45	0.65	1.25	0.22
5) Literature can help me develop my personality	3.15	0.95	4.25	0.87	5.59	0.000
6) Students who read a lot of literature in English can write well in English.	3.75	0.65	3.80	0.55	0.32	0.74
7) Students who read a lot of literature in English have a wide vocabulary and can speak well.	3.25	0.25	3.42	0.55	2.37	0.02

The pre and post-test mean scores of each statement concerning attitude are presented in the bar chart below.

**Figure 6-1:** *The Experimental Group Attitude to Literature Pre and Post-Test*



From table 6.4, it seems that the experimental group students started their literature course with very positive attitude to literature and its important role in developing language proficiency including vocabulary and writing. They rated the seven statements from 3.75 to 4.55 which correspond to agree. The two statements which were rated on average 3.25 corresponding to neutral were statements seven and five. Most of the students seemed neutral about the fact that literature could develop their personality or their speaking. This is perhaps due to the fact that these students have never experienced class discussions generated by different opinions over literary texts. Nor have they exploited the effect of literature reading for personal development.

It must be noted that the standard deviations of each mean item do not exceed 0.95 except for item No. 3 “literature is pleasant and entertaining”. This shows that the level of dispersion from the mean is low and that students issued similar opinions except for item 3 where the level of dispersion is high, which reveals students’ different opinions.

The post experiment results were slightly similar to the results of the pre-experiment. Positive attitude to literature in developing language proficiency, personality, and cultural understanding improved; each of these items got slightly higher means in the post-experiment than the pre-experiment one.

Figure 6.1 shows clearly the difference in means for each item before and after the experiment. The main observation is that except for items No. 5 and No. 7 where there is an apparent difference between the pre and post bars, the difference in items No. 1, 2, 3, 4, and 6 is rather unperceivable.

This observation is further confirmed by the paired sample t test results. As it can be noted from the last column, the p value calculated for almost all the items (No.1, 2, 3, 4, and 6) is greater than  $\alpha=0.05$ . This implies that the pre and post-test results are statistically insignificant. For Item No.5 and Item No.7, however, the p values are respectively 0.000 and 0.02, that is smaller than  $\alpha$ . Therefore, the pre and post-tests results for these items are statistically significant.

In brief, the experimental group attitude towards literature and reading literature was positive at the outset of the experiment that is before they got exposed to the task-

based materials. At the end of the experiment students improved their positive attitudes towards literature, but this improvement was not significant. Nevertheless, students significantly change their opinions towards the role of literature in improving their personality and in improving their speaking. It can be argued that this change came as a result of their exposure to the reading log tasks and the post-reading tasks which generated class discussions and debates. Yet, this claim needs to be contested with the control group results.

#### **6-1-2-1-2 The Control Group Students' Attitude to Literature Pre and Post-Experiment.**

The results obtained from the control group students before and after the experiment in what concerns their attitude to literature are presented in the table 6-5 below.

**Table 6-5:** *Control Group Students' Attitude to Literature Pre and Post-Test Results*

Item	Pre-experiment		Post-experiment		T (19)	P value
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
1) Literature is an important subject to study at university.	4.55	0.35	4.60	0.257	0.79	0.43
2) Literature written in English can help me improve my language proficiency.	4.50	0.45	4.12	0.35	- 4.35	0.000
3) Reading literature in English is pleasant and entertaining.	3.72	1.05	3.76	1.02	0.17	0.86
4) Literature written in English can help me improve my cultural knowledge.	3.45	0.65	3.48	0.73	0.0019	0.99
5) Literature can help me develop my personality.	3.27	0.55	3.26	0.32	0.11	0.91
6) Students who read a lot of literature in	3.65	0.63	3.71	0.45	0.51	0.61

English can write well in English						
7) Students who read a lot of literature in English have a wide vocabulary and can speak well.	3.36	0.95	3.38	0.88	0.1	0.92

The change in trend pre and post experiment for the control group is represented in figure 6-2 below.

**Figure 6-2:** *The Control Group Students' Attitude to literature Pre and Post-Test Results*



Just like the experimental group, table 6.2 shows that the control group had a positive attitude towards literature and in general agreed with most of the statements that concerned the benefits of literature in improving language proficiency. Not unlike the experimental group, the control group was neutral in what concerned literature influence on personality and speaking. Item No.5: “literature can help me develop my personality” (M=3.38, S.D= 0.65), and (M= 3.36, S.D= 0.95) for statement No. 7: “students who read a lot of literature have a wide vocabulary and can speak well”

The post-experiment means did not change a great deal from the pre-experiment ones. The control group students remained positive after the experiment with slight improvement in item No. 1 by 0.05. By contrast, item No.2 which relates to language improvement decreased from 4.50 (strongly agree) to 4.12 (agree). Although the rate of

decrease is not that significant, this decrease may be due to the content of the literature course. The latter, as described in the previous chapter, included some old canonical literary texts that could not help students with their language development.

Contrary to the experimental group, who performed some personal response tasks such as the post reading tasks and the reading logs, the control group students remained neutral in what concerned the effect of literature in developing personality, i.e. item No. 7 (M=3.26, S.D=0.32). Also, they remained neutral in what concerned the potential of literature in developing students' speaking ability. This attitude can be accounted for by the teacher-centred mode that dominated the control group literature classroom.

All in all, the control group students' attitude to literature was in general positive before and after the treatment and was in many ways similar to that of the experimental group except in what concerned the potential of literature in developing personality and speaking skills. This trend is supported by figure 6.2 where the pre and post-test means differences are almost similar; it is also confirmed by the t test column which shows the insignificant statistical difference between the pre-test and the post-test results. In the following section, the gained means of both the control and the experiment group are compared.

### **6-1-3 Attitude to Literature Gain in Means Comparison between the Experimental Group and the Control Group.**

Table 6.6 below displays the experimental and the control groups pre and post-test gains in means or means differences for each statement, the last two columns represent the t test and the p values for each pair of gained means.

**Table 6-6:** *Attitude to Literature Gained Means Comparison between the Experimental Group the Control Group*

Item	Experimental Group		Control Group		T (29)	P
	Mean Difference	S.D	Mean Difference	S.D		
1) Literature is an important subject to study at university.	0.15	0.19	0.05	0.47	0.88	0.75
2) Literature written in English can help me improve my language proficiency.	0.05	0.4	-0.38	0.4	10.12	0.025
3) Reading literature in English is pleasant and entertaining.	0.05	0.21	0.04	1.02	0.079	0.93
4) Literature written in English can help me improve my cultural knowledge.	0.2	0.76	0.03	0.69	0.74	0.91
5) Literature can help me develop my personality.	1.10	0.91	- 0.01	0.43	4.93	0.000
6) Students who read a lot of literature in English can write well in English.	0.05	0.6	0.06	0.45	0.059	0.95
7) Students who read a lot of literature in English have a wide vocabulary and can speak well.	0.23	0.2	0.02	0.91	1.008	0.62

The t test conducted on each pair of gain in means suggests that the gains in means are statistically insignificant for all the items except item No. 2 and item No. 5 where the p values for both of them are higher than the critical value  $\alpha= 0.05$ . Such statistical data imply that there is no significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in what concerns their attitudes towards literature. Therefore, the task-based materials did not much affect students' attitude to literature except in their opinion of the potential of literature in developing students' language proficiency and personality (item No.2 and item No.6). Put in another way, hypothesis 2 can be rejected concerning the part of attitudes in readiness for autonomy in reading literary texts.

#### **6-1-4 Acceptance and Desire for Responsibility in Literature Classes**

An important aspect of learner autonomy is the degree to which students or learners accept and express the desire to take responsibility for their learning. This can also be demonstrated in the way they perceive the role of the teacher as well as their roles in the classroom or in the learning process. Item No. 8 to item No. 14 in the RFARLT deal with this aspect of readiness for autonomy. This section first presents and compares the experimental group acceptance and desire for responsibility pre and post-test. Second, the control group acceptance and desire for responsibility pre and post-test are presented and compared. Then, the two groups gain in means or mean differences for each of the seven items are compared to check the directional hypothesis 2 concerning acceptance and desire for responsibility in literature.

##### **6-1-4-1 The Experimental Group Acceptance and Desire for Responsibility Pre and Post-Experiment**

This section looks at the results obtained from the experimental group before and after the experiment in relation to their acceptance and desire to take responsibility in literature classes (ADRL). Table 6.4 below presents the mean score for each statement before and after the experiment

**Table 6-7:** *The Experimental Group ADRL Scale Comparison of Pre-Experiment and Post-Experiment*

Item	Pre-experiment		Post-experiment		T test	P value
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
8) Literature involves a lot of self study.	4.76	0.42	4.78	0.75	0.16	0.87
9) Reading and understanding a literary text in English can be done without a teacher.	3.21	0.68	3.48	0.42	2.41	0.02
10) I think the teacher should give us an opportunity to select texts to study for the literature classes.	3.35	1.002	3.45	0.86	0.49	0.62
11) I think the teacher should explain everything about the literary texts.	4.50	1.06	3.52	0.61	- 5.23	0.000
12) I think the teacher should give us an opportunity to decide when and where to read a literary text.	3.81	0.65	3.36	1.06	-2.09	0.04
13) I think the teacher should give us time to read in class and understand on our own.	3.15	0.26	3.96	0.99	5.48	0.000
14) I like it when the teacher gives us opportunities to express our thoughts about the literary text.	4.20	0.25	4.32	0.28	2.064	0.06

The table shows that the top four items with the highest mean scores in pre-intervention are:

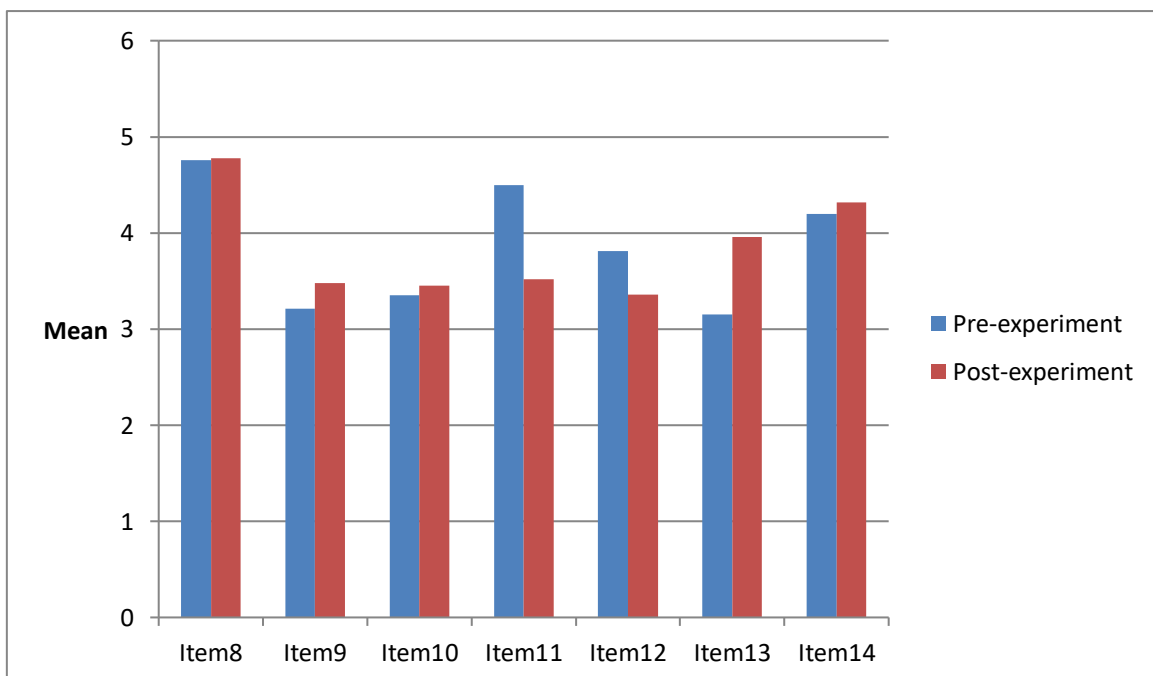


- Literature involves a lot of self study.
- I think the teacher should explain everything about the literary text.
- I think the teacher should give us an opportunity to decide when and where to read a literary text.
- I like it when the teacher gives us opportunities to express our thoughts about the literary texts.

While the mean score of each of item No. 8: “Literature involves a lot of self study” and item No. 14: “I like it when the teacher gives us opportunities to express our thoughts about the literary texts” increase, the mean scores of item No. 11: “I think the teacher should explain everything about the literary text” and item No. 12: “I think the teacher should give us time to read in class and understand on our own” decrease in the post-intervention compared to the pre-intervention.

Figure 6-3 below shows clearly the difference in the mean scores for each item pre and post-experiment.

**Figure 6-3:** *The Experimental Group Acceptance and Desire for Responsibility Scale (Pre-Experiment Vs Post-Experiment)*



Indeed, item No. 11 has a mean score of 4.50 (S.D= 1.06) in the pre-experiment which moves down to 3.50 (SD=0.61) in the post-experiment. While the high mean score in the pre-intervention shows that the students have a general tendency towards strongly agreeing with this statement, the high standard deviation (i.e., 1.06) indicates that there is no firm conclusion about the statement and that there is an important dispersion between opinions. However, it might be argued that such positive tendency toward the role of the teacher in explaining everything stems from the students' teacher-centred background. The decrease of the mean score to 3.52 (SD: 0.61) with lower standard deviation shows that most of the students have changed their mind a lot concerning that point since the pre-experiment questionnaire and that the task-based material might have influenced their opinion concerning the role of the teacher in explaining everything.

The other item whose mean score decreases is item No. 12: "I think the teacher should give us an opportunity to decide when and where to read". The mean score of this item is 3.81 (SD=0.65) in pre-experiment and 3.36 (SD= 1.06) in post-experiment. The low standard deviation reveals that students tend in general to agree with this statement before the experiment. This tendency changes toward neutral with a mean score of 3.36 and higher standard deviation SD=1.06. This decrease in the mean score accompanied with high standard deviation may be a sign that the task-based materials have influenced some students negatively and others positively concerning making decisions about their learning (when and where to read).

On the other hand, the items which have the lower mean scores compared to the previous ones are:

- I think the teacher should give us time in the classroom to read and understand on our own.
- Reading and understanding a literary text can be done without a teacher.
- Teachers should give us an opportunity to select literary texts to study.

As it can be noticed from the table and the bar chart, figure (6.3), students on average are neutral about these statements in the pre-experimental phase. The mean scores in the post-experiment improve slightly for each statement except for item No. 13: "I think the teacher should give us time to read in the classroom and understand on our own" which shows a remarkable increase in mean score by 0.81.

The t test and the P value columns indicate that the pre and post treatment mean differences are statistically insignificant for all items except items No.9, 11, and 13. The p values in each of these items are respectively 0.02, 0.000, and 0.000, which suggests that the pre and post-experiment means are statistically significant. In other words, the experimental group students significantly change their opinion concerning their responsibility in reading and understanding a literary text. Consequently, their perception of the teacher’s responsibility in explaining everything also regresses significantly from strongly agree to neutral, and so does their perception of the class-time division between their own reading and understanding and the teachers’ explanations.

In brief, the results suggest that the experimental group students become more acceptable to responsibility for their own literary reading, and they desire more responsibility in the literature classroom. This might have come as a result of their exposure to the task-based materials. But again this claim needs to be checked with the control group acceptance and desire for responsibility pre and post-treatment.

#### **6-1-4-2 The Control Group Acceptance and Desire for Responsibility Pre and Post Experiment**

The control group acceptance and desire to take responsibility in literature and for reading a literary text before and after the experiment are presented in table 6.8 below.

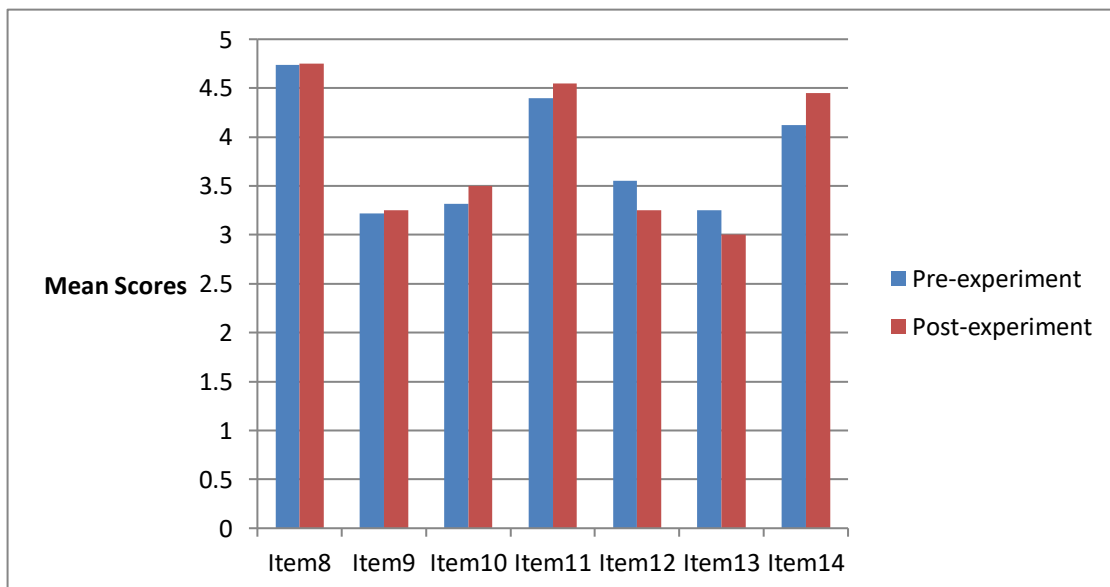
**Table 6.8:** *The Control Group ADRL Scale Comparison Pre-Experiment and Post-Experiment*

Item/Question	Pre-experiment		Post-experiment		T (19)	P value
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
8) Literature involves a lot of self study.	4.74	0.23	4.75	0.33	0.15	0.87
9) Reading and understanding a literary text in English can be done without a teacher.	3.22	0.55	3.24	1.02	- 0.09	0.9

10) I think the teacher should give us an opportunity to select texts to study for the literature classes.	3.32	1.033	3.50	0.92	-0.09	0.9
11) I think the teacher should explain everything about the literary texts.	4.40	0.98	4.55	0.25	1.09	0.2
12) I think the teacher should give us an opportunity to decide when and where to read a literary text.	3.55	0.55	3.25	0.44	-2.73	0.01
13) I think the teacher should give us time to read in class and understand on our own.	3.25	0.13	3	0.22	-7.45	0.000
14) I like it when the teacher gives us opportunities to express our thoughts about the literary text	4.12	0.55	4.45	0.35	1.38	0.18

The change in means for each statement pre and post-experiment is represented in the bar chart below.

**Figure 6-4:** *The Control Group ADRL Pre and Post- Experiment Mean Scores Comparison*



What can be noted from table 6.8 as well as from figure 6.4 above is that in general, the control group students' acceptance and desire for responsibility in reading literature is above neutral. In many ways like the experimental group, the items with the highest mean scores are:

- Literature involves a lot of self study.
- I think the teacher should explain everything about the literary texts.
- I like it when the teacher gives us opportunities to express our thoughts about the literary text.

The increase in the mean score of item No.8: "literature involves a lot of self study" by 0.02 and item No.14: "I like when the teacher gives us opportunity to express our thoughts and feelings" by 0.43 suggests that students agree strongly with the fact that literature involves a commitment on their part for self study as well as participation by exchanging and sharing opinions .By contrast, the increase in the mean score of item No.11: "the teacher should explain everything" suggests that these students are still reluctant to take all the responsibility for reading literature and remain dependant on the teacher. In fact the mean score in this statement is one of the differences between the experimental group and the control group.

Similarly, these students seem less confident when it comes to making decisions about when and where to read a literary text (item No. 12) and about reading and understanding on their own. Notice the decrease in the mean score of item No. 13 "I think the teacher should give us time in class to read and understand on own" from 3.25 (SD=0.13) to 3 (SD=0.22).In fact, their neutral opinion about their role in the classroom correlates with their expectations from the teacher in item No. 12. The t test column indicates that the pre and post-treatment mean scores are statistically insignificant except for item No. 12 and item No.13 where the mean scores decrease rather than increase.

In sum, although the control group students seem to assume that literature and literature reading call for a lot of responsibility from their part, they are still dependent on the teacher for explaining and making decisions about when and where to read. Their acceptance and desire for responsibility does not know much change after the treatment. Their attitudes remain within the same line of neutral for some items and agree or strongly agree for other items. Whether there is any difference between the control group and

experimental group in their trend of accepting and desiring responsibility is a point that is discussed in the following section.

### 6-1-4-3 ADRL Gain in Means Comparison between the Experimental Group and the Control Group

Table 6-9 below presents the gains in the mean scores pre-experiment and post-experiment for each of the experimental group and the control group. The last column is for the results of the independent t (test) conducted on each pair of gained means.

**Table 6-9:** *ADRL Gained Means Comparison between the Experimental Group the Control Group*

Item/Question	Experimental group		Control group		T (38)	P value
	Mean Differences	S.D	Mean Differences	S.D		
8) Literature involves a lot of self study.	0.02	0.5	0.01	0.28	0.069	0.94
9) Reading and understanding a literary text in English can be done without a teacher.	0.27	0.55	0.03	0.78	1.124	0.268
10) I think the teacher should give us an opportunity to select texts to study for the literature classes.	0.1	0.93	0.18	0.97	-0.266	0.791
11) I think the teacher should explain everything about the literary texts.	-0.98	0.83	0.15	0.61	-4.909	0.000
12) I think the teacher should give us an opportunity to decide when and where to read a literary text.	-0.45	0.85	-0.3	0.49	0.683	0.498

13) I think the teacher should give us time to read in class and understand on our own.	+ 0.81	0.62	-0.25	0.17	7.37	0.000
14) I like it when the teacher gives us opportunities to express our thoughts about the literary text.	0.12	0.39	0.33	0.45	1.57	0.123

Table 6.9 above indicates that there are only two statistically significant differences between the control group and the experimental group. These are namely; item No.11: “I think the teacher should explain everything” with  $P= 0.0000$  that is smaller than the critical value  $\alpha$ , which is set at 0.05. With  $P < \alpha$ , the null hypothesis can be rejected and accept that there is a statistically significant difference between the control group and the experimental group in what concerns students’ assumption of the teacher’s role in the literature classroom. The same observation goes for item No. 13: “I think the teacher should give us time to read in the classroom and understand on our own” with a  $t(38)= 7.73$ ,  $P= 0.000 < \alpha$ , it can be concluded that there is a statistically significant difference between the control group and experimental one as regard the role of the students in the literature classroom.

While the control group were above neutral before the experiment and decreased to neutral after the experiment concerning reading and understanding on their own in the classroom, the experimental group opinion moved up by 0.81. This suggests that the task based materials may have had an effect on their perception of their role in the classroom, and that they have become more aware of the need to read and understand on their own before listening to any explanation from the teacher. On the other hand, the lecture mode of teaching and the canonical old texts in the control group lead them to change their opinions concerning their ability to read and understand on their own and to decide when to read.

Conversely, the increase in the mean score of item No. 11 for the control group by 0.15 and the decrease in the mean score for the experimental group for the same item suggests that the control group are still dependent on the teacher for understanding whereas

the experimental group have more or less realized that they do not need the teacher to explain everything for them.

For the other items, there seems to be no statistically significant difference between the group and the experimental group. In other words, both groups accept that literature involves a lot of self-study. They are equally neutral before and after the experiment as regard to whether a literary text could be understood without a teacher. They both would like to select literary texts to read in the classroom, and they both like to be involved in giving their thoughts and expressions. However they are both neutral when it comes to making decisions about when and where to read.

On the whole, both the control and the experimental groups seem neutral to accepting and desiring responsibility pre and post-experiment. The major difference between the experimental group and the control group is that the former perceive that they do not depend on the teacher entirely and that they can read and understand on their own in the classroom. The control group, on the other hand, keep thinking that they need the teacher in explaining everything; therefore, they are not sure of their ability to read and understand on their own in the classroom.

## **6-2 Metacognitive Knowledge of Self as a Reader of Literature (MKSRL)**

Students' perception of themselves as readers of literature is an integral part of students' readiness for autonomy; items No. 15 to No. 22 are concerned with this aspect. This section presents the experimental group and the control metacognitive knowledge of themselves as readers of literature before and after the experiment and then compares the two groups gained means.

### **6-2-1 The Experimental Group MKSRL Pre and Post-Experiment Results**

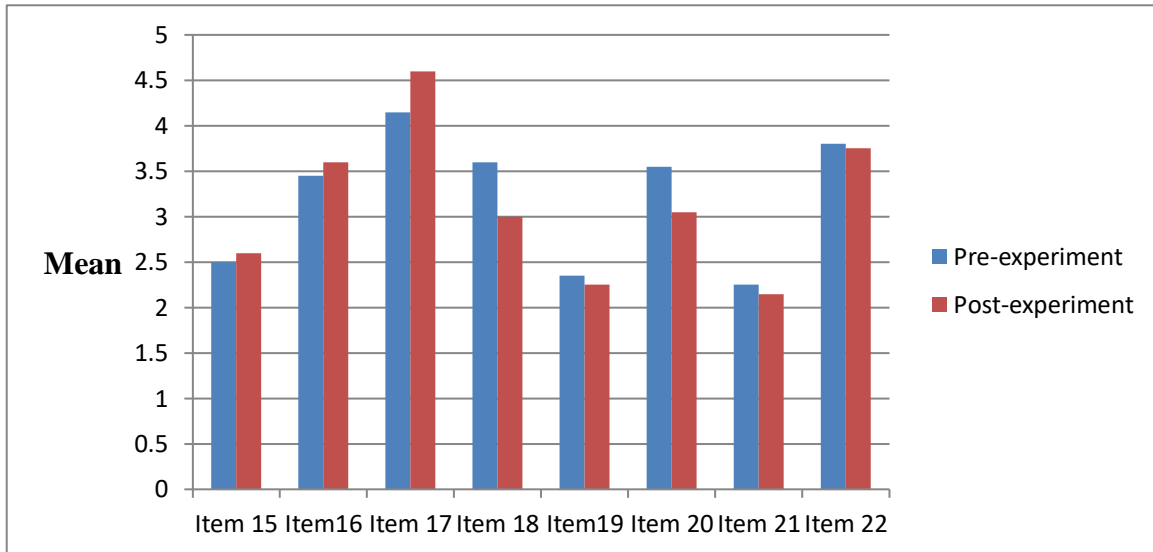
The experimental group students' responses to the RFARLQ statements regarding their knowledge or perception of themselves as readers of literature pre and post-experiment are presented in table 6.10 below. The pre and post-experiment means for each item are represented in the bar chart below in figure 6.5.



**Table 6-10:** *The Experimental Group MKSRL Scales Pre-Experiment Vs Post-Experiment*

Item Number	Pre-experiment		Post-experiment		T (19)	P value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
15) I am a confident reader of literature; I can read and understand literary texts with very little difficulty.	2.50	1.02	2.60	1.001	0.44	0.66
16) I can manage to read and understand literary texts with some difficulty.	3.45	0.75	3.60	0.25	1.34	0.19
17) I can guess the general meaning of the literary texts from the context.	4.15	0.25	4.60	0.75	4.025	0.000
18) My lack of vocabulary can affect my reading and understanding of a literary text.	3.60	1.02	3	0.88	-0.729	0.474
19) My level of language does not allow me to read and enjoy literature.	2.35	1.05	2.25	1.02	0.446	0.660
20) I am a slow reader that is why I am not interested in the reading of literature.	3.55	1.25	3.05	1.03	-1.80	0.087
21) I am not keen on reading literature, I get bored from reading.	2.25	0.88	2.15	0.27	-0.86	0.4
22) I struggle to read literature despite its difficulty.	3.80	1.005	3.75	0.95	-0.23	0.81

**Figure 6-5:** *The Experimental Group MKSR Scales Pre-Experiment Vs Post-Experiment*



In terms of general trend, what can be remarked from the table 6.10 and figure 6.5 is that students' knowledge of themselves as readers of literature has not changed much after the experiment compared to what it was before the experiment. Yet, the high standard deviation in some items indicates the divergence between opinions.

Also, there is a positive decrease pre and post-experiment in the mean scores of the negative perceptions. These are namely, item No. 18, item No. 19, item No. 20, and item No. 21. For example, item No. 18 before the experiment, students agree that the lack of vocabulary can affect their understanding of a literary text, the mean 3.60 (SD=1.02). Though the high standard deviation does not allow to have a clear cut decision about the credibility of the mean score, it can be argued that the majority of students agree with this statement. This opinion changed to neutral after the experiment 3 (SD=0.88), the lower standard deviation shows that the opinions have converged a little and that students become neutral about the obstacle of vocabulary in reading. Similarly, responses to item No. 19 show that on average students disagree with the fact that their language proficiency may be an obstacle for reading and understanding literature; the mean score for this statement moves down from 2.35 (SD=1.05) to 2.25 (SD: 1.02). Although the high standard deviation in both the pre-experiment and the post-experiment indicates that these results are fallible, the mean scores of just above 2 show that the students disagree with the

statement. In other words, language proficiency is not considered for these students as an obstacle to understand literary texts.

In fact, the results of the above mentioned items (18 and 19) correlate with students' responses in item 17. As students ability to guess the meaning from context increases from 4.15 (SD= 0.25) to 4.60 (SD= 0.75), they could not see that language or vocabulary as an obstacle in understanding literary texts. Notice also that the t test conducted on the pair of means for item No. 17 shows that the difference between the pre-experiment and the post-experiment is statistically significant.

Another point to notice is the lower mean scores obtained from two opposing items that is item No. 15 and item No. 21. According to the figures, students' opinion about themselves as confident readers of literature does not change after the experiment. In other words, they do not consider themselves confident readers of literature. The t test shows that there is no significant difference between the pre-experiment and the post-experiment mean score. Nevertheless, they do not get bored from the reading of literature. The mean score of item No.21 decreases from 2.25 (S.D=0.88) to strongly disagree 2.15 (S.D=0.27) (the t test and the p values suggest the insignificant pre and post-experiment difference. In addition, item No. 16 and item No. 20 indicate that the students are aware of the challenges and the difficulties that may face them as readers of literature, but are ready to face it.

In brief, here again, the results suggest that students' metacognitive knowledge of themselves as readers of literature has not changed a lot pre and post experiment. Put differently, it seems that the task-based materials have had little effect on the experimental group students' metacognitive knowledge of themselves as readers.

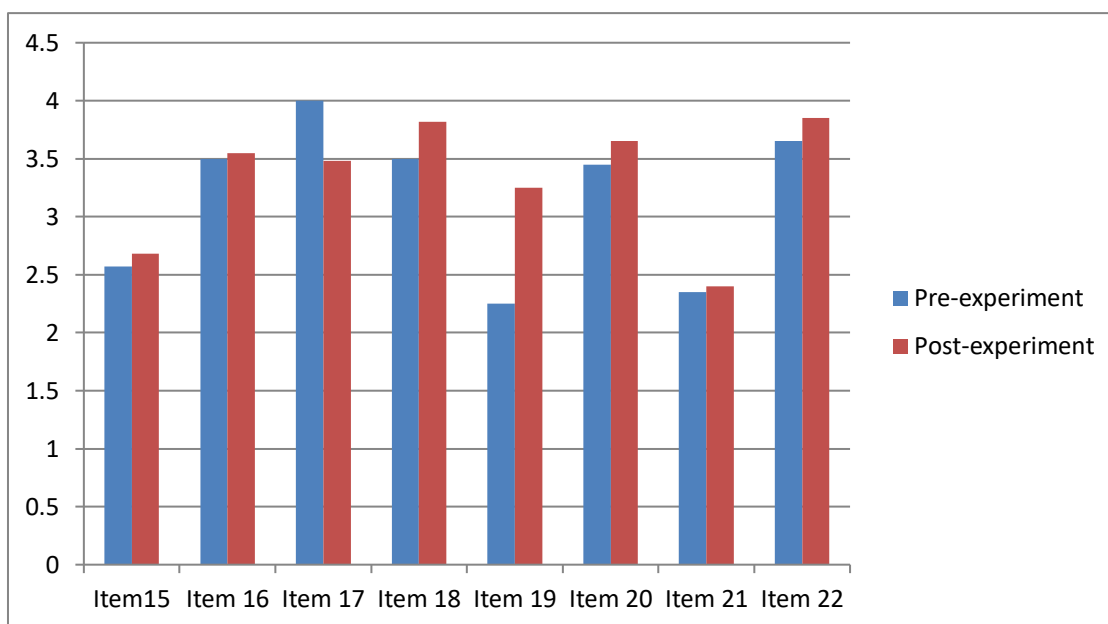
### **6-2-2 The Control Group MKSRL Pre and Post-Experiment**

The control group metacognitive knowledge of themselves as readers of literature pre and post-experiment are presented in table 6-11 below and in the bar chart in figure 6-6.

**Table 6-11: The Control Group MKSR Scales (Pre-Experiment Vs Post-Experiment)**

Item number	Pre-experiment		Post-experiment		T (19)	P value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
15) I am a confident reader of literature; I can read and understand literary texts with very little difficulty	2.57	1.05	2.68	1.03	0.48	0.63
16) I can manage to read and understand literary texts with some difficulty.	3.50	0.88	3.55	1.01	0.22	0.82
17) I can guess the general meaning of the literary texts from the context.	4	0.25	3.48	0.85	-0.15	0.87
18) My lack of vocabulary can affect my reading and understanding of a literary text.	3.50	0.95	3.82	0.88	1.57	0.13
19) My level of language does not allow me to read and enjoy literature.	2.50	1.002	3.25	1.03	3.32	0.000
20) I am a slow reader that is why I am not interested in the reading of literature.	3.45	1.28	3.65	1.12	0.71	0.4
21) I am not keen on reading literature, I get bored from reading.	2.35	0.25	2.40	0.57	0.69	0.49
22) I struggle to read literature despite its difficulty.	3.65	0.99	3.85	0.75	1.028	0.31

**Figure 3-6:** *The Control Group MKSR Scales (Pre-Experiment Vs Post-Experiment)*



The figures displayed by the table above show some similarities with the experimental group results particularly in the pre-experiment phase. The post-experiment mean scores, on the other, show some differences.

Just like the experimental group, two opposing statements have the lowest mean scores, both before and after the experiment. These are statements No. 15: “I am a confident reader of literature” mean 2.57 (SD= 1.05) before the experiment and 2.68 (SD= 1.03) after the experiment. And statement No.21: “I get bored from reading literature” mean 2.35 (SD= 0.25) before and 2.40 after. This indicates that like the experimental group students, the control group students do not perceive themselves as confident readers of literature, but at the same time they do not get bored from reading literature.

However, unlike the experimental group, the control group students perceive that their reading and understanding of a literary text is affected by the lack of vocabulary and inappropriate language proficiency as the increase of the mean score of statement No. 18 and item No.19 suggest. It also reveals that students in the control group make use more of the bottom-up processes by focussing on language and vocabulary while reading literary texts at the expense of guessing and understanding the meaning from context; item No. 17 decreases from 4 (SD= 0.25) to 3.48 (SD= 0.85).

As far as items No. 16 and No. 22 are concerned, there is an increase in the mean scores of these items which suggests that students in the control group are also aware of the difficulties facing them while reading literature.

### 6-2-3 MKSRL Gained Means Comparison between the Experimental Group and the Control Group

To check whether there is any significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in their metacognitive knowledge of self as readers, the gains in means pre-experiment and post-experiment of each group were computed. Then, an independent sample t test was calculated for each of pair of gained means. Table 6.12 below shows the results.

**Table 6-12:** *MKSRL Gained Means Comparison between the Control Group and the Experimental Group*

Item number	Experimental group		Control group		T (38)	P value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
15) I am a confident reader of literature; I can read and understand literary texts with very little difficulty.	0.1	1.01	0.11	1.04	0.03	0.97
16) I can manage to read and understand literary texts with some difficulty.	0.15	0.5	0.05	0.94	0.42	0.67
17) I can guess the general meaning of the literary texts from the context.	0.45	0.5	-0.52	0.55	5.83	0.000
18) My lack of vocabulary can affect my reading and understanding of a literary text.	-0.60	0.98	0.32	0.91	0.93	0.35
19) My level of language does not allow me to read and enjoy literature.	-0.10	1.03	0.75	1.01	2.63	0.012

20) I am a slow reader that is why I am not interested in reading literature.	-0.5	1.14	0.2	1.2	1.18	0.06
21) I am not keen on reading literature, I get bored from reading	-0.1	0.57	0.05	0.41	0.95	0.3
22) I struggle to read literature despite its difficulty	-0.05	0.97	0.20	0.87	0.85	0.39

According to the results of the t tests conducted on each pair of mean differences, there is no statistical significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in all the items except items No. 17 and No. 19, where the p value is respectively 0.000 and 0.012, and in both cases it is smaller than  $\alpha= 0.05$ . This leads to draw three conclusions.

First, the experimental group may have been affected by the experiment, i.e. the task-based materials in perceiving themselves better than the control group students in reading and understanding the meaning from the context that is in global reading or skimming.

Second, the statistical significant difference in item No. 19 reveals that while the control group students perceive themselves having low language level in relation to reading literature, the experimental group students seem to be better at coping with language difficulties. This is may be as a result of the different literature content of the two groups.

Third, both the control group and the experimental group have improved their metacognitive personal knowledge as readers. Even though they both do not consider themselves as confident readers of literature, they think they are able to understand and manage the task of reading literature despite its difficulty. Also, they do not consider themselves as slow readers. This metacognitive knowledge of self as readers does have its implication in terms of content.

#### 6-2-4 Metacognitive Knowledge of the Task of Reading Literature (MKTRL)

This section is concerned with presenting the results obtained from the experimental and the control group regarding their perception of the task of reading literature, in other words, their metacognitive knowledge of the literature reading task (MKTRL). To determine the effect of the task-based designed materials on this aspect, the pre and post experiment gains in means of the control and the experiment groups are compared using an independent sample t test.

##### 6-2-4-1 The Experimental Group MKTRL Pre and Post-Experiment Results

In what follows, the experimental group students' metacognitive knowledge of the task of reading literary texts pre and post experiment mean scores are presented and compared using a paired sample t test to see if there are any statistical significance pre and post- test.

**Table 6-13:** *The Experimental Group MKTRL Scales (Pre-Experiment Vs Post-Experiment)*

Question	Pre-experiment		Post-experiment		T (19)	P value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
23) Reading literature is similar to reading a newspaper, article or an essay.	3.25	0.75	2.70	0.45	-4.09	0.000
24) The literary language is complex and not straightforward, which makes it difficult to read and understand.	3.45	0.88	3	0.65	2.64	0.01
25) The literary language is complex and not straightforward, which makes its reading challenging and interesting.	3	0.25	3.58	0.47	7.20	0.0000
26) Literature can contain some ambiguities, which makes its meaning unclear.	4	0.75	3.25	0.22	6.98	0.0000
27) Literature can contain some	3.25	1.02	4.02	1.003	3.40	0.002



ambiguities which makes its reading more fun.						
28) To understand a literary text better, I need to read it many times.	4	0.33	4.4	0.25	5.96	0.000
29) To understand a literary text, its historical background should be known.	3.45	0.75	4	0.82	3.32	0.003
30) My understanding of a literary text can be different from the teachers' understanding.	3.54	0.86	4.01	0.45	3.23	0.004
31) When I finish reading a literary text, I feel inspired and satisfied.	3.12	1.01	4	0.95	4.016	0.000
32) To improve my literary reading skill, I plan to read other literary texts than the ones in the programme.	3.75	0.45	4.20	0.38	4.90	0.000
33) To improve my literary reading skill, I should start by reading simple literary texts like children's stories.	4.25	0.33	4.36	0.25	1.63	0.11

Table 6.13 demonstrates the experimental group students' perception of the task of reading literature. A first observation of the figures indicates that the majority of the means are 3 and above. In addition, the post-experiment results reflect a positive change in students' perception of the task of reading literary texts; the students have positively changed their perception of reading literary texts. Faulty or irrelevant perceptions represented in item No.23, item No. 24, and item No. 26 change in favour of more adequate perceptions. Each of the mentioned items dropped from a mean score of above neutral to 3 (neutral) and below. On the other hand, Positive perceptions which are represented in item No. 25, item No. 27, item No. 29, item No. 30, and item No. 32 moved to 4 and above (strongly agree). Similarly, item No. 32 and No. 33 also reflect students' positive awareness of how to improve their literary reading ability.

The t test column and the p values suggest that the pre-test and the post-test mean scores differences in all the items except item No.33 are statistically significant. In another

way, the pre and post- experiment difference in students' metacognitive knowledge of the task of reading literary texts is considerable.

Whether this positive improvement is caused by the task-based materials is a question to be contested by the results of the control group.

#### 6-2-4-2The Control Group MKTRL Pre and Post-Experiment Results

Table 6-14 shows pre and post experiment responses of the control group students to the RFARLQ items No.23 to No.33 regarding their metacognitive knowledge of the task of reading literature.

**Table 6-14:** *The Control Group MKTRL Scales (Pre-Experiment Vs Post-Experiment)*

Item Number	Pre-experiment		Post-experiment		T (19)	P value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
23) Reading literature is similar to reading a newspaper, article or an essay.	3.40	0.88	3.25	0.75	0.82	0.41
24) The literary language is complex and not straightforward, which makes it difficult to read and understand.	3.55	0.76	4	0.63	2.91	0.000
25) The literary language is complex and not straightforward, which makes its reading challenging and interesting.	3.02	0.95	3.12	0.88	0.49	0.628
26) Literature can contain some ambiguities, which makes its meaning unclear.	3.86	0.85	4	0.65	0.83	0.41
27) Literature can contain some ambiguities which makes its reading more fun.	3.05	1.002	3	1.12	-0.21	0.83
28) To understand a literary text	3.88	0.45	4	0.25	1.53	0.14

better, I need to read it many times.						
29) To understand a literary text, its historical background should be known.	3	0.32	4	0.67	0.12	0.000
30) My understanding of a literary text can be different from the teachers' understanding.	3.15	0.75	3.25	0.65	0.63	0.530
31) When I finish reading a literary text, I feel inspired and satisfied.	3	0.45	3.12	0.35	1.34	0.19
32) To improve my literary reading skill, I plan to read other literary text than the ones in the programme.	3.45	0.65	3.60	0.88	0.29	0.77
33) To improve my literary reading skill, I should start by reading simple literary texts like children's stories.	4	0.35	4.25	0.54	2.54	0.019

Just like the experimental group, the control group results show that the mean score for each item does not drop below 3 i.e., it is neutral; besides, there is an increase in the post-experiment mean score for almost all the items. Such observations imply that at least the control group students do not hold negative or faulty perceptions about the task of reading literature.

Nevertheless, unlike the experimental group, the control group displays an increase in the mean scores of some negative or impeding perceptions of reading literature such as the statements in item No.24 and item No.26, which both increase from 3.86 (SD= 0.85) to 4 (SD=0.63) and from 3.86 (SD= 0.85) to 4 respectively. The persistence of such opinions about the task of literary reading may be due to the literary texts studied in this group. For as it has been demonstrated in the previous chapter the control group students studied texts belonging to old and middle English literature (see chapter 2, section 2.4).As the control group find that literary language is complex and difficult to read, they cannot perceive the challenge and the fun in reading complex and ambiguous literary texts. Notice that the mean scores of item No.26 and item No. 27 do not go beyond 3.12 i.e., neutral.

Apart from those exceptions, there is a positive increase in all the positive or relevant perceptions of the task of reading literature with some significant pre and post-test differences as the t test columns suggest. These statistically significant differences are namely: item No.24, item No. 29 and item No. 33 in which the p values are smaller than  $\alpha=0.05$ .

The following section looks in details at the similarities and the differences in the change trend of the control group and the experimental group.

#### **6-2-4-3MKTRL Gained Means Comparison between the Control Group and the Experimental Group**

The gains in the means of each item pre-experiment and post experiment for each group concerning their metacognitive knowledge of the task of reading literature were computed. Then, an independent sample t test was conducted on each pair of gain in means to see whether there is any significant difference between the experimental group and the control group.

**Table 6-15:** *MKTRL Gained Means Comparison between the Experimental Group and the Control Group*

Item No.	Experimental Group		Control Group		T (38)	P value
	Mean Difference	SD	Mean Difference	SD		
23) Reading literature is similar to reading a newspaper article or an essay.	-0.55	0.6	-0.15	0.81	-1.77	0.08
24) The literary language is complex and not straightforward, which makes it difficult to read and understand.	-0.45	0.76	0.45	0.69	3.92	0.0003
25) The literary language is complex and not straightforward, which makes its reading challenging and	0.58	0.36	0.1	0.91	2.19	0.03

interesting.						
26) Literature can contain some ambiguities, which makes its meaning unclear.	-0.75	0.48	0.14	0.75	4.47	0.00006
27) Literature can contain some ambiguities which makes its reading more fun.	0.77	1.01	-0.5	1.06	3.87	0.000
28) To understand a literary text better, I need to read it many times.	0.2	0.29	0.12	0.35	0.78	0.436
29) To understand a literary text, its historical background should be known	0.55	0.78	1	0.49	2.18	0.03
30) My understanding of a literary text can be different from the teachers' understanding.	0.47	0.65	0.1	0.7	1.73	0.091
31) When I finish reading a literary text, I feel inspired and satisfied.	0.88	0.98	0.12	0.4	3.21	0.002
32) To improve my literary reading skill, I plan to read other literary texts than the ones in the programme.	0.45	0.41	0.25	0.76	1.03	0.30
33) To improve my literary reading skill, I should start by reading simple literary texts like children's stories.	0.11	0.29	0.25	0.44	-1.18	0.24

The t test column shows that there are five items in which the p value is smaller than  $\alpha = 0.05$ . These are: item No.24, item No. 25, item No.26, and item No. 31 which indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between the results of the two groups in each of these items.

While the experimental group display a decrease in the mean score of irrelevant perceptions about literary reading namely, item No. 24 and item No. 26, the control group show an increase in the gain mean for the same items. That is to say, the control group students maintain that the difficulty of literary reading is due to the difficulty of the literary

language and the ambiguities it contains; by contrast, the experimental group students perceive this difficulty as part of the challenge of literary reading.

In fact, the experimental group students increase relevant perceptions about literary reading like the one in item No.27. Another item in which there is a statistical significant difference between the experimental group gain in means and the control group one is item No.31. The experimental group mean for this item increases higher than the control group. This contrast may be justified by the kind of literary texts that each group were taught. The short stories presented to the experimental group are likely to inspire young Algerian students more than the ones presented to the Control group.

To sum up both the experimental group and the control group change their metacognitive knowledge of the task of reading literature positively; however, the experimental group improve much better their perception of the act of reading literature than the control group do. Such observation is revealed in the statistical significant differences between the gained mean scores of the two groups. These statistical indicators lead to the acceptance of hypothesis 2 stating that the task-based materials can have a positive effect on students' readiness for autonomy to read literary texts.

### **6-3 Summary of the RFARLT Questionnaire Findings**

The RFARLT was administered to the both experimental group and the control group pre and post experiment to check the second directional hypothesis: whether the use of task-based materials in the literature course will result in higher level of readiness for autonomy to read literature for first-year students as compared to those who were not introduced to the materials. Overall, according to the pre and post test results and the statistical indicators, this hypothesis can be accepted for certain items and rejected for others.

To begin with, as far as students' attitude to literature is concerned, the results suggest that there is no statistical significant difference between the pre and post experiment mean scores except in two items. Indeed, both the control and the experimental group hold at the outset of the experiment positive attitudes about the importance of literature as a subject. The same positive attitude was maintained after the experiment in both groups which is revealed in the way students rate these statement (minimum 3.26 above neutral and maximum 4.60 strongly agree). At the exception of item No. 2 and item

No. 5, there are no statistical significant difference between the control group and the experimental group concerning attitudes to literature.

As a result, given that only two items out of 7 have statistically significant difference, the second directional hypothesis can be rejected and null hypothesis is accepted concerning the effect of task-based materials on first-year students' attitude to literature.

Secondly, acceptance and desire for responsibility in literature (ADRL) pre and post experiment results indicate that students in both the experimental group and the control group have high acceptance and desire for responsibility in literature. Most of the items are rated above 3 pre experiment and increase to above 3 post experiment (they move from neutral to agree). Also, the statistical insignificant difference between the pre and post test mean gains of the experimental and control group except in 2 items No. 10 and No. 13 leads to the rejection of hypothesis 2 and the acceptance of the null hypothesis as regard students' acceptance and desire for responsibility in literature. Nevertheless, the statistical significant decrease in item No. 11, in particular, needs to be taken into consideration. While the experimental group students change their perception of the teacher's role in explaining everything (the decrease of the pre and post gain mean score for item No.11), from 4.50 (SD=1.06) to 3.50 (SD=0.61), the control group maintain their perception of the role of the teacher in explaining everything pre experiment 4.40 (SD=0.98), post experiment 4.55 (SD=0.28). The reason behind these contradictory views concerning the role of teacher in the literature classroom may be inferred as a result of the task-based materials implemented to the experimental group.

Unsurprisingly for the control group also, making decisions about when and where to read a literary text is also perceived as the teacher's role rather than their responsibility (item No. 12 the mean score dropped from 3.55 to SD=0.55) to 3.25 (SD=0.44). Similarly, the experimental group students seem also undecided concerning when and where to read the literary text item No.12 pre-experiment M=3.81 (SD=0.65), post experiment 3.36 (SD=1.06). Such responses could be an evidence that the task-based materials have influenced some students positively and others negatively concerning decision-making in the classroom.

The third aspect of readiness for autonomy concerns the MKSRL. Like the two preceding aspects, both the experimental group and the control group hold positive

knowledge of themselves as readers of literature, which improves for both groups post-experiment. The statistical significance between the experimental and the control group is almost nought except for two items out of eight. These are item No.17 and item No.19. Consequently, hypothesis 2 can be again rejected for students' metacognitive knowledge of themselves as readers.

The fourth and the last aspect of readiness for autonomy in reading literary texts is the metacognitive knowledge of the task of reading literature (MKTRL). Unlike the three preceding aspects of readiness for autonomy in reading literary texts, the t tests conducted on each pair of mean gains suggest that there are statistical significant differences between the experimental group and the control group in 6 items out of 11. These are items No.24, No.25, No.26, No.27, No.29, and No.31. Although both groups seem to hold positive and relevant perceptions about the task of reading literature, the experimental group outscore the control group in the number of positive perceptions and in the rate given to this perceptions or this metacognitive knowledge.

Thus, it can be argued that hypothesis 2 can be accepted for the MKTRL in the readiness for autonomy in reading literary texts questionnaire, put in another way, the use of task-based materials have resulted in higher level of MKTRL for first-year students as compared to those who were not introduced to the materials.

However, to accept or reject the second directional hypothesis, related to readiness for autonomy, the four parts of the RFARLTQ need to be taken into consideration, and not only one aspect. Out of the 33 items which make up the RFARLT questionnaire, 12 items only display statistical significant difference between the control group and the experimental group. Therefore, hypothesis 2 is rejected and the null hypothesis is accepted concerning the effect of task-based materials on first-year students' readiness for autonomy in reading literary text.

#### **6-4 The Results of SORS Adapted to Literary Texts**

SORS (Survey of Reading Strategies) developed by Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) was adapted to the reading of literature. It was administered to both the control group and the experimental group before and after the experiment in order to check the third directional hypothesis. Put in another way, SORS adapted to literary texts was administered in the aim of determining whether or not there is any change in students'



awareness and use of cognitive and metacognitive reading literary texts strategies. The results obtained from each group before and after the experiment are compared, then the results of the two groups are compared. The mean scores obtained are interpreted following Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) recommendations of the three levels of reading strategy usage: high (mean of 3.5 or higher), moderate (mean of 2.5 to 3.5 or higher), and low (mean of 2.4 or lower).

#### 6-4-1 The Experimental Group Results of SORS Adapted to Literature Pre and Post-Test

Since SORS is made up of three sets of strategies: global reading strategies, support reading strategies, and problem solving strategies, the results of each set of strategies are presented alone, and then the overall reading strategies pre and post-test scores are presented.

First, the results of the global reading strategies of the experimental group before and after the experiment are presented in table 6-16 below. A paired sample t test is conducted on each pair of means to see whether there is any statistical significance between the pre-test and post-test results.

**Table 6-16:** *The Experimental Group Global Reading Strategies Pre and Post-Test Results*

Global Reading Strategies	Test	M	SD	t(19)	P
1. I read with the writer's purpose in my mind.	Pre-test	2.14	0.86	5.68	0.000
	Post-test	3.22	0.84		
3. I think about what I know about the writer and his society to help me understand the story	Pre-test	3.25	1.07	0.37	0.70
	Post-test	3.34	1.05		
4. I take an overall view of the story to determine what it is about.	Pre-test	3.14	.97	3.045	0.006
	Post-test	3.78	.91		
6. I think how the content and the details of the text serve the purpose of the writer.	Pre-test	3.03	1.12	0.19	0.84
	Post-test	3.08	1.12		

8. Before reading, I guess what the story is about from the title.	Pre-test	3.88	1.18	0.38	0.702
	Post-test	4.01	1.02		
12. When reading, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore.	Pre-test	3.48	1.15	1.18	0.24
	Post-test	3.51	1.12		
15. I use pictures if any to guess and increase my understanding	Pre-test	4	1.30	0	1
	Post-test	4	0.75		
17. I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading.	Pre-test	3.62	1.04	0.37	0.71
	Post-test	3.70	.86		
20. I pay attention to typographical features like bold face, quotation marks, and italics to identify their purpose in the text.	Pre-test	1.89	1.62	2.84	0.01
	Post-test	2.85	1.40		
21. I compare events and characters in the texts with real life events and characters.	Pre-test	3.66	.87	1.14	0.26
	Post-test	3.88	.85		
23. I check my understanding when I come across new events or information.	Pre-test	3.89	.97	0.33	0.94
	Post-test	3.96	.93		
24. I try to guess what the story is about when I read.	Pre-test	3.92	.99	0.24	0.80
	Post-test	3.97	.89		
27. I check my hypotheses and guesses as I am reading and reformulate new ones.	Pre-test	4.03	1.07	0.099	0.92
	Post-test	4.07	1.12		
Overall Mean	Pre-test	3.37			
	Post-test	3.64			

N= 20

M, mean; SD, standard deviation

What can be noticed from the table is that there is a positive change in the overall mean score of the experimental group students' global reading strategies. The overall mean score moves from 3.37 (moderate) to 3.64 (high). This indicates that the students' moderate understanding and use of the global reading strategies of literary texts in the pre-experiment phase improve to a high level of awareness in the post-test phase.

In particular, there are three global reading strategies in which students' awareness of their use improves significantly. These are item no.1, item no.4, and item no.20. For item no.1 the pre-test mean score moves up from 2.14 (SD= 0.86) to 3.22 (SD= 0.84) in the post-test; the t test conducted on this pair of means yields a  $p= 0.000$  smaller than  $\alpha=0.05$  which shows that the difference between the pre-test mean score and the post-test mean score is statistically significant. This, in turn, shows that the experimental group students become more aware of reading with the writer's purpose or point in mind which is one of the strategies used by competent readers of literature mentioned by Vipond & Hunt (1984).

Similarly, item no.4 "I take an overall view of the story or the text to determine what it is about" increased by 0.64 and the t test shows that the difference between the pre-test mean score and the post-test mean score is statistically significant. This implies that the experimental group students have become more aware of this strategy after the experiment. Same observation goes for item no.20 "I pay attention to typographical features like bold face, quotation marks, and italics to identify their purpose in the text".

In brief, there is a positive increase in students global reading strategies awareness, yet, this positive change need to be compared with the control group students' results before concluding that it was caused by the task-based materials.

Second, the results of the support reading strategies which are presented in table 6.17 below show a general trend that is not too different from the global reading strategies trend. This is reflected in the overall mean scores of the pre-test and the post-test which are respectively 3.46 and 3.58; in other words, students move from a moderate awareness and use of the support reading strategies to a high level of it in spite of the fact that the difference between the pre-test and the post-test is insignificant in almost all the items except two.

**Table 6-17:** *The Experimental Group Support Reading Strategies Pre-test and Post-test Results.*

<b>Support Reading Strategies</b>	<b>Test</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>T(19)</b>	<b>P</b>
2. I take notes of the most important events in the text	Pre-test	2.62	1.11	0.08	0.93
	Post-test	2.64	1.11		
5. When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.	Pre-test	4.51	1.08	0.17	0.8
	Post-test	4.55	1.03		
10. I highlight significant quotations and information for the meaning of the story.	Pre-test	3.60	1.02	0.70	0.48
	Post-test	3.76	1.01		
13. I use reference materials (e.g. a dictionary) to help me understand what I read.	Pre-test	3.25	1.08	-0.12	0.90
	Post-test	3.22	1.09		
18. I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I read.	Pre-test	3.59	1.24	0.27	0.78
	Post-test	3.66	1.20		
22. I go back and forth in the text to find motivations, causations, feelings and relationships of events.	Pre-test	3.51	0.98	0.39	0.69
	Post-test	3.59	0.88		
26. I constantly make hypotheses and guesses about what is going to happen and what I am going to read.	Pre-test	3.30	1.25	2.59	0.01
	Post-test	3.88	0.75		
29. When reading, I translate from English into my native language.	Pre-test	3.88	0.80	-0.16	0.80
	Post-test	3.85	0.81		
30. When reading, I refer to literary knowledge both in English and my mother tongue.	Pre-test	2.88	0.24	5.48	0.0002
	Post-test	3.15	0.20		

<b>Overall Mean</b>	Pre-test	3.46			
	Post-test	3.58			

N= 20

M, mean; SD, standard deviation

In fact, the mean scores of two support strategies decrease in the post-test, these strategies are item no.13 “I use reference materials (e.g. a dictionary, or a glossary) to help me understand what I read” and item no. 29 “when reading I translate from English into my native language”. The decrease in such strategies can be interpreted as a direct result of the increase in the global strategies of inferring meaning and using context clues (item no.17 and item no. 24).

Conversely, according to the p values of item No.26 and item No.30, there is statistically significant increase in each of the strategy of making guesses and hypotheses about the unfolding of the story and referring to literary knowledge in English and the mother tongue. Both of these strategies pertain to high order literature reading strategies according to Zwaan (1993). This indicates that the experimental group students improve their high order reading literature strategies, which may be due to the task-based materials they were introduced to. Yet the results of the control group may or may not confirm this conclusion.

In sum, the support reading strategies and in particular those pertaining to higher order strategies move from moderate in the pre-experimental stage to high in the post-experiment (item no.22, item no.26, and item no. 30). By contrast, support reading strategies related to lower order or bottom up strategies like item no.13 decrease their mean score use. Whether this change is due to the task-based designed materials is a question to be checked with the control group results.

Third, not unlike the other two scales, the problem solving strategies presented in table 6.18 below show a positive change in students’ awareness of the problem solving strategies use.

**Table 6-18: The Experimental group PSS Pre-Test and Post-Test Results.**

<b>Problem Solving Strategies</b>	<b>Test</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>T(19)</b>	<b>P</b>
7. I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I read.	Pre-test	4.70	0.24	0.14	0.88
	Post-test	4.72	0.35		
9. I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	Pre-test	4.25	0.75	0.51	0.61
	Post-test	4.33	0.64		
11. I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading.	Pre-test	4.14	1.09	0.14	0.88
	Post-test	4.17	0.77		
14. When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I am reading.	Pre-test	4.37	0.92	0.19	0.84
	Post-test	4.41	0.92		
16. I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading.	Pre-test	3.40	1.04	0.35	0.72
	Post-test	3.48	1.02		
19. I picture and visualize events and characters to understand and remember.	Pre-test	4.22	1.01	0.34	0.73
	Post-test	4.29	0.92		
25. When text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding.	Pre-test	3.81	0.33	1.52	0.14
	Pro-test	3.96	0.56		
28. When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases.	Pre-test	3.61	0.89	0.39	0.69
	Post-test	4.03	0.80		
Overall Mean	Pre-test	4.06			
	Post-test	4.17			

N= 20

M, mean; SD, standard deviation

The experimental group students improvement in their awareness and use of the problem solving strategies is revealed in the overall mean score of the pre-test (mean=4.10) and the post-test (mean 4.17). Such overall mean scores suggest that the experimental group students have good awareness of problem solving strategies use when reading literary texts both before and after the experiment.

Indeed, there is only one item with a mean score lower than 3.50 which is item no. 16 “I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading”, the other seven item mean scores do not go lower than 3.50, i.e. high level. In addition, the p values of the t tests conducted on each pair of means show that the difference between the pre-test and the post-test is not significant statistically which leads to the conclusion that students’ awareness of problem solving strategies was not affected by the task-based designed materials.

In summary, the experimental group results of SORS adapted to literature are demonstrated in table 6-19 below. They reveal that the experimental group students improve their reading strategies awareness after the experiment in the three scales (global, support, and problem solving). However, this improvement is statistically insignificant according to the t test and the p values which are smaller than  $\alpha=0.05$  in each set of strategies. Yet to accept or reject hypothesis 3, the results of the experimental group need to be compared with the control group results which are presented in the following section.

**Table 6-19:** *The Experimental Group Overall Reading Strategies Use Pre and Post-Test*

	Pre-test		Post-test		T test	P value
	M	SD	M	SD		
Global Reading Strategies	3.38	0.69	3.64	0.42	1.35	0.19
Support Reading Strategies	3.46	0.55	3.58	0.54	0.8	0.43
PSS	4.10	0.39	4.17	0.36	0.68	0.508
Overall Reading Strategies	3.64	0.39	3.79	0.34	0.7	0.5

#### 6-4-2 The Control Group Pre and Post-Test Results of SORS Adapted to Literature

The control group pre and post-test results in the three scales (global reading strategies, support reading strategies, and problem solving strategies) are presented below.

First, the control group global reading strategies are presented in table 3.20 below

**Table 6-20:** *The Control Group Global Reading Strategies Pre- and Post- Test Results*

Global Reading Strategies	Test	M	SD	t(19)	P
1. I read with the writer's purpose in my mind.	Pre-test	2.24	0.82	0.24	0.81
	Post-test	2.29	1.04		
3. I think about what I know about the writer and his society to help me understand the story	Pre-test	3.32	1.07	0.08	0.93
	Post-test	3.34	1.05		
4. I take an overall view of the story to determine what it is about before reading it.	Pre-test	3.13	0.97	0.33	0.74
	Post-test	3.20	0.91		
6. I think about how the content and the details of the text serve the purpose of the writer.	Pre-test	2.58	1.12	0.41	0.68
	Post-test	2.68	1.03		
8. Before reading, I guess what the story is about from the title.	Pre-test	3	1.08	0	1
	Post-test	3	1.02		
12. When reading, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore.	Pre-test	3.08	1.05	0.30	0.76
	Post-test	3.15	1		
15. I use pictures if any to guess and	Pre-test	4	1.25	0	1



increase my understanding	Post-test	4	0.85		
17. I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading.	Pre-test	3.58	1.03	0.1	0.91
	Post-test	3.60	0.86		
20. I pay attention to typographical features like bold face, quotation marks, and italics to identify their purpose in the text.	Pre-test	1.95	1.62	0.08	0.93
	Post-test	1.98	1.40		
21. I compare events and characters in the texts with real life events and characters.	Pre-test	3.65	0.87	0.052	0.95
	Post-test	3.66	0.86		
23. I check my understanding when I come across new events or information.	Pre-test	3.75	0.87	0	1
	Post-test	3.75	0.83		
24. I try to guess what the story is about when I read.	Pre-test	3.82	0.99	-0.095	0.92
	Post-test	3.80	0.89		
27. I check my hypotheses and guesses as I am reading and reformulate new ones.	Pre-test	4	1.07	0	1
	Post-test	4	1.12		
<b>Overall Mean</b>	Pre-test	3.23			
	Post-test	3.26			

The overall mean scores of the pre-test and the post-test 3.23 and 3.26 respectively suggest that the control group students have a moderate awareness and use of the global reading strategies in the pre-test which does not move to a higher level in the post-test. The moderate overall awareness of the global reading literature strategies are in fact, the sum of

the moderate awareness and use of each individual global strategy. The table shows that almost all the items have a mean not above 3.50 both pre and post-test. Three strategies notably have the lowest mean score pre and post-test; these are item no.1 “I read with the writer’s purpose in my mind” (mean, 2.24 pre-test, 2.29 post-test) and item no.6: “I think about how the content and the details of the text serve the purpose of the writer”. (pre-test mean 2.58, post-test mean 2.68) , and item no.20 “I pay attention to typographical features like bold face, quotation marks, and italics to identify their purpose in the text”. (pre-test mean 1.95, post-test mean 1.98). These are the high order strategies on which the experimental group have the highest mean scores post-test.

As far as the support reading strategies are concerned, table 6.21 below displays the pre and post-test mean score for each individual strategy and the overall pre and post-test means.

**Table 6-21:** *The Control Group Support Reading Strategies Pre-Test and Post-Test Results.*

<b>Support Reading Strategies</b>	<b>Test</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>T(19)</b>	<b>P</b>
2. I take notes of the most important events in the text	Pre-test	2.58	1	0.09	0.92
	Post-test	2.60	0.98		
5. When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.	Pre-test	4.65	1.08	0.89	0.38
	Post-test	4.68	1.03		
10. I highlight significant quotations and information for the meaning of the story.	Pre-test	3.55	1.04	0.43	0.66
	Post-test	3.65	1.01		
13. I use reference materials (e.g. a dictionary,) to help me understand what I read.	Pre-test	3.25	1.06	1.79	0.08
	Post-test	3.66	0.98		
18. I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I read.	Pre-test	3.40	1.04	1.02	0.31
	Post-test	3.66	1.22		
22. I go back and forth in the text to find	Pre-test	3.25	0.98	0.67	0.5

motivations causations, feelings and relationships of events.	Post-test	3.39	0.88		
26. I constantly make hypotheses and guesses about what is going to happen and what I am going to read.	Pre-test	3.35	1.05	0	1
	Post-test	3.35	0.75		
29. When reading, I translate from English into my native language.	Pre-test	4	0.81	0	1
	Post-test	4	0.76		
30. When reading, I refer to literary knowledge both in English and my mother tongue.	Pre-test	2.88	0.66	0.08	0.93
	Post-test	2.89	0.45		
Overall Mean	Pre-test	3.43			
	Post-test	3.56			

N= 20

M, mean; SD, standard deviation

The pre-test mean of the control group pre-reading strategies moves from moderate use mean=3.43 to high use in the post-test, mean=3.56. This positive improvement does not necessarily reflect a positive change in all the support reading strategies. In fact, the mean scores of two items (no.26 and no.29) remain unchanged pre and post-test.

The highest mean scores are recorded in item no. 5: “When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I am reading”(4.65 and 4.68 pre and post-test means respectively) and in item no. 29: “When reading, I translate from English into my native language”( pre and post-test scores 4). Both of these strategies relate low order strategies or bottom-up processing rather than high order strategies.

The strategies with the lowest mean scores are item no.2: “I take notes of the most important events in the text” (pre and post-test mean scores are 2.58 and 2.60) and item no.30: “When reading, I refer to literary knowledge both in English and my mother tongue.”(pre and post-test mean scores 2.88 and 2.89). By contrast, the experimental group display high post-test mean scores in these high order literary reading strategies which is

revealed by the statistical significant difference pre and post-test mean scores in these two items.

To sum up, although the control group support reading strategies overall mean score improves from moderate awareness to high awareness. This improvement is statistically insignificant across all the support reading strategies items. More particularly, there is no significant improvement in the high order literary reading strategies. By contrast, the low order strategies display the highest post-test mean scores. The reason behind this type of scoring may be due to the old and the difficult literary texts to which the control group were exposed, which maintained them at the bottom-up or the surface level of the literary text.

Finally, the control group awareness and use of problem solving strategies pre and post-test results are presented in table 6.22 below.

**Table 6-22:** *The Control Group Problem Solving Strategies Pre-Test and Post-Test Results.*

<b>Problem Solving Strategies</b>	<b>Test</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>T(19)</b>	<b>P</b>
7. I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I read.	Pre-test	4.65	0.34	0.67	0.51
	Post-test	4.71	0.45		
9. I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	Pre-test	4.22	0.75	0.84	0.4
	Post-test	4.35	0.64		
11. I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading.	Pre-test	4	1.09	0	1
	Post-test	4	0.77		
14. When text becomes difficult, I pay closer	Pre-test	4.30	0.82	0.69	0.48

attention to what I am reading.	Post-test	4.32	0.72		
16. I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading.	Pre-test	3.35	1.14	0.12	0.90
	Post-test	3.40	1.02		
19. I picture and visualize events and characters to understand and remember.	Pre-test	4.02	1.01	-	0.92
	Post-test	4	0.92		
25. When text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding.	Pre-test	3.85	0.56	0.25	0.8
	Pro-test	3.88	0.50		
28. When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases.	Pre-test	3.50	0.96	0.24	0.8
	Post-test	3.55	0.86		
Overall Mean	Pre-test	3.98			
	Post-test	4.03			

N= 20

M, mean; SD, standard deviation

Just like the experimental group, the control group awareness and use of problem solving strategies is of high level both pre and post-test (pre-test mean 3.98, post-test mean 4.03). The highest mean scores both pre and post-test are item no. 7: “I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I read” pre-test mean 4.65(S.D=0.34), post-test mean 4.71 (S.D= 0.45), item no.9: “I try to get back on track when I lose concentration”

pre-test mean 4.71( S.D= 0.75), post-test mean 4.35 (S.D= 0.64). The lowest mean score pre and post-test is item No. 16 with pre-test mean 3.35 and a post-test 3.40.

The t test and the p values suggest that there is absolutely no statistical significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test results. These results are in many ways similar to the experimental group results.

The overall reading strategies of the control group pre and post-test results are presented in table 3.23 below.

**Table 6-23:** *The Control Group Overall Reading Strategies Pre and Post-Test Results Comparison*

Strategy	Pre-test		Post-test		T test	P value
	M	SD	M	SD		
Global Reading Strategies	3.23	0.66	3.26	0.63	0.16	0.86
Support Reading Strategies	3.43	0.60	3.56	0.62	0.63	0.54
Problem Solving Strategies	3.97	0.40	4.03	0.43	0.7	0.48
Overall Reading Strategies	3.54	0.38	3.61	0.38	0.31	0.77

Although the pre-test mean score of each strategy scale changes positively in the post-test, the difference between the pre-test mean scores and the post-test ones is statistically insignificant according to the p value which is  $p > \alpha$  in the three strategy scales as well as in the overall strategies mean score. This leads to the conclusion that there is no difference between the control group students' reading literature strategies awareness and use before and after the experiment. Yet, in order to accept or reject hypothesis 3, we need to compare the experimental group gained means in the three reading strategies scales with these results.

### 6-4-3 SORSAL Gained Means Comparison between the Experimental and the Control Group

The experimental group and the control group pre and post-test mean gains (differences) of each strategy scale are compared in table 6-24 below.

**Table 6-24:** *SORSAL Pre and Post-Test Gained Means Comparison between the Experimental and the Control Group*

Strategy name	Experimental group		Control group		<i>t</i>	p value
	<b>M.D</b>	<b>S.D (d)</b>	<b>M.D</b>	<b>S.D (d)</b>		
Global Reading Strategies	0.18	0.28	0.026	0.28	2.45	0.019
Support Reading Strategies	0.12	0.19	0.12	0.15	0	1
Problem Solving Strategies	0.067	0.14	0.04	0.18	0.65	0.5
Overall Reading Strategies	0.15	0.25	0.062	0.28	1.04	0.3

It can be noted from the table that the experimental group have higher mean difference score in each of the global reading strategies and the problem solving strategies than the control group; however, both groups have the same mean difference in the support reading strategies. The experimental group also exceeded the control group in the overall reading strategies mean difference. While the difference between the experimental and the control group is statistically insignificant in each of the problem solving strategies and the overall reading strategies [  $t(38)=0.067$ ,  $p=0.5$ , and  $t(38)= 1.04$ ,  $p=0.3$ ] respectively , it is statistically significant in the global reading strategies according to the t test results of the global reading strategies mean differences [  $t(38)= 2.45$ ,  $p< 0.05$ ].

In the support reading strategies there is absolutely no difference between the experimental and the control group both numerically and statistically as the mean

difference of both groups is M.D= 0.12 ( experimental group S.D= 0.14,control group S.D= 0.18),  $t(38)= 0$ ,  $p> 0.05$ .

This data inevitably leads to accept the third directional hypothesis only in what concerns the global reading strategies. In other words, the task-based designed literature materials had positive effect on the experimental group awareness and use of the global reading strategies whereas they have no effect on them concerning the support, the problem solving, and the overall reading strategies.

Nevertheless, a close analysis of the highest and the lowest mean difference scores for each individual strategy is likely to pinpoint the reading strategies that were particularly influenced by the use of the task-based literature materials.

Reading strategies with the highest and the lowest gained scores are reported in descending order in the below table.

**Table 6-25:** *The Experimental and the Control Group Highest and Lowest Mean Differences of Reading Strategies Use.*

<b>The experimental group students (n=20)</b>		<b>The control group students (n=20)</b>	
<b>Strategy</b>	<b>M.D</b>	<b>Strategy</b>	<b>M.D</b>
GLOB1 Determining the writer's purpose	1.08	SUP13 Use of reference material	0.46
GLOB20 Typographical features purpose	0.96	SUP18 Paraphrasing and restating	0.26
GLOB4 Taking an overall view about the story	0.64	SUP5 Read aloud for understanding	0.21
SUP26 Making hypothesis and guesses	0.58	SUP22 Moving back and forth in the text to understand	0.12
GLOB12 Deciding what to read closely		PSS9 Getting back on track	0.13
And what to ignore	0.53	SUP10 highlighting significant quotations	0.1
PSS28 Guessing the meaning of unknown	0.42	GLOB6 How content and details serve the	0.1



words		purpose	
SUP30 Referring to literary knowledge	0.27	GLOB4 Taking an overall view about the story	0.07
GLOB21 Comparing events with real life	0.22	GLOB12 Deciding what to read closely and what to ignore	0.07
SUP10 Highlighting significant quotations and information	0.16	PSS7 Reading slowly and carefully	0.06
PSS25 Rereading to increase understanding	0.15	PSS14 Paying close attention	0.06
GLOB8 Guessing from the title	0.13	PSS16 Stopping and thinking	0.05
GLOB3 Referring to the writer's background	0.09	PSS28 Guessing the meaning of unknown words	0.05
GLOB17 Using context clues for understanding	0.08	GLOB1 Determining the writer's purpose	0.05
SUP22 Moving back and forth in the text	0.08	PSS25 Rereading to increase understanding	0.03
PSS16 Stopping and thinking about reading	0.08	GLOB20 Typographical features purpose	0.03
PSS9 Getting back on track	0.08	SUP2 Taking notes of the most important events	0.02
GLOB23 Checking understanding	0.07	GLOB3 Referring to the writer's background	0.02
SUP18 Paraphrasing and restating	0.07	GLOB17 Using context clues for understanding	0.02
PSS19 Picturing and visualizing	0.07	GLOB21 Comparing events with real life events	0.01

GLOB6 How content and details		SUP30 Referring to literary knowledge	0.01
Serve the purpose	0.05	GLOB8 Guessing from the title	0
GLOB24 Guessing while reading	0.05	GLOB15 Using pictures if any to guess	0
SUP5 Reading aloud to help understanding	0.04	SUP29 Translating into the native language	0
PSS14 Paying close attention	0.04	SUP26 Making hypothesis	0
GLOB27 Checking hypothesis and guesses	0.04	PSS11 Adjusting the reading speed	0
PSS11 Adjusting the reading speed	0.03	GLOB27 Checking hypothesis and guesses	0
PSS7 Reading slowly and carefully	0.02	GLOB23 Checking understanding	0
SUP2 Taking notes of the most important events	0.02	PSS19 Picturing and visualizing	-0.02
GLOB15 Using pictures if any to guess	0	GLOB24 Guessing while reading	-0.02
SUP29 Translating into the native language	-0.03		
SUP13 Using reference materials	-0.03		

The table demonstrates that the experimental group top five reading strategies with the highest pre and post-test mean gain (difference) are four global strategies and one support strategy. All of these strategies are metacognitive strategies or high order literary reading strategies. Notice in particular the highest mean gain of one of the competent readers of literature strategies, namely: Glob1 “reading with the writer’s purpose in mind”. By Contrast, the control group top five reading strategies with the highest pre and post-test mean gain or mean difference are mainly the support reading strategies. All of these strategies such as SUP13, SUP 5, and SUP 22 are low order reading strategies or bottom-up reading strategies.

On the other hand, the experimental group five strategies with the lowest pre and post-test mean gain or mean difference are mainly the problem solving and the support reading strategies like SUP 13, the use of reference materials and SUP29, translating into the native language. Most of them except GLOB15 belong to low order strategies or bottom-up reading strategies. Quite expectedly, the control group strategies with the lowest pre and post-test mean gain are mainly global reading strategies belonging to high order literary reading strategies like inferencing (GLOB 24, GLOB23, and GLOB27).

These remarks suggest that the task-based materials have improved the experimental group awareness and use of the high order literary reading strategies such as reading to determine the writer's purpose and inferencing by making hypotheses and guesses. Conversely, the control group maintained the low order reading strategies by using bottom-up processing strategies which left them at the linguistic surface of the text. This comes as a natural result to the nature of the literary texts they were exposed to and the lecture-mode of teaching. This point will be pointed out when presenting the read-aloud protocols data

## **6-5 Qualitative Data**

The qualitative data was mainly collected from students' interviews and their read-aloud protocols. While the interviews were meant to complement and elucidate the quantitative data obtained from the RFARLQ, the RAPS yielded data that complement the quantitative data obtained by SORS. In what follows the data obtained from the interviews and then the data obtained from the read-aloud protocols are presented.

### **6-5-1 Students' Interviews**

semi-structured interviews containing predefined questions were used to elicit students' responses and invite them to comment on the findings of the RFARL questionnaire as pointed at by Harrell and Bradley (2009) "semi-structured interviews are often used when the researcher wants to delve deeply into a topic to understand thoroughly the answers provided (p. 27). Students were encouraged to express their attitude about literature and literature reading, the content of the literature course, their responsibilities and that of the teachers', and their plans to acquire more autonomy and competency in reading literature.

Ten students volunteered to take part in the interviews. There were five students from the control group and five experimental group students. The interviews took place at the end of the semester because students were invited to compare their perception of autonomy in reading literature before and after the course. Each volunteer student was interviewed and audio recorded, with his/her consent, separately in an isolated room. The audio recordings were then transcribed by the researcher. The analysis of the ten transcripts yielded a number of theme categories mentioned by the interviewees for each question topic, table 4.26 below presents the different categories of answers for each question topic.

**Table 6-26** *Summary of the Question Topics and the Answers Categories*

Question topics	Categories
Attitude to literature	useful for improving language proficiency. Improve critical thinking. Improve cultural understanding
Requirements for understanding a literary text	know the language and vocabulary Motivation Read between the lines
The role of the teacher in literature classes	Explain everything Give us the theory Guide us
Literature classroom activities	debates and discussions Presentations and group work or pair work activities Reading the literary texts

Attitude to reading now and at the beginning	Teacher's explanations
	I enjoy reading more now, but I still find it challenging Prefer watching movies
	Confident reader but not very I improved a lot Still find it difficult and overwhelming
The content of the literature course	Interesting
	Would like Algerian short stories and contemporary short stories.
	Don't like old and difficult poems and texts.
Plans to improve literature reading	Read more
	Find texts by the same authors we studied in class and read them
	Watch movies and videos in English

### **6-5-1-1 Attitude to literature**

All of the participants in both the experimental and the control group seem to have very positive opinions about literature and assume that it has some advantages in language learning. Given its benefits students in both the experimental and the control group think that the time allocated to literature studying ( 1 hour and a half hour a week) is not enough.

Out of the 10 interviewees, three students in the control group find literature important and useful in developing language skills, two other students think that literature helps them to understand different cultures. Similarly, all of the students in the experimental group express their awareness of the utility of literature in acquiring vocabulary and language skills. Three students think that literature gives them a sense of imagination and helps them develop a way of thinking, in other words, literature can help with personal development. Two others find literature helpful in increasing cultural understanding.

For example an experimental group student states: *“Literature helps you develop a way of thinking and other point of views ... I mean how the others think. Since we have different cultures, people from different cultures perceive things in their ways and literature makes us aware of these different ways of thinking and perceptions”*. The control group students issue answers such as *“Er I think it is very important because when we are reading, we can improve our language skills and our vocabulary”* and *“First of all from studying literature , I gained a lot of new words, I mean vocabulary and especially of old English, and literature is really important and is worth studying because we discover the culture of England and America and their ways of life”*.

In sum, although both the control and the experimental group hold positive attitude towards literature, the experimental group students seem more aware of the potential of literature in enhancing students’ personal development. These answers confirm the quantitative data obtained from the RFARLT questionnaire related to item No.5: “literature can help me improve my personality”. The results of this question indicate that the experimental group post-test increases by 1.10, the control group mean difference decreases by 0.01. (see table 4.3 above).

#### **6-5-1-2Requirements for Reading and Understanding a Literary Text**

In answering the question: What does reading and understanding literature involve? Most of the control group students’ answers were focused on vocabulary and language. Four out of the five control group students gave answers similar to this student’s answer *“The main thing needed to read and understand a literary text is a good understanding of the language and a lot of vocabulary because if we don’t know a lot of vocabulary we will be blocked at the first sentence”*. Only one student out of five placed

motivation to read before language understanding as a requirement for reading, she states: *“To understand a literary text we must love reading and like it if not we will not read even if we have the capacity”*.

Not unlike the control group, most of the experimental group students posit that language and vocabulary are the most important requirements for understanding a literary text; however, two out of the five students placed motivation and desire to read on top of the requirements. Below is a sample answer of an experimental group student:

*“In addition to concentration and knowing the grammar and vocabulary, we need to love the module literature and reading because when you love something, you will be excited to do it and get involved in it and enjoy reading”*

Still two students went deeper in terms of the requirements and state that the most important requirement for reading and understanding a literary text is *“concentration and to be able to understand clearly what message is the author trying to send, second knowing words and knowing grammar...etc”*

Such answers suggest that the experimental group students have acquired appropriate metacognitive awareness of the task of reading literature as the quantitative data of the RFARLT Q (item No.23 to 33) demonstrate

### **6-5-1-3The Role of the Teacher in the Literature Classroom**

Students' answers concerning the role of the teacher in the literature classroom were split between two opinions. The first, the teacher should guide us, and the second one is the teacher should explain everything. The table below shows the frequency of the answers to this question.

**Table 6-27: The Role of the Teacher in the Literature Classroom**

Group	The teacher is a guide		The Teacher explains	
	#	%	#	%
Control	2	40	3	60
Experimental	4	80	1	20

The table shows that the majority of the experimental group students think that the teacher should rather be a guide to them, one of the experimental group interviewee reports: *“It is very easy to study literature by ourselves. The teacher should guide us; he should just give us pieces of advice..... Literature is to be discovered and we should do it ourselves”*. Yet, two students from the same group think that the teacher should explain the message behind the literary texts, one of them argues *“One of the main responsibilities of the teacher is to explain the main message behind the text because we might get it wrong, the teacher has more experience and knowledge than we have”*.

On the other hand, more than half of the interviewees in the control group said that the teacher should explain everything in the literature classroom; some of the opinions were as follows: *“It is a new subject for us, we need the teacher to explain and analyse”*, *“literature in English is totally new, the texts are full of difficult words and meaning that we can’t understand, the teacher should explain every detail”*. Conversely, one student from the control group argues for the opposing opinion: *“We should not depend on the teacher 100%, we should do our research and interact with the teacher to get more information”*.

What comes out from the above opinions is that the majority of the control group students find that they are dependent on the teacher and are inclined to a teacher-centred classroom in literature whereas the experimental group students have to some extent freed themselves from the dependence to the teacher by claiming that the teacher’s role is that of a guide.



Again these answers confirm and support the numerical data obtained from item no.11 of the RFARLTQ which shows an increase in the experimental group post-test mean score and a decrease in the control group post-test mean score. Although the discussions and analysis are coming in the next chapter, as anticipation, it might be argued that the reason behind these opposing opinions is in the content selected of both the control and the experimental group.

#### **6-5-1-4 Attitude to Reading Literature and Students' Reading Ability**

In answering the question related to their attitude to reading and their ability as readers, the experimental group students and the control group students issue different opinions. Table 6-28 below sums up the different opinions.

**Table 6-28:** *The Experimental and the Control Group Attitude to Reading Literature and their Reading Ability*

<b>The Experimental group</b>	<b>The Control group</b>
I am a better reader now.	I can read but I still find it difficult.
I enjoy reading more.	I like reading in English, but sometimes it is frustrating.
I don't understand every word, but I like reading.	I don't like reading, I prefer watching films.
I have become interested in writers we studied.	I know reading is good, but I don't have the habit of reading.
Reading is not really fun like watching TV.	I like reading, I can finish a book in 3 days.
I used to be very slow reader, I become faster.	Reading is time consuming especially in English.
I used to read blindly, now I read between the lines.	I still find literature reading challenging and difficult.

These answers confirm in many ways the data obtained from the RFARLT Q item No.15 to item No. 22 concerning students' metacognitive awareness of self as readers. What is worth noting is the mixed opinions in both groups which is related to the different levels of autonomy in reading literature of each individual student. But, on the whole, the experimental group students seem to have developed more positive opinions about themselves as readers and about the task of reading literature than the control group.

#### **6-5-1-5 Literature Classroom Activities**

Almost all the students interviewed in both the experimental and the control group think that the literature class time should be devoted to discussions and debates which confirm students' answers to item 14 in the RFARLTQ (both group have a mean score of above 4 pre and post-test).

While four out of five experimental group interviewees find that the literature classroom should be devoted to pair work and group work activities, three of the control group interviewees think that the literature classroom should be devoted to teachers' explanation.

Also four out of five interviewees from the experimental group think that part of the class time should be devoted to reading the literary texts whereas only two interviewees from the control group think that reading the literary text should be done in the classroom. In fact, the majority of the control group interviewees, that is four out five think that the classroom time should be devoted to the teacher's explanations. These answers come as a confirmation to the RFARLTQ items No.12 and item No. 13.

In answering the question related to their opinions about the literature tasks, all of the experimental group interviewees give positive feedbacks concerning the pre-reading tasks, the while-reading tasks, and the post-reading tasks. Yet, three out of five interviewees find the tasks time consuming. One of these interviewees states: "*All of the tasks are good and effective, they give you a way of working with the literary texts, but it took me long time to perform all of them, particularly, the post-reading tasks*".

#### **6-5-1-6 The Content of the Literature Course**

All of the participants of the experimental group find the short stories programmed in the course interesting and appealing. They, particularly, approved of the shortness of the

texts which enables them to read them in a significantly short time. In this sense, one of the experimental group students posits: *“All of the short stories are interesting, I liked them all, but I was very much interested by the Happy Prince by Oscar Wilde”*. Another student suggests a more appealing content, she states: *“All of the short stories are interesting, but they are all old. Perhaps, we could have more recent short stories, I mean up to date or even Algerian short stories”*.

Quite the opposite, the control group students find the content of the literature course uninteresting, one of the participants suggests: *“I want to tell all the teachers to give us interesting topics because last semester we studied difficult and old texts, I didn’t like them. Instead, we would like love stories, adventurous stories and detective stories”*.

Another student, however, approved of the choice of the short story of *Eveline* by James Joyce, he asserts: *“I did not like the short stories except Eveline, I find the story of that girl interesting and easy to read”*.

#### **6-5-1-7 Plans for Improving Literature Reading**

Most of the participants in both the experimental and the control group say that they will read more in order to develop their literary reading skills. Few students, however, made the exception and say that they project to watch movies and videos and express their lack of interest in reading and literature. Such opinions reflect individual students’ differences in their readiness for autonomy in reading.

More precisely, two out of five control group students say that they read and they plan to read short stories and novels; a control group student states: *“the only way to develop is by reading more, I already read “Tales of Horror” and I will read other stories”*. The other three control group participants say that they are not keen on reading and that instead of reading; they will watch videos and films in English.

Three interviewees from the experimental group say that they plan to read more, two of them say that they are particularly interested in authors they studied in the classroom. For example, one participant states: *“I liked very much the “Happy Prince” that I found other short stories by Oscar Wilde and read them like “The Giant and the Nightingale”*. On the other hand, two students say that watching podcasts on the internet in

and English movies are the best way to improve all their English language skills including reading.

In conclusion, students' semi-structured interviews confirm and explain the data obtained from the RFARLTQ in what concern the difference between the control group and the experimental group in terms of their perception of the role of the teacher and their role in the literature classroom, their attitude to reading, and their plans to develop their literary reading skills. It was clear from the participants' answers that the content of the literature course influenced students' attitude about reading literature and their plans on developing literary reading skills. Also students' opinion concerning their ability to read independently was influenced by the task-based teaching approach, which made the experiment group participants more independent from their teachers in reading and understanding literary texts. Nevertheless, some of the control group participants show higher degree of readiness for autonomy in reading literary texts than some of the experimental group participants. This can be explained by students' individual differences rather by the effect of their respective courses.

#### **6-6 Students' Read Aloud Protocols**

Think-aloud protocols were employed in this study as a tool to investigate the learners' literary reading strategies when they read a literary text in English. The data obtained from this instrument should provide more in-depth information on how learners use such strategies during the EFL literary reading process, and whether strategy use was affected by the task-based designed materials. Such data add to the evidence from SORS adapted to literature. The qualitative data obtained from the think-aloud protocols were triangulated with the SORS data results to determine the extent to which the qualitative data from the protocols are supported by the quantitative data from SORS adapted to literature.

This section reports the results obtained from the analysis of the RAPs transcripts of the six participants from both the experimental and the control group. To analyse the results, the six transcripts were analysed and coded in relation to 20 categories of strategies adapted from the literature and from SORS. In addition, strategies used by the students but not accounted for in SORSAL were recorded.

On reviewing the RAPs and their transcripts, the researcher was able to identify a number of reading strategies belonging to the three different categories of SORS adapted to literary texts (global, support, and problem solving). In addition to three strategies used by the students but not listed in SORS. These strategies were grouped into the following broad categories:

- 1 reading the title and the name of the author
- 2 predicting or guessing what the story is about from the title
- 3 take an overall view about the story to determine what it is about
- 4 use pictures to increase understanding
- 5 use context clues to clarify meaning and understand ambiguities
- 6 use prior knowledge
- 7 check my understanding when I come across new events or information
- 8 making hypotheses and guesses
- 9 reading aloud for understanding
- 10 using reference materials like glossaries and dictionaries
- 11 paraphrasing or restating the ideas in my own words
- 12 reading back and forth in the text
- 13 translate words , phrases ,and sentences
- 14 asking questions (self questioning)
- 15 making inferences and drawing conclusions
- 16 reading slowly and carefully
- 17 Adjusting the reading speed to the text
- 18 Summarizing and evaluating understanding
- 19 Rereading the story for better understanding

Table 6-29 below presents the results obtained from the analysis of the RAPs.

**Table 6-29:** *Think-Aloud Data Obtained from the Experimental and the Control Group*

Group and students  Strategy	Experimental group			Control group		
	Student 1	Student2	Student3	student 4	Student5	Student6
1)Reading the title and the author's name	1	1	1	1	1	1

2) predicting from the title	1	1	1	1	0	1
3) asking the question what it is all about	1	0	0	0	0	0
4)taking an overall view about the story	0	1	1	0	0	0
5)using pictures to increase understanding	2	1	2	2	1	2
6)use context clues to clarify meaning	4	3	2	1	0	0
7) use prior knowledge	3	2	2	0	1	1
8)Check understanding	5	4	3	3	2	2
9)making hypotheses and guesses	4	3	2	1	0	0
10) check hypotheses and guesses and reformulate new ones	3	3	2	1	0	0
11) use of reference materials	2	2	2	2	3	3
12) paraphrasing or restating the ideas in my own words	1	1	0	0	0	1
13)reading back and forth	3	3	3	3	2	2
14) translate words ,phrases ,and sentences	4	4	5	8	5	5
15) asking questions (self questioning)	3	3	2	2	2	1
16) making inferences and drawing conclusions	4	3	2	1	1	1

17) reading slowly and carefully	5	5	5	5	5	5
18) Adjusting the reading speed to the text	3	3	3	3	2	1
19) Summarizing and evaluating understanding	1	1	1	1	1	0
20) Rereading the story for better understanding	1	1	1	0	1	1

From the table it appears that while the Experimental group participants and the Control group participants vary in the frequency of use of certain strategies, they are equal in using other strategies. For example, all participants in both groups start by reading the title and the author's name. Also, all the participants are equal in the use of pictures to increase understanding. Another equally used strategy by all the participants is re-reading the story to increase understanding. The most frequently used strategies in both groups are strategy No.17: "reading slowly and carefully" (all the participants use it five times during the reading of the story) and strategy No.14: "translating words, phrases, and sentences" with the control group surpassing the experimental group in the frequency of use of this strategy. The Control group participants also use more frequently than the Experimental group reference materials. However, it must be noticed that these strategies belong to the bottom-up strategies or the low order reading strategies. This suggests that the Control group participants are stuck at the text surface or the literal meaning of the story by using the low order or the bottom-up reading strategies more often than the Experimental group.

On the other hand, the most frequently used strategies by participants in the Experimental group are the high order literary reading strategies or the top-down reading strategies. Thus, checking understanding, asking questions (self-questioning), using context clues to clarify meaning, using prior knowledge, making hypotheses and guesses, checking hypotheses and reformulating new ones, and making inferences and drawing new ones are the most frequently used strategies by the Experimental group. This implies that the Experimental group students use high order literary reading strategies more often than

the experimental group which confirms the quantitative results obtained from SORS adapted to literary texts.

Table 6-30 below shows concrete examples taken from the RAPs transcripts (appendix L) of the use of some reading strategies by participants in the Experimental group.

**Table 6-30: Examples of the Most Frequent Strategies Used by the Experimental Group**

<b>Strategy</b>	<b>Examples</b>	<b>Average frequency of use</b>
8)check understanding	So the wife didn't believe that there is a unicorn in the garden	<b>4</b>
14)translate words, phrases and sentences	Strait-jacket is <i>la camisole</i> in French A solemn signal <i>un signal solennel</i> in French, I think Subdue her <i>la tranquilliser</i> in French	<b>4</b>
6) use context clues to clarify meaning	Cropping, I don't know this word but from the sentence I understand it is eating	<b>3</b>
12) reading back and forth	As there are many difficult words, I can't understand this part, so I'm going to read again "Once upon a sunny morning.....the unicorn is a mythical beast"	<b>3</b>
9) making hypotheses and guesses	At the beginning she didn't believe her husband, but after she was excited to see the unicorn. The police and the psychiatrist thought that the wife was crazy	<b>3</b>
10)making inferences and drawing conclusions	His garden seem very nice, there are roses and lilies and many flowers	<b>3</b>
7) use prior Knowledge	Strait-jacket is the clothes for ill mentally	<b>2</b>
10) check hypotheses	"she telephoned the police and the psychiatrist" Ah laugh, so she didn't believe him at all!	<b>2</b>
15) asking questions, self questioning	Nook? What is breakfast nook?, gloat? What is gloat? The dialogues are very short, I cannot understand very well	<b>2</b>



11) use reference materials	The word booby blocks me so I have to find the meaning in the glossary	2
12) summarizing and evaluating understanding	Laugh. At the beginning it seemed an imaginary or a fairy tale, but then I understand that there is a problem in this couple. The husband was not happy with his wife so he created so he created a bizzar story to get rid of her	1
19) re-reading the story	I need to read the story again to clarify some points	1

The examples show that the student use a range of high-order reading strategies pertaining to literature reading like inferring meaning from context and making hypotheses, checking them, and reformulating new ones. Also, in spite of the student's limited vocabulary, she didn't stick at the bottom-up processing level by using too much reference materials, and she was able to get the point of the story or the fable by using the top-down processing and referring to her background knowledge.

Instances from the Control group most frequent used strategies are in table 6-31.

**Table 6-31:** *Examples of the Most Frequent Strategies Used by the Control Group*

The strategy	Example	Frequency of use
14) translate words and phrases	Scrambled eggs	6
11)use of reference materials	Browsing among the tulips, let me google it Booby is dumb , hatch	4
8)check understanding	The first paragraph translation in Arabic I understand that a man saw a unicorn in the garden so he went to inform his wife but she didn't believe him and insulted him	3
13) reading back and forth	I read again because I didn't understand: " the man walked slowly into the garden....."	2
15) asking	Why did she call the police and the psychiatrist?	2

questions, self-questioning	Who is psycho? The man or his wife?	
2)Predicting from the title	The story is about a mythical beast: the unicorn in the garden (Arabic)	1
6) use context clues to clarify meaning	Booby, I think it is an insult	1
19) summarizing and evaluating understanding	Laugh, I need an end, the man laid. Let me make a summary. This is a legend it is about a monster. I am confused, I didn't understand the story is strange.(French) <i>J'ai pas compris the wife était malade ou je ne sais pas</i> , there is something wrong in the story that I couldn't understand	1
20)re-reading the story	I need to read the story again to understand better	1

From the examples of the Control Group participants, it appears that the students could not understand the story or missed the point of the story. The reason may not only be due to their limited knowledge of the language and vocabulary, but also to their overreliance on bottom-up reading strategies at the expense of top-down strategies or the high order literature reading strategies. The fact that has prevented these students from seeing the whole picture of the story and missing the point and the enjoyment. To overcome their confusion and lack of understanding, which they felt at the end of reading, these students decide to re-read the story again thinking that their confusion stems from the literal meaning of the text.

In sum, the outcome of the RAPs comes to confirm the quantitative data obtained from SORS adapted to literary texts. Both the qualitative data and the quantitative ones show that the Experimental group has better metacognitive awareness of strategy use when reading literary texts than the Control Group. Such results can be interpreted as a cue of the effect of the task-based designed materials introduced to the experimental group.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter presented the quantitative data obtained from the LC pre and post-tests, the RFARLT questionnaire, and SORS adapted to literary texts. Then, it moved to the qualitative data yielded by the semi-structured interviews and the read aloud protocols. The qualitative data confirmed the results of the quantitative data regarding the effect of the task-based designed literary materials on students' readiness for autonomy in reading literary texts, and their awareness and use of metacognitive and cognitive literary reading strategies. However, the following chapter provides further analysis and discusses the data obtained.

## **Chapter Seven**

### **Data Analysis, Discussions and Implications**

## **Chapter Seven**

### **Data Analysis, Discussions and Implications**

#### **Introduction**

This chapter starts by giving a summary of this study. Next, it analyses and discusses the results by providing answers to the three directional hypotheses and the main research question. It then moves to present some implications of the study and recommendations for further research.

#### **7-1 Summary of the study**

The purpose of this study was to investigate whether the use of task-based designed materials in the literature course with first-year students would result in greater autonomy in reading literary texts as compared to first-year students who were not exposed to the task-based materials.

After dissecting the concept of autonomy in reading literary texts, three hypotheses were formulated. The first hypothesis addressed the effect of introducing the task-based materials on achieving greater literary competence by first-year students than those who were not introduced to the materials. The second hypothesis addressed the effect of the task-based materials on first-year students' readiness for autonomy in reading literary texts, put differently on their willingness to take control of literary reading. The third and last hypothesis concerned the relationship between implementing task-based materials and students' awareness and use of metacognitive and cognitive literary reading strategies.

To test these three hypotheses, quantitative and qualitative data were collected from forty Algerian first-year LMD major of English students. The study was conducted with two groups, an experimental group and a control group, each of them contained 20 participants. Random sampling was not possible since students were already assigned to different pedagogical groups according to administrative conveniences. Due to the non-random nature of the participants' selection, the design of the study was quasi-experimental, with two levels of variables-independent and dependent. The independent variable was the use of task-based designed materials in the literature classroom with first-year students. The dependent autonomy in reading literary texts which was conceived in

three variables : a) literary competence achievement, b) readiness for autonomy to read literary texts, and c) awareness and use of metacognitive and cognitive reading literary texts strategies. The experiment tested whether the independent variable would cause changes in the dependent variables, whether the use of task-based designed materials would improve first-year students' autonomy in reading literary texts by improving L.C achievement, their readiness for autonomy to read literary texts, and their awareness and use.

## **7-2 Hypothesis 1**

The descriptive statistics of the t test conducted on the experimental group pre and post-LC test results scores reveal that the experimental group post LC scores have significantly improved compared to their LC pre-test scores, the mean difference score was 3.60 with a S.D of error=0.26 (see table 3.1). Similarly, the control group L.C post test scores have improved significantly according to the t-test conducted on the pre and post results by a mean difference of 2.06, S.D of error=0.12. However, the independent sample t test directed on the pre and post L.C mean gains of the two groups shows a score of 5.44 and a  $p < \alpha = 0.05$ . These statistical descriptions led to the acceptance of the first research hypothesis and the rejection of the null hypothesis.

In other words, the results suggest that there is a significant relationship between the use of task-based designed materials in the literature course and higher achievement of L.C for first-year students introduced to the materials compared to those who were not introduced to the materials.

These results can be accounted for by the type of literary skills training that the experimental group received via the task-based materials. By contrast to the control group, the experimental group performed many while-reading tasks which makes them more aware of language use for literary purposes and enhances their ability to infer meaning from context. Also, the while-reading tasks related to filling in plot chart and characters grids which the experimental group students performed with each literary text (short story) introduced (see appendix C) make them more sensitive to the “literary conventions” by which a short story is written (Culler, 1975). In other words, the tasks of filling in characters' charts and plot diagrams have better raised the experimental group students awareness of the elements of fiction: plot, characters profile, themes and conflicts.

In addition, the reading logs and the post reading tasks were a kind of training to experimental group students on two main components of LC, namely raising a response to literature and literary production. First, by answering the reading logs questions while reading each short story in the programme, students were systematically trained on raising a response to literature by “empathising, analysing and searching for self-identity” (Thomson, 1978) (see examples of students’ reading logs in appendix O). Second, the performance of some of the post-reading tasks was a kind of training on literary creativity, which is considered an important component of LC (Zyngier et al, 2007).

What should be noted, however, is that the control group students did improve their L.C achievement test score though they did not receive appropriate training on each component of L.C. measured by the test. The reasons behind this improvement may be due to students possessing already autonomy in reading literature which is revealed in some students’ high achievement score in both the pre-test and the post-test (see Appendix G). The high achievers scored between 10.5 and 12 in the pre test and between 12 and 15 in the post-test.

Another reason is related to the nature of L.C. The latter, according to Lazar (1993) may be picked-up even if it is not one of the objectives of the course. Therefore, the control group students could achieve a degree in LC in spite of not receiving systematic training on LC components like their counterpart in the experimental group. These results come to support the suggestion that highlighting the key literary skills and train students in their use may lead to better LC achievement results.

### **7-3 Hypothesis 2**

The data obtained from the RFARLTQ and the statistical indicators led to the rejection of the second hypothesis. In other words, the hypothesis stating that the use of task-based designed materials in the literature course will result in a higher level of readiness for autonomy in reading literature for first-year students as compared to those who were not introduced to the task-based materials was rejected and the null hypothesis was accepted.

In fact, the data demonstrate that out of the 33 items which the RFARLT questionnaire is made up of, only 12 items have demonstrated statistical significant difference between the experimental and the control group. With 21 items in the

questionnaire having no statistical significant differences between the experimental and the control group, it can be argued that, on the whole, the introduction of T.B materials did not have a great effect on first-year students' readiness for autonomy in reading literature.

As described in chapter two, the questionnaire is made up of a set of statements related to students' attitudes about literature and reading literary texts, the degree to which they desire and accept responsibility in the literature classroom, their metacognitive knowledge of themselves as readers of literature, and their metacognitive knowledge of the task of reading. The scales of each part demonstrate that the experimental group students and the control group students' readiness for autonomy in reading literature improved in the post-experiment compared with the pre-experiment.

For example, as far as students' attitudes to literature are concerned, the numerical data that appear on table 6-4 and 6-5 suggest that students of both groups have at the outset positive attitude to literature and its role in improving language proficiency, vocabulary, and improving cultural understanding. Most of the mean scores are above 3.55 corresponding to agree. The positive attitude to literature is maintained after the experiment according to figure 6.1 and figure 6.2 which both display an increase in the post-test means. These results are further confirmed by the qualitative data obtained from the interviews. Most of the students (experiment and control group) issue positive opinions about literature and its role in language learning.

These results come to support previous research findings about Algerian students' attitudes to literature. For instance, Fehaima (2017) after interviewing sixty-three students at the University of Tlemcen found that the participants held positive attitude towards literary texts and liked reading about people and experiences different from their own. Similarly, Belal and Ouahmiche (2020) found that contrary to the accepted prejudice about Algerian students, who were thought to have little interest in literature, their L.C questionnaire revealed that Algerian students held positive attitude towards literature and some of them do actually read quite a good deal in their L1 (Arabic) and their L2 (French).

Nevertheless, the attitude to literature pre and post-test mean gains scales (table 6-6) show that there is statistical significant difference in two items. These are item No. 2 and item No. 5. This difference can be inferred as a result of the positive effect that the task-based materials had on students' perception of literature in improving language



proficiency (item No. 2) and on its potential in developing personality. While the mean scores of these two items decrease post-experiment for the control group, the experimental group mean scores for the same items increase post-experiment.

Because students in the experimental group had the opportunity to perform tasks such as the reading logs which invite them to spell out personal opinions (see the reading logs task questions in appendix c), they become more aware of the literary texts potential in developing personality. The control group could not realise such potential of literature (neutral opinion) since they were only exposed to the teacher's and critics' opinions. In the same way the relatively accessible literary texts and their related tasks such as the (cloze activities, re-writing tasks) enabled the experimental group students to enhance their awareness of the potential of literature in developing their language ability. The control group, on the other hand, maintain their neutral opinion concerning the possibility of literature in developing their language proficiency.

Not unlike the seven items related to students' attitude to literature, the second part of the RFARLTQ, acceptance and desire for responsibility in literature classes, items 8 to 14, reveal that students' acceptance and desire for responsibility in literature is indifferent across the two groups. On the whole, both groups agree with the fact that literature involves a lot of self-study (item No.8) and participation (item No. 14). However, they are both neutral concerning making decisions about the selection of literary texts and when and where to study. They are also neutral concerning their ability to understand a literary text on their own.

The statistically significant difference between the two groups in item No.11: "I think the teacher should explain everything", and item No. 13: "I think the teacher should give us time to read in the classroom and understand on our own" implies that the two groups have changed their perceptions of the role of the teacher in the literature classroom. Difficult literary texts and the lecture mode of teaching have maintained the control group students' dependence on the teacher's explanations. The experimental group, on the other hand, have been relatively able to free themselves from their dependence on the teacher.

Undoubtedly, the task-based materials have a great role in the experimental group change of the teacher and the students' roles in the classroom. The relatively accessible texts with the clear and explicit directions provided by the tasks to perform enable the students to realize that they do not depend on the teacher to explain everything. Also they

become more aware of the importance of reading and interacting with the literary text themselves (item 11) before any intervention from the teacher. This change of perception of the role of the teacher is supported by the semi-structured interviews. More students from the experimental group than the control group issue opinions relevant to students' independence from the teacher and their ability to read on their own (see table 6-28 above). Yet, some control group students display great independence from the teacher's assumed role in explaining everything, which might be due to their individual predisposition for autonomy in reading literary texts.

The third aspect of readiness for autonomy that the questionnaire investigates is students' metacognitive knowledge of self as reader. In terms of general trends, it appears that both the control group and the experimental group students do not hold negative or impeding perceptions of themselves as readers both before and at the end of the experiment. While they disagree with considering themselves as confident readers before and after the experiment, they do not think of themselves as slow readers. The main significant differences between the experimental and the control group are in item No. 17 and item No. 19. As far as item No.17 is concerned, the mean increase post-experiment for the experimental group shows that the experimental group students become more aware of their ability to guess the meaning from context. This may be accounted for by their performance of the pre-reading tasks which encourage students to predict and guess the content of the text. Due to this increased ability of guessing the meaning from context, language difficulty item No.19 is not considered as an obstacle in reading and understanding a literary text, which is the opposite view of the control group students.

The fourth and the last part of the questionnaire is related to the metacognitive knowledge of the task of reading literature. Unlike the preceding parts of the RFARLTQ, the difference between the two groups is significant in many items of this part. This remark necessarily leads to the conclusion that the use of task-based designed materials has influenced the experimental group perception of the task of reading literature positively.

In general, both groups hold positive perceptions about the task of reading literature. All of the positive and relevant perceptions improved post-experiment like item No. 29, item No. 31, item No. 32 and item No.33 for both the experimental and the control group. These results are confirmed by the qualitative data from the interviews in which the

experimental group students notably express their willingness to read more to improve their literary reading.

However, the difference between the two groups appears on the irrelevant and negative perceptions of the task of literature reading. These are item No.24, and item No. 26 and the opposite statements which are item No. 25, and item No.27. The control group keep the same perceptions of literary reading as difficult and unclear because of the complexity and the ambiguities it contained (increase in mean scores of item No. 24 and No.26); as a result, they could not become aware of the fun and challenging side of reading literary texts (the decrease in the mean score of item No.25 and item No.27). The experimental group, on the other hand, become more aware of the challenging and the amusing side of literary reading (the increase of the post-experiment mean score of each of item No.25 and item No.27). In other words, the experimental group students become more aware of the complexity and the challenging aspect of literary reading just like competent readers are reported to realize (Corcoran & Evans, 1987 as cited in Hall, 2000, p.108).

This difference between the two groups in their metacognitive knowledge of the task of reading literature is mainly due to the different types of literary texts that the experimental group and the control group read during their respective literature courses. It can also be due to the task-based materials which were a kind of step by step training into processing and interacting with literary texts.

To conclude, the second hypothesis is rejected in the absence of statistically significant difference between the experimental and the control group in the majority of the items of the RFARLTQ. The reason behind such results is mainly due to Algerian students' relatively high level of readiness for autonomy before the experiment as gauged by the present study and supported by former studies. The TB materials have only partially affected students' readiness for autonomy in reading literary texts since it was already positive before the experiment, and it gets better for both groups post-experiment.

Nevertheless, the presence of statistically significant difference between the two groups in 12 items in addition to the results of the interviews suggest that the task-based designed materials have to certain extent positively affected the experimental group readiness for autonomy in reading literary texts in various aspects.

### 7-4 Hypothesis 3

The statistical indicators obtained from SORSAL results analysis lead to reject hypothesis 3. Indeed, the overall literary reading strategies means comparison between the two groups suggest that there is no statistical significant difference in the pre and post-test mean gains between the experimental and the control group. Put in another way, the use of task-based designed materials has not resulted in better awareness and use of the metacognitive and cognitive literary reading strategies.

In addition to the overall reading strategies, the support reading strategies and the problem solving strategies display an absence of statistical significant difference between the experimental group and the control group.

The exception is for the global reading strategies on which a statistical significant difference between the two groups is to be noted. That is the experimental group global literary reading strategies are significantly different from the control group global reading strategies.

The reasons behind such results are to be found in the nature of each strategy in the scales and the influence of the literature teaching content on the strategies acquired. First, most of the global reading strategies are related to metacognitive, high-order literary reading strategies such as item No.1: “I read with the writer’s purpose in mind” and item No.8: “before reading, I guess what the story is about”. The experimental group students were trained on the use of these strategies by performing pre-reading tasks such as predictions tasks and information exchange activities about the author and his era (see appendix C). In addition, the while –reading tasks were a kind of training on high-order strategies such as comparing events and characters in the texts with real-life events item No.21, and item No.23, check hypothesis and guesses. Such training on the use of reading strategies was absent in the control group programme. As a result, the experimental group global reading strategies improved significantly better than the experimental group. A fact that is supported not only by the t test which gives a  $p=0.019$  smaller than  $\alpha$  but also by the read aloud protocols results. The latter demonstrate that there are more instances of global reading strategies use in the experimental group protocols than the control group protocols (see table 6-30 and table 6-31)

Similarly, the statistical insignificant difference in each of the PSS and the support reading strategies scales is also due to the nature of these two scales. Most of the strategies in these two scales are low-order strategies or bottom-up strategies which foreign language readers use to lift up ambiguities caused by language or meaning, they include reading aloud and using reference materials. Both the experimental group and the control group improve their awareness and use of these strategies in the post-test, but the pre and post-test difference within the same group and across the two groups is statistically insignificant. Nevertheless, the RAPs of students from the control group demonstrate that they tend to use support and problem solving strategies such as re-reading, translating into the native language more often than the experimental group do.

Indeed, in spite of the statistical insignificant difference, table 6-25 shows the difference between the control group and the experimental group concerning the most and least improved reading strategies post-experiment. The top-five strategies improved by the experimental group are mainly the global reading strategies whereas the top-five improved strategies by the control group are mainly support reading strategies. These numerical data are supported by the qualitative data from students' RAPs.

The reason behind such difference is mainly due to the type of the literature content each group was exposed to. The complexity of the literary texts that the control group had to read maintains them at the surface linguistic level of the literary texts. Therefore, they call for support strategies and PSS to help them clarify the linguistic ambiguity. As they did not have many opportunities to dive into the literary meaning of the text, they maintain the use of bottom-up strategies (support and problem solving strategies) at the expense of global reading strategies (high-order literary reading strategies). In fact, the control group students were not asked to explore the literary meaning of the text by interacting with it since the teacher took in charge the explanation of this literary meaning.

Conversely, the experimental group students raised more awareness of the high-order literary reading strategies (global-reading strategies) because they had enough opportunities to exercise these strategies. Tasks such as the reading logs questions and the while-reading activities enabled the students to interact personally with the literary text and call for their schemata (background knowledge) to find the literary meaning themselves.

In summary, the rejection of hypothesis 3 due to the absence of statistical significant difference between the experimental and the control group in the overall

awareness and use of literary reading strategies does not necessarily imply that the task-based materials had absolutely no effect on students' awareness of literary reading strategies use. The main differences between the two groups in the type of strategies improved use post-experiment should be maintained as an evidence of the effect of the task-based materials on students' awareness and use of high-order or metacognitive literary reading strategies. Put differently, the task-based designed materials had resulted in better awareness and use of metacognitive or high-order literary reading strategies for the experimental group.

### **7-5 The Main Research Question**

Is there a significant relationship between the use of task-based designed materials in the literature course and first-year students' development of autonomy in reading literary text?

This research question was investigated at the three levels through which autonomy in reading literary texts is assumed to be manifested. While the first directional hypothesis was accepted, the second and the third directional hypotheses were rejected. Nevertheless, it can be noted from the differences between the two groups that the use of task-based designed materials in the literature course has had a positive effect on first-year students' development of autonomy in reading literary texts.

First, the statistical indicators as well as the scores achieved by both the experimental and the control groups pre and post-test suggest that the use of task-based materials with the experimental group students has resulted in better LC achievement by the experimental group than the control group. Put differently, the use of task-based materials has made first-year students better than their peers in identifying the literary conventions and in raising a response to literature as well as in language awareness and literary production. Such achievement comes as a result of these students' systematic training on these skills via the performance of tasks.

Second, overall the data obtained from the RFARLTQ lead to the rejection of the second directional hypothesis. Put in another way, the use of the task-based materials has not resulted in greater level of readiness for autonomy in reading literature for first-year students. Such results are due to the relatively high level of readiness for autonomy that

both the experimental and the control group had prior to the experiment, which only insignificantly improved post-experiment.

However, the statistical significant differences between the two groups in twelve items suggest that the TB materials have somehow affected students' readiness for autonomy. In effect the task-based materials have affected significantly students' beliefs about the role of literature in enhancing personal development and language proficiency. Undoubtedly, such beliefs are likely to launch students in lifelong desire for reading or to develop in them autonomy in reading literature for personal development and language proficiency which are both lifelong endeavours.

Moreover, the task-based materials have to some extent influenced positively students' acceptance and desire for responsibility in literature by changing their perception of the role and the responsibility of the teacher in the literature classroom. Contrary to the control group, the experimental group students have realized in the post- experiment phase that they do not depend on the teacher to explain everything. The carefully selected texts and their companion designed tasks allow them to perceive that they can do the task (the reading and the analysis) themselves with little intervention from the teacher. Certainly, perceiving the ability to be independent from the teacher can be considered as a large first step in achieving greater autonomy in reading literature.

In addition, though the materials have not affected much their perception of themselves as readers of literature which are in many ways similar to those of the control group, they have significantly impacted their perception of the task of reading literature (metacognitive knowledge of the task of reading). For example, like competent readers of literature, the experimental group students could at the end of the experiment perceive the ambiguity and the difficulty of literary language as the challenging and the fun side of literary reading.

In brief, students' readiness for autonomy in reading literary texts has been affected by the task-based designed materials in many ways though not totally.

The third level through which autonomy in reading literary texts was investigated is awareness and use of metacognitive and cognitive literary reading strategies. Although, the overall reading strategies mean gains comparison between the control and the experimental group leads to the rejection of the third research hypotheses, the difference between the

two groups in the type of strategies improved suggests that the task-based-designed materials have an effect on this third level of autonomy. In other words, the difference between the two groups in the type of strategies improved most and least post-test as well as the RAPs analysis suggest that the task-based materials have an effect students' development of this aspect.

As a matter of fact, the experimental group students have significantly improved their awareness and use of the global-reading strategies i.e., the high-order literary reading strategies such as reading to find the writer's purpose or point and constantly making inferences or hypotheses and guesses. Thanks to the improved use of the global reading strategies as demonstrated in table 6-24 and 6-25, the experimental group students become less dependent on the PSS and the support reading strategies which are related to bottom-up processes. Put in another way, the task-based materials has affected significantly students' awareness and use of the metacognitive reading literary texts strategies. These are for many researchers (Vipond & Hunt, 1984; Goh, 1991; Zwaan, 1993) the strategies used by efficient or competent readers of literature.

All in all, there is a positive relationship between the use of task-based designed materials and students' development of autonomy in reading literary texts. This improvement is revealed at three levels. First, at the competency and the skills level, the use of TB designed materials has resulted in better LC achievement scores by the experimental group than the control group. Second, at the affective or the "willingness" level, the results of the RFARLTQ and the semi-structured interviews show that students in both groups had high level of readiness for autonomy in reading literature before the experiment. This was influenced positively by the task-based materials in many ways for the experimental group who change positively their perception of their role in the literature classroom and their MKTRL. Third, at the cognitive and the metacognitive level, the task-based materials have led to greater awareness and use of the global or the metacognitive reading literary texts strategies.

## **7-6 Implications of the Study**

The results of this study have several pedagogical implications for the teaching of literature in Algerian universities. The positive effect of implementing the task-based materials on students' improvement of autonomy in reading literature is a proof that first-year students are responsive to a pedagogy that involves them in the process of learning



and reading. Indeed, as suggested by the results of the study, the materials have affected students' autonomy at three levels: First, the skills and competencies (LC achievement test), second, the affective level (the willingness or the readiness for autonomy), and third, the metacognitive and cognitive level.

The effect of these materials was perceived, most notably at the first level, the competencies and skills. The experimental group significant improvement in the LC post-test scores in comparison with the control group achievement scores suggests that an appropriate training on the different components of literary skills and competencies is likely to better influence students' attainment of LC.

Nevertheless, the control group relative improvement in the post LC achievement test and both groups average achievement in the pre-test indicate that Algerian first-year students are not devoid of a minimum level of LC. However, for better LC achievement, teachers and course designers need to pinpoint, at the outset of the course, the different LC skills and sub-skills that the course aims to achieve.

Autonomy in literary reading is also manifested in the affective dimension, i.e., the willingness or the readiness for autonomy. The insignificant statistical difference between the two groups concerning readiness for autonomy in reading literary texts and the positive attitudes that both groups hold towards literature suggest that first-year students are aware of the importance of studying literature as a subject. These findings are confirmed by students' interviews as well as findings from previous research (Belal & Ouahmiche, 2020; Fehaima, 2017; Kheladi, 2013). In addition, both the control and the experimental groups seem to realize the necessity and the importance of their involvement and responsibility in reading and understanding literature. In fact, these results run counter the prevailing prejudice about the lack of interest that Algerian students have for literature as a subject (Miliani, 1994).

Most importantly, these findings suggest that students' positive attitude to literature need to be invested on and to be taken as an asset to further develop students' interest in literature and build on them a lifelong interest in reading. This aim can be achieved only if the course designers and the teachers put students' interest and abilities at the centre during the selection of the literature course content. In other words, the content should be selected in accordance with students' linguistic ability, reading skills and their areas of interest. These are the same views and opinions echoed by the interviewees from both groups.

Furthermore, the results from the RAFRLTQ indicate that providing clear guidelines and instructions via the task-based materials is likely to promote students' independence from the teacher and, therefore, to promote greater autonomy in reading. The main message of these results to teachers of literature and course designers is to find ways or teaching techniques for involving the students in reading and making their literary understanding rather than explaining everything.

Moreover, the results of the RFARLTQ suggest that the provision of adequate texts and materials is susceptible of changing students' negative or inappropriate perceptions of the task of reading literature into positive and more appropriate ones. This, in turn, can lead the students to take the initiative and select their own literature reading texts, which is a large step towards autonomy in reading literature.

Autonomy in reading literature is also perceived at a third level, namely awareness and use of cognitive and metacognitive literary reading strategies. For many researchers (Wenden, 1987; Sinclair & Ellis, 1989), the appropriate and efficient use of strategies is equated with learner autonomy. In the field of research on reading, many researchers (Carrell, 1989 and Zhang, 2000) suggest that a good handling of the metacognitive strategies is behind any effective reading. Following this frame of thought, the present study demonstrates that the implementation of the task-based materials has resulted in better awareness and use of metacognitive literary reading strategies or the high-order literary reading strategies. This is revealed in the statistical significant difference between the control group global reading strategies and the experimental group global reading strategies as well as in students' RAPs.

Indeed, the task-based materials implemented to the experimental group can be considered as a learning-training programme, which many researchers advocate for the promotion of learner autonomy. For example, the pre-reading tasks are trainings on the use of the metacognitive strategy of reading with the purpose of determining the writer's message or aim. The while-reading tasks and the reading logs could be considered as trainings on the use of the metacognitive strategy of control or monitoring the reading process.

The improved awareness and use of these strategies by the experimental group as demonstrated by the statistical indicators and the read aloud protocols, came to reinforce the assumed efficiency of learning-training programmes in general and the importance of

such programmes in teaching literature. As the reading of literature is considered, by excellence, a strategic reading task ( according to Zwaan (1993) competent readers of literature call for metacognitive, high-order reading strategies and are involved in elaborate inferencing from the beginning), a systematic training on the use of these strategies becomes a must for any literature teaching programme. Developing in students the autonomy in reading literature involves necessarily equipping them with appropriate and efficient literary reading strategies. Instead of teaching the content of a literary text and its literary interpretations, teachers or instructors should focus on the reading strategies that allow readers to come to one literary interpretation or another. Literary reading strategies such as getting or understanding the point of the writer, reading between the lines by making inferences, comparing the literary text to real life events or other literary texts are crucial for independent autonomous reading of literature. Acquiring these strategies will enable the students to use them when reading different literary texts, which certainly contributes to build in them greater confidence and independence from the teacher. Therefore, course designers and teachers need to highlight these strategies and find appropriate teaching techniques for instructing them simultaneously with the literary content as in the task-based materials.

Finally, if autonomy in literature reading is conceptualised as the interplay between three levels (the skills and competency level, the affective or readiness level and the metacognitive and cognitive level), it can be argued that the three levels are in circular process, one leading to the other. In other words, the high level of readiness for autonomy leads to greater awareness of the cognitive and the metacognitive level. The latter, in turn, leads to greater achievement in the skills and the competency level. Thus, the three levels need to be taken into account when designing literature courses for EFL students at the tertiary levels. Certainly, such courses cannot be programmed in the present Algerian EFL curriculum due to the limited time allocated to the teaching of literature. Therefore, the main recommendation for decision makers in the central administration is to reconsider seriously the teaching time allocated for literature in the EFL curriculum. For as noted by the majority of the interviewees, half and one hour a we are definitely not enough for teaching such an important module. Definitely, literature should be given much more importance and teaching time for its potential in developing students' language proficiency, developing their critical thinking, reading skills, and cultural understanding

## **7-7 Recommendations for Further Research**

Based on the framework and the results of this study, further research to provide more insights are recommended in what follows:

First, the limitations of this study are related to the small sample on which the study was conducted and the limited length of time of the study. A ten-week of instruction may not be long enough for significant rates of improvement. Therefore, conducting a similar study on a larger sample and in longer time of instruction is likely to provide more significant results in terms of literary reading autonomy.

Second, the task-based approach is only one among other learner-centred approaches that can be used in teaching literature. Similar studies could be conducted on the effect of other learner-centred approaches or learning-training programmes for autonomy promotion in literature reading such as the strategy instruction programmes advocated by O'Malley & Chamot (1997). Another study could be conducted on the relationship between greater autonomy in reading literature and achievement of high level of overall language learning autonomy.

Furthermore, the task-based materials provided satisfying results with first-year students because the materials were designed in accordance with first-year student' abilities and literary skills needs. The materials could be adapted to more advanced levels such as second-year, third-year students, or even master students. This can be done in a large scale study in which students' needs analysis can be carried out to determine their needs in terms of literary competence and literary reading skills and strategies.

Last but not least, for the sake of investigating students' autonomy in literary reading, the present research study explored three different constructs: literary competence, readiness for autonomy and literary reading, and literary reading strategies. Each of these constructs could be investigated in one specific individual large-scale study by adapting and extending the research tools.

In sum, the framework design and the results of this study open wide perspective on different research areas for those who are interested in the role of literature in EFL and the promotion of autonomy in literature and in language learning in general.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter started by summarising the main steps and findings of the study. It then provides answers to the three directional hypotheses and the main research question by giving some interpretations and analyses of the data derived from the quantitative and the qualitative research tools. Equally, the chapter has presented some implications of the main findings of the study concerning the teaching of literature at the tertiary level. It has ended by giving some recommendations for further research.

## **GENERAL CONCLUSION**

## General Conclusion

Developing greater autonomy in learners has become the first objective sought by many educational institutions. In the Algerian context, the development of greater autonomy at the tertiary level has become a must as a result of economical situations and the upcoming circumstances of the pandemic of Covid-19. Due to the economical crisis, more and more university students are having paying jobs while studying. Moreover, in the last two academic years (2019/2020, 2020/2021) as a result of the lockdown, most in-class courses became online courses. In front of such circumstances, teachers, educators, and even stakeholders have to find pedagogical approaches that are likely to develop self-reliance in learning, i.e. more autonomy in learning.

Within this perspective, this study aimed to contribute in findings pedagogical tools suitable for the promotion of autonomy in one of the subjects and skills in the EFL curriculum, namely literature. As the EFL curriculum is organized into several subjects, the choice was made to study autonomy achievement in literature reading for several reasons. First, literature has the potential, if appropriately taught, to develop students' language skills, critical thinking skills, and cultural awareness. Second, as reported by research, there is an apparent discrepancy between the assumed benefits of literature and the reality of its teaching in the Algerian literature classroom. Third, curriculum developers and decision-makers at the central administration did not provide any guideline concerning the main objectives and the main skills to develop in the literature course. In fact, the reduced time allocated to the teaching of literature reflects a kind of neglect of this subject (literature) from curriculum developers at the central administration.

Given this state of facts, developing learner autonomy in reading literature becomes a necessity. This study aimed to provide empirical evidence about the efficiency of one learner-centred approach, namely, the task-based teaching approach in promoting first-year students' autonomy in reading literary texts. Therefore, the study started by providing some theoretical and critical insights about the concept of autonomy, reading and reading literary texts, literature teaching in EFL, and the task-based approach of teaching. These theoretical insights represented the framework upon which the study was based.

Indeed, the main constructs of the study are complex and multifaceted concepts. Each of these constructs consists of secondary constructs. For example, based on the different definitions of autonomy in language learning (Benson, 2001; Dam, 1995; Holec, 1981; Little, 1990) and autonomy framework of Littlewood (1996), the study came up with an operational definition of autonomy in literature reading. This definition involves the interplay of three levels on which autonomy in reading literature is assumed to be manifested. In other words, the assumption is that autonomy in reading literary texts is revealed in: first, students' degree of literary competence achievement, second, students' readiness for autonomy in reading literary texts, and third, in students' awareness and use of metacognitive and cognitive literary reading strategies.

Each level is, in turn, made up of secondary constructs or components. The literary competence level is composed of awareness of language use, knowledge of literary conventions, elements of raising a literary response, and literary production. The readiness for autonomy in reading literature level is made up of the set of beliefs and attitudes that students' have towards literature as well as their metacognitive knowledge of themselves as readers of literature and their metacognitive knowledge of the task of reading literature. The third level is made up of three sets of strategies: the global reading strategies, or the high order metacognitive literary reading strategies, the support reading strategies and the problem reading strategies. To measure the degree of autonomy in reading literary texts development, the study had to measure development in each of these levels. Accordingly, three quantitative research tools were designed by drawing from the theoretical insights of each concept. These are the LC pre and post-tests, the readiness for autonomy in reading literary texts questionnaire, and the survey of reading strategies adapted to literary texts. Then, to crosscheck the data obtained from the quantitative tools, qualitative tools of measurement were used. Semi-structured interviews gathered qualitative data to crosscheck the quantitative data obtained from the RFARLT questionnaire while the read aloud protocols gathered data that crosschecked the quantitative data obtained from SORS adapted to literary texts.

The theoretical insights also served as guidelines for designing the task-based materials for the experimental group. Drawing from the work of TBLT theorists such as Skehan (1992), Willis and Willis (1993), and Nunan (2004), the materials designed for the study of each literary text followed the task cycle of three phases: the pre-reading phase, the while reading phase, and the post-reading phase. In addition, the design of these tasks



was based on different approaches of teaching literature. For example the pre-reading tasks adopted the content-based approach to teaching literature, the while-reading and the post-reading tasks were based both on the reader-response and stylistics. In fact, as the literature abounds with hundreds of types of literary tasks (Collie & Slater, 1989; Lazar, 1993; Sasser, 1992) the study adapted from these tasks in accordance with the components of the LC skills identified by this study. The role of these tasks was not only to train students on the different skills and sub-skills of LC, but also to train them on the effective use of reading literary texts strategies. In this sense, the task-based materials can be considered as a learner training or a learner development programme. These programmes advocate the instruction of effective and efficient use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies, which was the objective of each phase of tasks. For instance, while the pre-reading and the post-reading tasks served as a training to students on the metacognitive reading strategies (such as guessing, reading with a purpose, and evaluating and checking understanding), the while-reading tasks instructed the students on the cognitive reading strategies of, for example, highlighting main information, using reference materials, rereading...etc. Proponents of these programmes (e.g. Ellis & Sinclair, 1989; Chamot & O'Malley, 1993; Wenden, 1987) suggest that they have, in general, positive effect on learners' promotion of autonomy in language learning. The present study aimed to present empirical evidence about the effect of strategy instruction programme in the form of task-based designed materials on first-year students' autonomy in reading literary texts.

Therefore, in a quasi-experimental design, the task-based designed materials were implemented to an experimental group of twenty first-year students in a ten-week literature course. Meanwhile, the control group, which was also made up of twenty students, was taught mainly canonical texts following the content-based approach of teaching literature in a lecture or a teacher-centred mode of teaching. To gauge students' level of autonomy pre and post-experiment, the LC pre-test, the RFARLT questionnaire, and SORS adapted to literary texts were administered to both the control and the experimental group prior to the experiment and after the experiment. The pre and post-test results of each group obtained from each research tool were compared using a paired sample t test to determine whether there were any statistical significant differences, i.e. improvement in the post-test results compared to the pre-test results. Then, the mean gains of both groups were compared using an independent sample t test to find out if there were statistical significant differences between the gains of the experimental and the control group. On the other

hand, the qualitative instruments: the semi-structured interviews and the read aloud protocols were administered to three participants from each group just before the end of the experiment to crosscheck the data obtained from the RFARLT questionnaire and SORS adapted to literature. Although statistically the results came to reject the directional hypotheses 2 and 3, the overall results showed that the task-based designed materials had in many ways influenced the experimental group level of autonomy in reading literary texts.

First, as far as the competency and skills level is concerned, the experimental group LC achievement gain scores or improvement means were statistically better than the control group improvement rates. Second, at the willingness level, although there was no statistical significant difference between the two groups in the overall results of the RFARLT questionnaire, the experimental group students' perceptions of their role in reading and understanding literary texts by themselves, as well as their metacognitive knowledge of the task of reading improved significantly better than the control group. Third, at the metacognitive and cognitive level, the experimental group students seemed to have grasped better the high-order literary reading strategies or the metacognitive reading strategies that competent readers of literature use. The qualitative data confirmed in many ways the quantitative data obtained from the semi-structured interviews and the RAPs. Overall, the results showed that the use of task-based designed materials improved in many ways first-year students autonomy in reading literary texts.

Quite expectedly, the systematic training that the experimental group had in the different skills of LC by performing the tasks related to the literary texts allowed them to achieve better scores in the LC post-test than the control group. Moreover, as the literary texts were relatively accessible to the experimental group, they did not find themselves dependent on the teacher for reading and understanding; their detachment from the teacher came as a result of their involvement in performing the tasks with only some guidance from the teacher. Consequently, they changed their mind concerning their dependence on the teacher in explaining everything, which was the opposite view of the control group. Furthermore, the experimental group improved awareness and use of the global (high order) literary reading strategies came as a result of this kind of strategies instructions they received in the form of pre-reading tasks and the while reading (reading logs) tasks.

The data obtained came to support the use of the task-based approach in teaching literature for first-year students; however, there are several other implications and recommendations for such findings. First, students' positive attitudes about literature need to be taken into consideration by decision-makers and curriculum designers. The latter need to reconsider the time allocated to the literature subject not only because of students' positive attitudes about literature but also because of the benefits and the advantages of this subject in EFL teaching. Indeed, the potential of literature in promoting students' language awareness, cultural understanding, and critical thinking are unlikely to be found in another subject in the EFL curriculum. Second, course designers or pedagogical committees of programme design need to highlight clearly the literary skills and sub-skills that each literature course level aims to achieve. These committees need also to involve students in the selection of the literary texts to be studied, or at least take students' level and areas of interest into consideration in the selection of this content. Third, and most importantly, literature teachers should rethink and reconsider their roles in literature teaching and that of their students. Implementing teaching approaches that foster great level of autonomy does not necessarily restrict or limit the role of the teacher in the classroom. Rather, it launches the teacher in a more important and creative role than that of explaining everything. Indeed, finding appropriate tasks and questions that tap into students' learning processes and make them realize the importance of their responsibility for their own learning is a much more complex and challenging duty than that of explaining everything. By giving the students opportunity to learn by themselves and interact with accessible and appealing literary texts, the teachers will realize that Algerian students do possess high level of critical thinking and creativity (contrary to the widespread prejudice about them). This creativity is revealed in the impressive post-reading tasks that some of the experimental group students performed (see appendix O).

Finally, although the present study provides empirical evidence that the task-based approach appears to be relevant for teaching literature for first-year students, it does not necessarily claim that it is flawless or without limitations. The task-based approach of teaching literature is only one among many other approaches and learning-training programmes that the literature teacher can select from to develop autonomy in his/her students. The literature teacher can select learning-training programmes or teaching approaches relevant to his/her class level and literary competence objectives.

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## **APPENDICES**

## **Appendices**

### **Appendix A**

#### **The Second year Literature Course Syllabus of the Classical Four-year B.A Course**

UNIVERSITY OF ALGIERS  
FACULTY OF ARTS AND LANGUAGES  
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH  
**ENGLISH DEGREE CURRICULUM**

#### **Semester 03:**

General survey of English literature from Chaucer to Blake

The aim of the course is to provide the students with a general survey in English literature from Chaucer to Blake with an extensive view.

The experts will serve as a basis for the study of literary devices (plot, setting, characterization...etc).

- 1) General introduction
- 2) Old English and Middle English
- 3) Elizabethan and Jacobean period (poetry and drama)
- 4) Milton
- 5) Pope
- 6) Defoe
- 7) Swift
- 8) Richardson
- 9) Theatre, Sheridan, Goldsmith
- 10) W. Blake

## American literature

### Semester 03:

Objective of the course: The aim of the course is to provide the students with a general survey from the colonial period to the romantic period. Excerpts from representative texts will serve as a basis for the study of literary devices.

1- The colonial period

Prose: extracts from J. Smith, W. Bradford, J. Edwards.

Poetry: selected poems by Anne Bradstreet, Wiggsworth, E. Taylor (2h)

2- The revolutionary period

Prose: extracts from T. Pain, B. Franklin, Madison, Hamilton (2h)

3- The Romantics

W. Irving: Rip Van Winkle

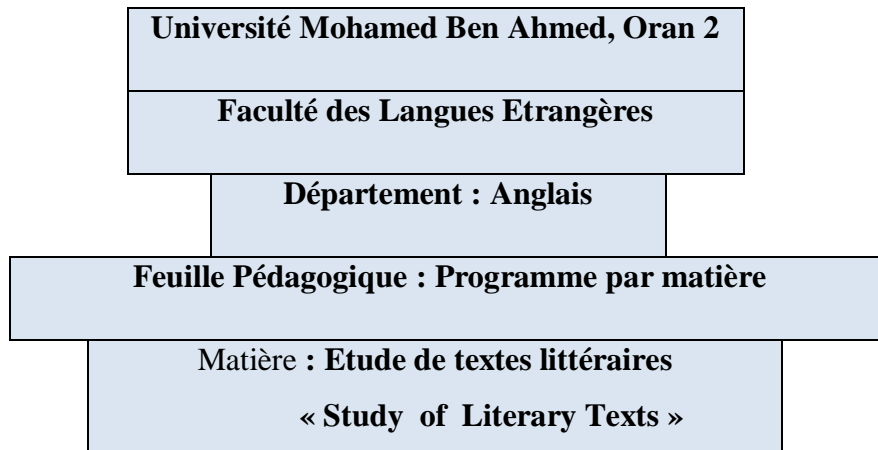
J.F Cooper : The Spy of the Prairie

N. Hawthorne: The Blithedale Romance or the Celestial Road (2h)

(NB: this document was delivered by the Head of the English Department at the University of Algiers in the academic year 2009/2011)

## Appendix B

The first Year literature syllabus of the L.M.D. system



<b>Contenu de la matière</b>
<b>Semestre 1</b>

Week 1. Introduction to literature

- The notion of literature: meaning of literature, its purpose and importance....genres (fiction/nonfiction, prose/verse/drama)...

Week 2. Introduction to literature (continued)

- The notion of literature: what shapes it? Influence of gender/race; Religion and mythology; impact of wars...etc.

Week 3.The elements of fiction ( The 6 major elements in selected texts)

Week 4.Characters / Plot

Week 5.Setting / Point of view

Week 6.Theme / Style

Week 7.**Test**

Week 8. Introduction to figurative language



Week 9. Interpreting figures of speech in context

Week 10. Metaphor/ Simile

Week 11. Hyperbole/understatement/ Oxymoron

Week 12. Metonymy/ Synecdoche/ Personification

Week 13. Irony/ Humor/ Personification

Week 14. **Exam**

## Semestre 2

Week 1. Development of English/ Emergence of movements (an overview)

Week 2. Old English Literature (450 AD-1066) : a historical survey

Week 3. Selected Texts/ e.g. *Beowulf*, *Caedmon's Hymn*, *The Wanderer*... and others.

Week 4. Middle English Literature (12<sup>th</sup> century-1485) : a historical survey

Week 5. Selected Texts/ e.g. Chaucer's *The Prologue*, *Sir Gawain and the Green knight*, *Everyman: A Morality Play*, and others.

Week 6. The Elizabethan Period/ Renaissance and Reformation (1485-1603): a historical survey

Week 7. Selected Texts: Shakespeare (and others).

Week 8. The golden age of drama/ Selected plays: *The Merchant of Venice*, *Othello*, and others.

Week 9. **Test**

Week 10. The Seventeenth Century: a survey

Selected Texts / The Metaphysical School

Week 11. Introduction to Restoration and the 18<sup>th</sup> century: Neoclassicism and Satire

Week 12. Selected texts/ e.g. John Gay's *Trivia*, Pope's *The Rape of the Lock*, *Essay on Man*,

Dryden's *Epigram on Milton*, and others.

Week 13. The rise of the novel (1700's)

Selected texts:/ e.g. Defoe's *Robinson Crusoe*, Samuel Richardson, and others.

## Appendix C

### The Task-Based Designed Materials Used for the Experimental Group

**Literature course objectives:** the main objectives of this course are:

- To introduce and initiate the students to the literary reading of short stories
- To introduce and initiate students to the literary competence of identifying elements of fiction.
- To initiate and train students on the literary competence of raising a personal response to literature.
- To initiate students in literary creativity and literary production.
- To train students on literary reading strategies (metacognitive and cognitive reading strategies)
- To enhance and develop students' language awareness and language skills

#### **Literary text 1: Eveline by James Joyce**

##### **Worksheet1: the Pre-Reading Tasks Phase**

##### **Pre-reading task 1**

Before you read the story, you need some information about the author James Joyce and his society.

##### **Stage 1**

Work in pairs or in groups. Student A or group A read text A about the biography of James Joyce whereas student B or group B read text B about Dublin in the beginning of the twentieth century.

##### **Text A**

James Joyce was born in Dublin, Ireland, on February 2, 1882, the eldest of 10 surviving children. After he graduated from university, Joyce went to Paris to study medicine, then he was recalled to Dublin in April 1903 because of the illness and subsequent death of his mother. He stayed in Ireland until 1904, and in June that year he met Nora Barncale, the Galway woman who became his partner and later his wife.

In August 1904, the first of Joyce's short stories was published in the *Irish Homestead* magazine, which later published two others. In October of that year, Joyce and Nora left Ireland going first to Pola (now Pula, Croatia) where Joyce got a job teaching English at a Berlitz school. Joyce returned to Ireland only four times in his life, the last visit being in

1912, after which he never returned again. The same year James and Nora moved to Trieste, Italy, where they spent most of the next 10 years.

The year 1914 with Ezra Pound's assistance, *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man*, Joyce's first novel, appeared in serial form in Harriet Weaver's *Egoist* magazine in London. His collection of short stories, *Dubliners*, on which he had been working since 1904, was finally published, and he also wrote his only play, *Exiles*. Having cleared his desk, Joyce could then start in earnest on the novel he had been thinking about since 1907: *Ulysses*.

With the start of World War I, Joyce and his family were forced to leave Trieste. They moved to Zurich, Switzerland, where they lived for the duration of the war.

Though Joyce wanted to settle in Trieste again after the war, the poet Ezra Pound persuaded him to come to Paris for a while, and Joyce stayed for the next 20 years. The publication of *Ulysses* in serial form in the American journal *The Little Review* was brought to a halt in 1921 when a court banned it as obscene. Shortly after, Harriet Weaver ran out of printers willing to set the text in England, and for a while it looked as though *Ulysses* would never be published.

on February 2, 1922, Joyce's 40th birthday, the first edition of *Ulysses* was published by an American expatriate living in Paris called Sylvia Beach who continued to publish *Ulysses* through 1930.

*Finnegans Wake* his last novel was published on May 4, 1939. It was immediately listed as "the book of the week" in the United Kingdom and the United States.

Joyce died at the age of 59 on January 13, 1941, at 2 a.m., in Zurich, where he and his family had been given asylum. He is buried in Fluntern cemetery, Zurich.

As a writer, though he did not have an extensive literary production, he is listed among the rare genius writers in the history for his piercing observations and the depth of meaning contained in his works. His style is characterized by the use of the stream of consciousness technique which is a technique of writing used by other modernist writers like Virginia Woolf and William Faulkner. In brief, the technique is used by writers to represent a character's inner thought and sense of impression and reality without syntax or logical sequence.

### **Answer the following questions**

- 1) Who is James Joyce?
- 2) How was his life?
- 3) Why do you think he left Ireland and never returned?
- 4) Why do you think publishers refused to publish his works?
- 5) Why was he considered as a modernist writer?

### **Text B: Dublin in 1900s**

Dublin is the capital city of Southern Ireland which used to be one of the British Isles. Before the turn of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, Dublin was a prosperous city both economically and culturally; it had been the second city of the British Isles and one of the ten largest cities in Europe. It was also known for its charming architecture and dynamic and active ports.

With the beginning of the 1900s things dramatically changed for the city, for some political reasons, Belfast a city in Northern Ireland became the largest city of Ireland. Consequently, Dublin viewed its economy in decline. Formerly fashionable townhouses became horrible slums, with inadequate living conditions. The ports of the city were in decline too, and there were little chance of advancement for lower and middle classes.

The city as viewed by Joyce was the centre of paralysis in an allusion to the social entrapment condition. Joyce sees that his city and his fellow citizens were entrapped or paralyzed by their social conditions .Joyce does not victimize the city as much as he criticizes the pressure exercised by the Catholic Church and the Irish political climate. The power of the stories in *Dubliners* is not to be found in mere description of social conditions of a city, but in the portrayal of the human characters who live and work in this outstanding city.

### **Answer the following questions**

- 1) Where is Dublin?
- 2) What happened to the city in the beginning of the 1900?
- 3) How was the city viewed by James Joyce?
- 4) What are the reasons of the social paralysis or entrapment as viewed by Joyce?

## Stage 2

In pairs or in groups, exchange information about your texts

## Stage 3

Class discussion about James Joyce and the social conditions of Dublin in 1900s

## Pre-reading Task 2

Based on your reading about James Joyce and the city of Dublin in 1900s, can you guess what the short story *Eveline* is about? Choose from these options and discuss your choices with a partner.

- A) A widow who did not find enough money to take care of her two children.
- B) A married woman who suffers the abuse of a drunkard husband.
- C) A young girl who could not follow her love because of her responsibilities

### **Worksheet 2: the while-reading tasks 1(the reader response phase)**

**Stage1:Read the following short story and pause where indicated to answer the questions on a reading log or a reading paper ( homework task)**

James Joyce (1882-1941) (Whose name is it? What years are they?)

Eveline (1914) (Who is she?)

She sat at the window watching the evening invade the avenue. Her head was leaned against the window curtains and in her nostrils was the odour of dusty cretonne. She was tired.(Who is she? where is she? What questions are you asking right here ?)

Few people passed. The man out of the last house passed on his way home; she heard his footsteps clacking along the concrete pavement and afterwards crunching on the cinder path before the new red houses. One time there used to be a field there in which they used to play every evening with other people's children. Then a man from Belfast bought the field and built houses in it—not like their little brown houses but

bright brick houses with shining roofs. The children of the avenue used to play together in that field—the Devines, the Waters, the Dunns, little Keogh the cripple, she and her brothers and sisters. Ernest, however, never played: he was too grown up. Her father used often to hunt them in out of the field with his blackthorn stick; but usually little Keogh used to keep nix and call out when he saw her father coming. Still they seemed to have been rather happy then. Her father was not so bad then; and besides, her mother was alive. That was a long time ago; she and her brothers and sisters were all grown up her mother was dead. Tizzie Dunn was dead, too, and the Waters had gone back to England. Everything changes. Now she was going to go away like the others, to leave her home. ( Which country is it? What have you learned about her, her father, her mother? What questions come to your mind now? How do you feel now about her? What would you like to know? , what can you guess?)

Home! She looked round the room, reviewing all its familiar objects which she had dusted once a week for so many years, wondering where on earth all the dust came from. Perhaps she would never see again those familiar objects from which she had never dreamed of being divided. And yet during all those years she had never found out the name of the priest whose yellowing photograph hung on the wall above the broken harmonium beside the coloured print of the promises made to Blessed Margaret Mary Alacoque. He had been a school friend of her father. Whenever he showed the photograph to a visitor her father used to pass it with a casual word:

“He is in Melbourne now.”

( who is in Melbourne? What are the familiar objects can you guess? What other questions come to you? What questions do yoy want to ask here?)

She had consented to go away, to leave her home. Was that wise? She tried to weigh each side of the question. In her home anyway she had shelter and food; she had

those whom she had known all her life about her. Of course she had to work hard, both in the house and at business. What would they say of her in the Stores when they found out that she had run away with a fellow? Say she was a fool, perhaps; and her place would be filled up by advertisement. Miss Gavan would be glad. She had always had an edge on her, especially whenever there were people listening.

“Miss Hill, don't you see these ladies are waiting?” “Look lively, Miss Hill, please.”

She would not cry many tears at leaving the Stores. (why wouldn't she? What have you found out up to now? What will happen? Does this remind you of any other person you know? Can you guess the meaning of having an edge on someone? The setting? Where is she?)

But in her new home, in a distant unknown country, it would not be like that. Then she would be married—she, Eveline. People would treat her with respect then. She would not be treated as her mother had been. Even now, though she was over nineteen, she sometimes felt herself in danger of her father's violence. She knew it was that that had given her the palpitations. When they were growing up he had never gone for her like he used to go for Harry and Ernest, because she was a girl; but latterly he had begun to threaten her and say what he would do to her only for her dead mother's sake. And now she had nobody to protect her. Ernest was dead and Harry, who was in the church decorating business, was nearly always down somewhere in the country. Besides, the invariable squabble for money on Saturday nights had begun to weary her unspeakably. She always gave her entire wages— seven shillings—and Harry always sent up what he could but the trouble was to get any money from her father. He said she used to squander the money, that she had no head, that he wasn't going to give her his hard-earned money to throw about the streets, and much more, for he was usually fairly bad on Saturday night. In the end he would give her the money and ask her had she any intention of buying Sunday's dinner. Then she had to rush out as quickly as she could

and do her marketing, holding her black leather purse tightly in her hand as she elbowed her way through the crowds and returning home late under her load of provisions. She had hard work to keep the house together and to see that the two young children who had been left to her charge went to school regularly and got their meals regularly. It was hard work—a hard life—but now that she was about to leave it she did not find it a wholly undesirable life. (What do you learn here about her father, her life? Can you guess why is he fairly bad on starday night? Do you think that her life is hard for her age? Which other story or person or event in your life do you remember? Why doesn't she now find it an undesirable life? Where is she ( the setting)? What will happen? Can you guess the end of the story?)

She was about to explore another life with Frank. Frank was very kind, manly, open- hearted. She was to go away with him by the night-boat to be his wife and to live with him in Buenos Ayres where he had a home waiting for her. How well she remembered the first time she had seen him; he was lodging in a house on the main road where she used to visit. It seemed a few weeks ago. He was standing at the gate, his peaked cap pushed back on his head and his hair tumbled forward over a face of bronze. Then they had come to know each other. He used to meet her outside the Stores every evening and see her home. He took her to

see *The Bohemian Girl* and she felt elated as she sat in an unaccustomed part of the theatre with him. He was awfully fond of music and sang a little. People knew that they were courting and, when he sang about the lass that loves a sailor, she always felt pleasantly confused. He used to call her Poppens out of fun. First of all it had been an excitement for her to have a fellow and then she had begun to like him. He had tales of distant countries. He had started as a deck boy at a pound a month on a ship of the Allan Line going out to Canada. He told her the names of the ships he had been on and the



names of the different services. He had sailed through the Straits of Magellan and he told her stories of the terrible Patagonians. He had fallen on his feet in Buenos Ayres, he said, and had come over to the old country just for a holiday. Of course, her father had found out the affair and had forbidden her to have anything to say to him.

“I know these sailor chaps,” he said.

One day he had quarrelled with Frank and after that she had to meet her lover secretly. ( What do you think of Frank? Do you feel he is sincere? Is she in love with him? Can you guess what will happen nex? Where is Eveline?)

The evening deepened in the avenue. The white of two letters in her lap grew indistinct. One was to Harry; the other was to her father. Ernest had been her favourite but she liked Harry too. Her father was becoming old lately, she noticed; he would miss her. Sometimes he could be very nice. Not long before, when she had been laid up for a day, he had read her out a ghost story and made toast for her at the fire. Another day, when their mother was alive, they had all gone for a picnic to the Hill of Howth. She remembered her father putting on her mother’s bonnet to make the children laugh. (How does she remember her father here and why? How do you feel for the father rand for Eveline? What will happen next?)

Her time was running out but she continued to sit by the window, leaning her head against the window curtain, inhaling the odour of dusty cretonne. Down far in the avenue she could hear a street organ playing. She knew the air. Strange that it should come that very night to remind her of the promise to her mother, her promise to keep the home together as long as she could. She remembered the last night of her mother's illness; she was again in the close dark room at the other side of the hall and outside she heard a melancholy air of Italy. The organ-player had been ordered to go away and given sixpence. She remembered her father strutting back into the sickroom saying:

“Damned Italians! coming over here!”

(What is Eveline remembering? What kind of feeling have you got here for Evelyne and her family? What does the scene remind you of?)

As she mused the pitiful vision of her mother's life laid its spell on the very quick of her being—that life of commonplace sacrifices closing in final craziness. She trembled as she heard again her mother's voice saying constantly with foolish insistence:

“Derevaun Seraun! Derevaun Seraun!” ( can you guess the meaning of muse from the context? How was her mother's life?)

She stood up in a sudden impulse of terror. Escape! She must escape! Frank would save her. He would give her life, perhaps love, too. But she wanted to live. Why should she be unhappy? She had a right to happiness. Frank would take her in his arms, fold her in his arms. He would save her. ( what would he save her from? What does she fear? What does she need more? Love? Or life? what questions come to you here? How do you feel for her? )

She stood among the swaying crowd in the station at the North Wall. He held her hand and she knew that he was speaking to her, saying something about the passage over and over again. The station was full of soldiers with brown baggages. Through the wide doors of the sheds she caught a glimpse of the black mass of the boat, lying in beside the quay wall,

with illumined portholes. She answered nothing. She felt her cheek pale and cold and, out of a maze of distress, she prayed to God to direct her, to show her what was her duty. The boat blew a long mournful whistle into the mist. If she went, tomorrow she would be on the sea with Frank, steaming towards Buenos Ayres. Their passage had been booked. Could she still draw back after all he had done for her? Her distress awoke a nausea in her body and she kept moving her lips in silent fervent prayer. ( where is she now?, the setting? Why is she praying? Notice the use of words like mournful, nausea, maze of distress? What do they signify? How does she feel? Have you experienced such a situation)

A bell clanged upon her heart. She felt him seize her hand: "Come!"

All the seas of the world tumbled about her heart. He was drawing her into them: he would drown her. She gripped with both hands at the iron railing.

"Come!"

No! No! No! It was impossible. Her hands clutched the iron in frenzy. Amid the seas she sent a cry of anguish. ( why did she do that? Would you do the same thing? What will happen?)

"Eveline! Evvy!"

He rushed beyond the barrier and called to her to follow. He was shouted at to go on but he still called to her. She set her white face to him, passive, like a helpless animal. Her eyes gave him no sign of love or farewell or recognition. ( how do you feel for Frank and for Eveline?) What does the story remind you of? Another story? A film?, a person you know? A situation you faced in your life?).....

.....

**stage 2:** in pairs or groups, compare your reading logs

**Worksheet 2: the while-reading tasks 2(Elements of fiction)**

**Task1 :**

Read the short story all through it without stopping at any difficult word and put down all that you have understood and what you haven't understood. Put down your feelings and emotions and what you liked and did not like in the story.

**Task 2:** work in pairs, look up the meaning of the words in list A while your partner will look up the words in list B, you can add to your list any difficult words in the story

**Word list A**

**Word list B**

Cretonne

Squander

Clacking

squabble

The air

elated

Sacrifice

to court

Impulse

Fervent

Passive

Explain the meaning of the words and their use in the story to your partner.

**Task 3:** How does the setting change? complete the diagram as you are reading

**At the beginning of the story**

The place, where ?.....  
 .....  
 .....  
 .....

Where?.....  
 .....  
 .....

Time.....

**In the middle of the story**

Place.....  
.....  
.....

time.....  
.....  
.....

**At the end of the story**

Where?.....

Place.....  
.....  
.....

When?.....

time.....  
.....  
.....

2)If the place and time are not well described try to imagine them and add any description of your own by saying I suppose it was.....

3) What does the setting reveal (tell) about Eveline’s social conditions?

**Task 4: Characters**

1)As you are reading the story pick up all the adjectives that describe the characters by filling in the chart

Eveline	The father	Frank
---------	------------	-------

..... ..... .....	..... ..... .....	..... ..... .....
-------------------------	-------------------------	-------------------------

2) What other characters are there in the story? What is their main role or effect in the story?

3) Does Joyce give a lots of description for his heroine? Do we know her physical appearance? Why?

**Task 5: Point of view**

- 1) Which pronouns are used in the story?
- 2) Through which eyes we are seeing the events?
- 3) Who is the narrator of the story?

**Task6: Conflict**

Eveline is in the middle of emotional crisis. In pairs, note down the reasons she has for staying and the reasons she has for leaving

Reasons for staying	Reasons for leaving

2) What decision did she make? What does this decision tell us about her?

3) In her situation, would you make the same decision?

4) Is her conflict internal or external? Discuss in pairs or in groups

5) When is the moment of epiphany? What does it tell about her?

**Worksheet 3: the post-reading phase**

**Post reading task 1**

1) Imagine you are Jack, write a letter to Eveline.

2) Continue the story. What happen after the ship left?

3) In what ways is the short story Eveline relevant to the Algerian context? Do you know any Algerian Eveline? Write a similar story adapted to the Algerian context.

## **Literary text 2: The Happy Prince by Oscar Wilde**

### **Worksheet1: The Pre-Reading Tasks Phase**

#### **Pre-reading task 1**

Divide into two groups. Group A read the text about the Victorian era, and group B read a text about Oscar Wilde

#### **The Victorian era in Britain**

The Victorian era in Britain corresponds to reign of Queen Victoria (1837-1901). Victorian Society was known for its peace and prosperity. Though it was an era of peace that brought material advancement and industrial progress in the country, the same development created social unrest and economic distress among the masses. The wealth of the nation was increased yet it was not equitably distributed. The conditions of the labourers and workers were worse and miserable. The lives of downtrodden and of underdogs were the common themes discussed in the novels of Victorian literature.

Victorians emphasized on order, decorum decency. Appearances and respect of social rules were extremely valued to the extent of fussiness. This is reflected through the vision of several writers in the period. With regard to literature, Victorian art constitutes a shameless record of hypocrisy and prudery. It was also didactic (teaching values), aesthetic purposeful and propagandistic in the hands of considerable number of writers of the age. The Victorian writers were gifted with marked originality in outlook, character and style. Though novels were found a prominent place in the literature of the era, short stories had also contributed considerably to the enlightenment.

One of the writers of this period is Oscar Wilde. Like much of Oscar Wilde's writing, [\*The Happy Prince\*](#) both represents and critiques the Victorian era. The adult society of the city are continually satirized as unimaginative, hypocritical, corrupt, self-serving, and pretentious, vices Wilde thought particularly characteristic of the repressive Victorian era.

## Questions

- 1) What were the main characteristics of the Victorian era?
- 2) How was it represented in literature?

## Oscar Wilde

Oscar Wilde is a highly important person when it comes to the English language and literature. This Irish playwright, novelist, poet, and essayist was born on the 16th of October 1854 in Dublin, Ireland. He was raised in a wealthy family by highly intellectual parents.

From early childhood, he was an excellent student, fluent in French and German besides having enough knowledge of Italian and Ancient Greek. As a writer, he left a very important mark in the world literature. His incredibly witty plays such as *The Importance of Being Earnest*, *An Ideal Husband*, etc. are still being performed all around the world. His only novel, *The Picture of Dorian Gray*, is one of the most important Victorian literary pieces. He also wrote short stories, essays and poems. Most of his themes are focused on criticism of the Victorian society, false manners and hypocrisy, marriage, moral values, etc.

As a person, Oscar Wilde was known as a raconteur, a stylish and scandalous socialite. He eventually married Constance Lloyd; however, he had many love affairs during his turbulent life, and even ended up imprisoned for homosexuality. After he was released from prison, he moved to France where he spent the rest of his life in exile. He died of meningitis on the 30th of November 1900 at the age of 46.

Witty: saying things in an intelligent manner

## Questions

- 1) Who is Oscar Wilde?
- 2) What are the characteristics of his literary works?

## Stage 2

In pairs or in groups, exchange information about your texts

## Stage 3

Class discussion about Oscar Wilde, the Victorian era, and its representation in literature.



## **Pre-reading Task 2**

The story that you are going to read by Oscar Wilde is the Happy Prince, can you guess who this prince is and what relation he has with the poor and destitute people of the city. The other main character in the story is a Swallow (a little migrant bird), can you guess what kind of relation they have ( the Happy prince and the Swallow)

### **Worksheet 2: The Wile-reading tasks**

#### **Stage 1: The Reading Logs**

##### **Reading logs**

While you are reading the short story, write down all the things that go into your mind. As you are readings many things will come into your mind. These will include

**Questions** that you ask yourself about characters and events as you read. (Answer them yourself when you can)

**Questions** about words and their meanings

**Memories** from your own experience provoked by the reading.

**Guesses** about how you think the story will develop, and why.

**Reflections** on striking moments and ideas in the story.

**Comparisons** between how you behave and how characters in the story behave.

**Thoughts and feelings** about characters and events.

**Comments on how the story is being told.** For example any words and phrases or even a whole passages that make an impression on you, or motifs that the author keeps using.

**Please date each entry**, and note down the time and place , as well as the mood you are in while reading.

**Please** note down the page number you are reading when you make an entry.

**Please** take pleasure and pride in your log.

**Please** do not rewrite the story

(adapted from Carlisle, 2000)

**Worksheet 3: The Wile-reading tasks: phase 2**

**TASK1 : Complete the following summary of the short story The Happy Prince by adding sentences or words.**

High above a city, the statue of the Happy Prince overlooked the whole city. He was called the happy prince because.....

After his death he was represented in a statue covered in.....

..... All passersby..... and envy..... One day, a swallow delayed from his flock by..... landed on the statue's feet to spend the night. When it was about to sleep, a drop of.....

.....,so it decided to leave the statue that couldn't keep it warm, but to its surprise when.....happyprince.....so the swallow agreed to stay for one more night and the other day he took the..... the dress maker whose son was.....The other day, when the swallow decided to leave to Egypt, the Happy prince started crying and convinces him to stay with him another day. In a cold house, there was a writer who .....so, the swallow, took one of the .....to writer who.....

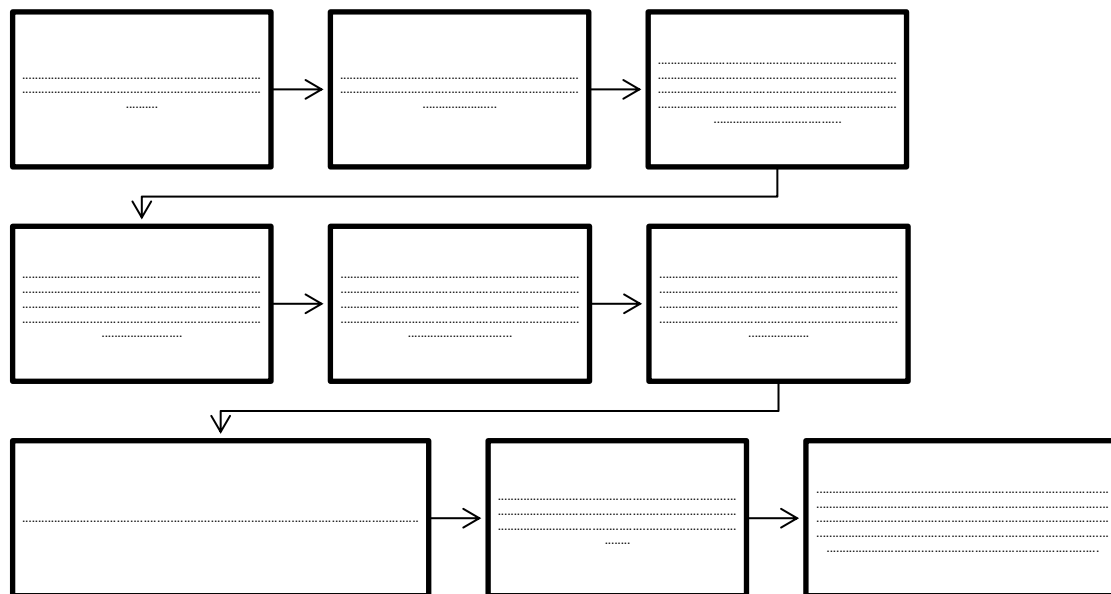
The swallow was delayed another day because the girl selling .....

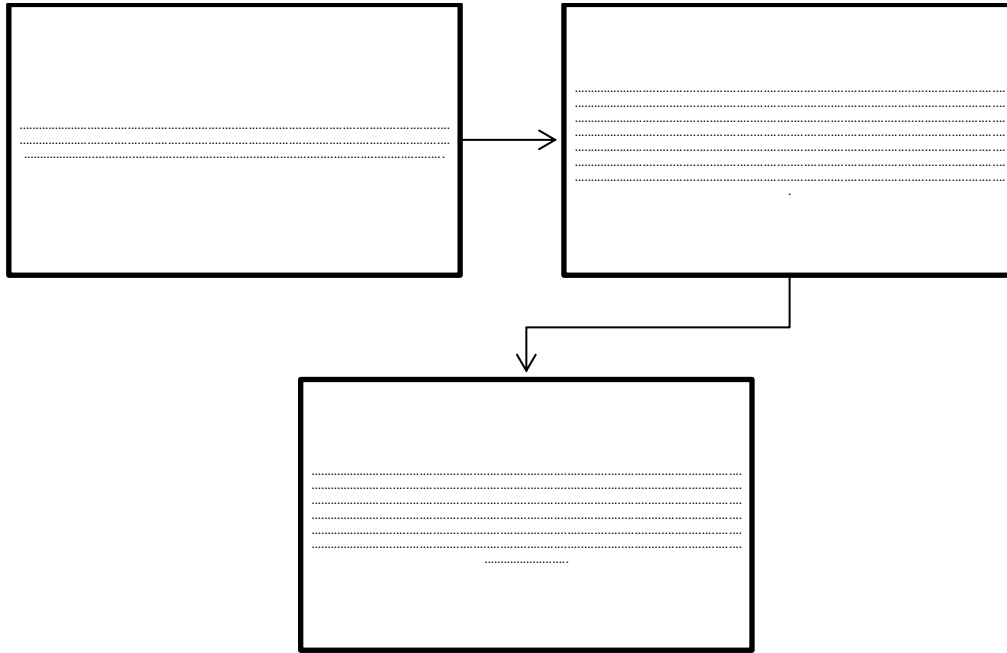
.....Now that the prince became ..... And couldn't see, the swallow decided to.....It flew over the city and reported the ..... to the prince who decided to to strip himself off the gold leaves and give the gold away to the

needy. Suddenly the Happy Prince looked .....and the councilor of the city decided to..... Ironically the swallow dead body and the unmelted cheap metal unvalued by ..... were the ..... taken by the angels to God.

**Task 2: Plot analysis**

Below is a flowchart for the main events in the Happy Prince, put the events in the appropriate box. Mark above the box what the event represents in the plot (Background, climax, epiphany, denouement)



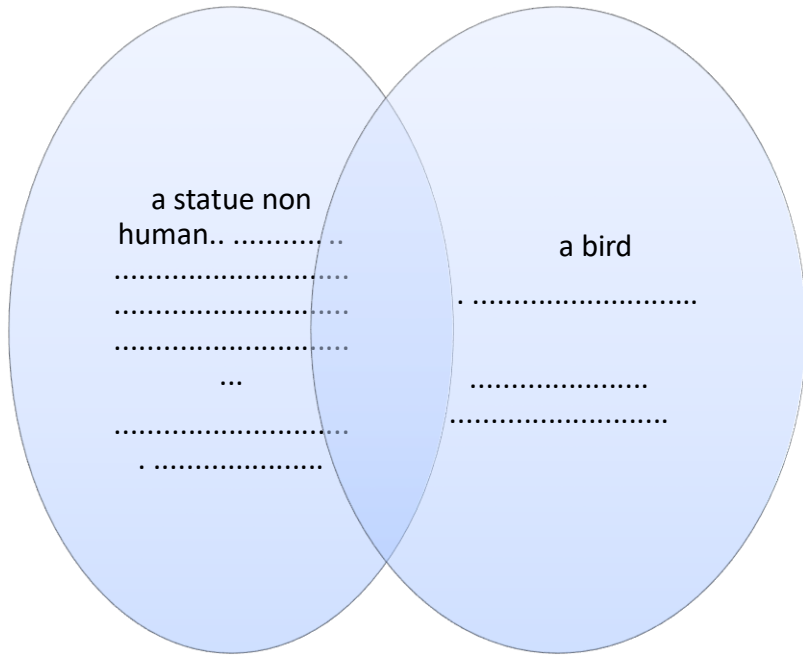


**Task 3: Main Characters**

Read across the short story and highlight all the adjectives that describe the main characters: the swallow and the Happy Prince, in appearance and soul. Then put these adjective in the appropriate place in the bubbles. Where the bubbles overlap represents the qualities or the adjectives that both of them have in common.

**The Happy  
Prince**

**The swallow**



**Task4: Secondary characters**

In the Happy prince, opposing features are represented by characters. The minor characters are in the story represent the contradictions that exist in the society and between the heroes of the story and the representatives of the high class of the society (the queen girl, the mayors, the councilors, the girl selling matches, the seamstress and her son). Place the minor and the major characters in the appropriate position in the continuum as in the first example

Kind ——— The happy prince, the swallow ——— the mayor, — Callous  
sensitive ————— reckless  
Pitiful —————  
Merciful ————— Mean  
Genuine ————— fake/shallow  
Compassionate ————— unsensitive  
Courageous ————— coward, selfish  
Generous ————— Mean/selfish

Wealthy \_\_\_\_\_ poor/ destitute

lonely \_\_\_\_\_ surrounded

**Task 4:**

Irony is a literary device where characters and events in the story are represented opposite to what they are really in order to serve some literary purposes. Complete the following chart to show how Oscar Wilde uses irony in the Happy Prince.

	What do things look like?	What they are really?	The writer's purpose of the representation
At the beginning of the story			
In the middle of the story			
At the end of the story			

## **Worksheet 4: The Post-Reading Tasks**

### **Task1:**

Work in pairs or groups, rewrite the story in a form of a play and role-play it.

### **Task 2:**

Re-write the story by adapting it to the Algerian context (setting: Oran 2020), characters ( a statue in Oran and a bird)

### **Task3**

*The Happy Prince* can be considered as a legend about kindness and self sacrifice for helping the others. The Algerian culture also values kindness, charity and helping the others, ask your parents or grand-parents about an Algerian myth or legend or even a true story about kindness and self-sacrifice, then translate it into English.

### **Task 4**

Based on the description of the statue of the happy prince and the description of the city by the swallow, draw a picture of them.

## **Literary text 3: the Story of an Hour by Kate Chopin**

### **Worksheet 1: the pre-reading tasks phase**

#### **Task1:**

**Stage 1:** divide in two groups or work in pairs A and B. Group or student A read text A about the biography of Kate Chopin and group B read text B about women's conditions in 1890's

#### **Text A**

Kate Chopin's Biography

by Leanne Baugh

As a nineteenth-century American author, Kate Chopin pushed the social boundaries of her time by writing about women's lives in a frank, revealing way. Her earlier writing was well received nationally. However, her 1899 novel *The Awakening*, the story of a woman's self-realization, was condemned for being

“shocking, morbid and vulgar.” The book quickly went out of print and the criticism devastated Chopin’s writing career. Kate Chopin was born Kate O’Flaherty in St. Louis, Missouri in 1850. Her father died when she was five years old, so Kate grew up with her mother, grandmother, and great-grandmother.

At the age of 20, Kate married Oscar Chopin. Her husband admired her intelligence and “allowed” her freedom and independence, which was unusual in Victorian-era marriages. After the wedding, they moved to New Orleans where, before the age of 28, Kate gave birth to five girls and two boys. Oscar died of swamp fever in 1882, which led Chopin to move her children back to St. Louis where she began to write as a means to support herself and her family. She had immediate success writing short stories about people she had known in Louisiana. Her first novel *At Fault* was published in 1890, followed by two collections of short stories. By the time *The Awakening* was published in 1899, Chopin was a well-known author having published over 100 stories, essays, novels, and literary sketches. She was devastated by the scathing reviews of *The Awakening*, and for the five remaining years of her life, she only wrote a few short stories. Chopin died of a cerebral hemorrhage in 1904. After decades of obscurity, Chopin’s work was resurrected in the 1950s with the growing women’s movement of the time.

### **Answer the questions**

- 1) What is meant by pushing the social boundaries?
- 2) How did she write about women? And Why?
- 3) Why do you think her last novel was shocking?

### **Text B**

Women’s conditions in 1890’s

From the 1890’s until today, the roles of women and their rights have dramatically changed. During those years, women were viewed as inferior, submissive, bound to their husbands and put under their responsibilities by their marriage. Women did not use to have the individual



rights that can represent “feminine individuality”. Most middle class and upper class women were intended to be house-caring women.

In 1894, when this story was composed, culture had its own structure on marriage and the conduct towards women. Gender roles play a major role throughout the history. Culture and gender roles used to decide whether a woman in colonial times would be allowed to join the labour. While men took in charge the financial substantiation of the household, women were mainly reserved for child and house caring, and their destiny were bound to that of their husbands till their death. These were the accustomed gender roles acknowledged back then; nevertheless, various cultures could still contain them.

( adapted from <https://www.ipl.org/essay/Women-And-Their-Rights-In-Kate-Chopins-PCQCA6LJK5G>

### **Answer the questions**

- 1) How were women viewed in 1890's?
- 2) Did women Have plenty of rights?
- 3) Why were not women allowed in labour?
- 4) Have women's rights and roles changed in the U.S since then?

**Stage 2:** students from group A meet with students from group B or student A meet with student B and exchange information about their texts.

**Stage 3:** Class discussion about Kate Chopin and women's conditions in the 19<sup>th</sup> century.

### **Pre-reading task2**

Look at the cartoon strip below. What happened to Sam's husband? How would she react?

Can you guess before you read in what ways is the story of an hour similar to the cartoon strip One Afternoon?



**Worksheet 2: The While-reading tasks 1**

**Stage 1: The Reading Logs (homework)**

While you are reading the story many things come to your mind, stop reading and write any question, idea, comparison...etc that come to you while reading.

**Stage2:** compare your logs in pairs.

**Stage 3:** Class discussion.

**Worksheet 3: The While Reading Tasks 2**

**I) Setting**

**Place**

1) Where does the story take place ?

.....

2) What does Mrs. Mallard room symbolize?

.....

3) What does the open window symbolize for her?

.....

4)“ She clapped her sister waist, and they both descended; Richards was waiting in the bottom” What does the downstairs symbolize ?

.....

5) Can we guess their social conditions from the house?

.....

**Time**

1) When does the story start?

.....

3) What season of the year was it?

.....

2) How long does Mrs. Mallard stay in her room (approximately)?

.....

3)Why didn't she feel the time in her room?

.....

4) What was she dreaming of?

.....

.....

**Characters:**

**I) Choose from these adjectives the ones that describe better Mrs. Mallard personality and write a brief description of Mrs Mallard.**

Sensitive/ insensitive, weak/ strong, happily married/ unhappily married, attached/ detached, intelligent, cruel, independent. You can add other adjectives h you think describe Mrs. Mallard.

Start like this

The heroine of Kate Chopin in the Story of an Hour is represented as.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

**II) What kind of husbands was Brently Mallard?**

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

**Language and style**

Check the meaning of the adjectives and adverbs in the table below, then find them in paragraph 9, 8, and 10 in the story, and write the noun they describe or refer to in the story like in the example.

Adjective	Noun
Fair and calm	Mrs. Mallard's face
Dull	Stare in her eyes
Fixed away	.....
Subtle	.....
Elusive	.....

Fearfully	.....
Tumultuously	.....
Powerless	.....
Stare	.....
Keen and bright	.....
Monstrous	.....
Exalted	.....
trivial	.....

**Language and style:**

**The adjectives and adverbs above were used to describe the state of mind of Mrs. Mallard who was in conflict. What was she fighting within her?**

- Mrs. Mallard was fighting with her own feelings, between what she should feel and act, and what her true feelings are. When Mrs. Mallard is told the news of her husband's death, she should be sad but feels content that he is dead because she can be free and independent.

**Rewrite the passage from paragraph 7 using the first person as if Mrs. Mallard had written it. Start like this**

“ I throw myself in my roomy armchair which was facing an open window from which I could see the trees that were all aquiver with the new spring life and patches of blue sky showing here and there through the clouds.

For a moment I was immobile. I couldn't feel my body. Then I had a strange feeling. I couldn't explain.

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

**Figures of speech:**

The story is full of figures of speech like personifications, similes and metaphors, but more importantly the writer used dramatic irony which is defined by dictionary.com as follows: irony that is inherent in speeches or a situation of a drama and is understood by the audience

but not grasped by the characters in the play. In other words, it is a contradictory situation understood by the readers but not felt or understood by the characters.

Review the list of figures of speech in the glossary, then pick up examples of personifications, similes and dramatic irony.

For example to describe the language Josephine told Louise about her husband’s death, Chopin used a personification in: veiled hints and an oxymoron which is placing words or ideas opposite to each other next to each other like in line4 “ reveal in half concealing”

**Point of view:**

1) Which point of view is the story written in? First person subjective or third person objective point of view? Through which eyes are we reading the events? Is the narrator omniscient? Does she know everything?

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

2) In what ways is the style of writing similar to that of James Joyce in Eveline?

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

**Worksheet 4: Themes and Post reading tasks**

1) Kate Chopin is considered as one of the first feminist writers who questioned and criticized the status of women and the institution of marriage in the society. What does Chopin criticize here through Mrs. Mallard?

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

.....  
.....

2) Do you feel sympathy for Mrs. Mallard?

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

3) Do you know Algerian feminist writers? What do they write about?

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

**Post-Reading Task**

1)Continue the story making Mr. Mallard the hero; he is the main character of “ The story of an End and a Beginning ”. Say what he thinks about his wife and what he thinks about his future as a widower Begin like this:

“As soon as Mrs. Mallard saw her husband she fainted unconscious, everybody tried to wake her up but in vain. They called the doctor and while the doctor was on the way Richard explained to Brently what had happened in the midst of Josephine’s crying.....  
.....

**Appendix D**  
**The Literary Competence Pre-test**  
**Literary Competence Test**

**Read the following short story then answer the questions**

**Charles**

The day my son Laurie started kindergarten, he gave up his little-boy clothes. He started wearing blue jeans with a belt. I watched him go off that first morning with the older girl next door. He looked as though he were going off to a fight.

He came home the same way at lunchtime. "Isn't anybody here?" he yelled. At the table, he knocked over his little sister's milk.

"How was school today?" I asked. "Did you learn anything?"

"I didn't learn nothing," he said.

"Anything," I said. "Didn't learn anything."

"But the teacher spanked a boy," Laurie said. "For being fresh."

"What did he do?" I asked. "Who was it?"

Laurie thought. "It was Charles," he said. "The teacher spanked him and made him stand in the corner. He was really fresh."

"What did he do?" I asked. But Laurie slid off his chair, took a cookie, and left.

The next day, Laurie sat down for lunch. "Well," he said, "Charles was bad again today." He grinned. "Today Charles hit the teacher," he said.

"Good heavens," I said. "I suppose he got spanked again?"

"He sure did," Laurie said.

"Why did Charles hit the teacher?" I asked.

"Because she tried to make him color with red crayons. Charles wanted to color with green crayons. So he hit the teacher.

She spanked him and said nobody play with Charles. But everybody did."

The third day, Charles bounced a see-saw onto the head of a little girl. He made her bleed. The teacher made him stay inside during recess.

On Thursday, Charles had to stand in a corner. He was pounding his feet on the floor during story-time. Friday, Charles could not use the blackboard because he threw chalk.

On Saturday, I talked to my husband about it. "Do you think kindergarten is too disturbing for Laurie?" I asked him. "This Charles boy sounds like a bad influence."

"It will be all right," my husband said, "There are bound to be people like Charles in the world. He might as well meet them now as later."

On Monday, Laurie came home late. "Charles!" he shouted, as he ran up to the house. "Charles was bad again!"

I let him in and helped him take off his coat. "You know what Charles did?" he said. "Charles yelled so much that the teacher came in from first grade. She said our teacher had to keep Charles quiet. And so Charles had to stay after school. And so all the children stayed to watch him."

"What did he do?" I asked.

"He just sat there," Laurie said, noticing his father. "Hi Pop, you old dust mop."

"What does this Charles look like? My husband asked. "What's his last name?"

"He's bigger than me," Laurie said. "And he doesn't wear a jacket."



I could hardly wait for the first Parent-Teachers meeting. I wanted very much to meet Charles' mother. The meeting was still a week away.

On Tuesday, Laurie said, "Our teacher had a friend come to see her in school today."

My husband and I said together, "Was it Charles' mother?"

"Naaah," Laurie said. "Charles was fresh to the teacher's friend. They wouldn't let him do exercises."

"Fresh again?" I said.

"He kicked the teacher's friend," Laurie said. "The teacher's friend told Charles to touch his toes. And Charles kicked him."

"What do you think they'll do about Charles?" my husband asked.

"I don't know," Laurie said. "Throw him out of school, I guess."

Wednesday and Thursday were routine. Charles yelled during story-time. He hit a boy in the stomach and made him cry. On Friday, Charles stayed after school again. All the other children stayed to watch him.

On Monday of the third week, Laurie came home with another report. "You know what Charles did today?" he asked. "He told a girl to say a word, and she said it. The teacher washed her mouth out with soap, and Charles laughed."

"What word?" his father asked.

"It's so bad, I'll have to whisper it to you," Laurie said. He whispered into my husband's ear.

"Charles told the little girl to say *that*?" he said, his eyes widening.

"She said it *twice*," Laurie said. "Charles told her to say it *twice*."

"What happened to Charles?" my husband asked. "Nothing," Laurie said. "He was passing out the crayons."

The next day, Charles said the evil word himself three or four times. He got his mouth washed out with soap each time. He also threw chalk.

My husband came to the door that night as I was leaving for the Parent-Teachers meeting. "Invite her over after the

meeting," he said. "I want to get a look at the mother of that kid."

"I hope she's there," I said.

"She'll be there," my husband said. "How could they hold a Parent-Teachers meeting without Charles' mother?"

At the meeting, I looked over the faces of all the other mothers. None of them looked unhappy enough to be the mother of Charles. No one stood up and apologized for the way her son had been acting. No one mentioned Charles.

After the meeting, I found Laurie's teacher. "I've been wanting to meet you," I said. "I'm Laurie's mother."

Oh, yes," she said. "We're all so interested in Laurie."

"He certainly likes kindergarten," I said. "He talks about it all the time."

"He's had some trouble getting used to school," she said. "But I think he'll be all right."

"Laurie usually fits in quickly," I said. "I suppose his trouble might be from Charles' influence."

"Charles?" the teacher said.

"Yes," I said, laughing. "You must have your hands full with Charles."

"Charles?" she said. "We don't have any Charles in kindergarten."

(the end)

**By Shirley Jackson**

### **I) Basic level of understanding**

- 1) Summarize the story as you have understood it.
- 2) What are the bad things that Charles did at kindergarten and how was he punished?
- 3) Why was the mother worried?
- 4) Who believed Lorry more? The mother? The father?

### **II) Awareness of language use for literary and creative purposes**

- 5) “I didn’t learn nothing”, he said , “ our teacher had a friend come to see her”

Notice Lorry’s words in the dialogue, what shows that his language is a child’s language?

- 6) What is the meaning of being fresh ? Do you think that it is a child’s word?
- 7) At the end of the story, what does the mother mean by: “ you must have your hands full with Charles”? It is an idiomatic expression, do you have a similar expression in your language.

### **III) Ability to infer a message or to read between the lines**

- 8) Read the first paragraph of the story till the opening of the second paragraph? What can you understand about Laurie? What does he think of kindergarten? Does he like it?

### **IV) Identification of elements of the short story**

- 9) What is the plot of the story or the main events of the story (the rising events, the conflict, the falling events and the denouement?)
- 10) Who are the secondary characters in the story? Who are the main characters what can you infer about the personality of each of the main characters?
- 11) Who is narrating the story? What pronoun is used most of the time? What effect does this narration have on you as a reader?
- 12) What is the main theme or the main message that the writer of the story is delivering in this story? Are there any subthemes? What are they?

### **V) Elements of raising a personal literary response**

13) Does the story remind you of another story that you read, a film that you saw or a real life story?

14) Do you feel pity for Lorry or for his mother?

15) Have you ever experienced something similar to this story?

**VI) Literary production**

16) Continue the story. What happened when Lorry's mother went back home?

## Appendix E

### The LC post-test

Read the following short story, and then answer the questions

#### Eleven

What they don't understand about birthdays and what they never tell you is that when you're eleven, you're also ten, and nine, and eight, and seven, and six, and five, and four, and three, and two, and one. And when you wake up on your eleventh birthday you expect to feel eleven, but you don't. You open your eyes and everything's just like yesterday, only it's today. And you don't feel eleven at all. You feel like you're still ten. And you are—  
underneath            the            year            that            makes            you            eleven.

Like some days you might say something stupid, and that's the part of you that's still ten. Or maybe some days you might need to sit on your mama's lap because you're scared, and that's the part of you that's five. And maybe one day when you're all grown up maybe you will need to cry like if you're three, and that's okay. That's what I tell Mama when she's sad and needs to cry. Maybe she's feeling three.

Because the way you grow old is kind of like an onion or like the rings inside a tree trunk or like my little wooden dolls that fit one inside the other, each year inside the next one. That's how being eleven years old is.

You don't feel eleven. Not right away. It takes a few days, weeks even, sometimes even months before you say Eleven when they ask you. And you don't feel smart eleven, not until you're almost twelve. That's the way it is.

Only today I wish I didn't have only eleven years rattling inside me like pennies in a tin Band-Aid box. Today I wish I was one hundred and two instead of eleven because if I was one hundred and two I'd have known what to say when Mrs. Price put the red sweater on my desk. I would've known how to tell her it wasn't mine instead of just sitting there with that look on my face and nothing coming out of my mouth.

“Whose is this?” Mrs. Price says, and she holds the red sweater up in the air for all the

class to see. “Whose? It’s been sitting in the coatroom for a month.”

“Not mine,” says everybody. “Not me.”

“It has to belong to somebody”, Mrs. Price keeps saying, but nobody can remember. It’s an ugly sweater with red plastic buttons and a collar and sleeves all stretched out like you could use it for a jump rope. It’s maybe a thousand years old and even if it belonged to me I wouldn’t say so.

Maybe because I’m skinny, maybe because she doesn’t like me, that stupid Sylvia Saldivar says, “I think it belongs to Rachel.” An ugly sweater like that all raggedy and old, but Mrs. Price believes her. Mrs. Price takes the sweater and puts it right on my desk, but when I open my mouth nothing comes out.

“That’s not, I don’t, you’re not...Not mine.” I finally say in a little voice that was maybe me when I was four.

“Of course it’s yours”, Mrs. Price says. “ I remember you wearing it once.” Because she’s older and the teacher, she’s right and I’m not.

Not mine, not mine, not mine, but Mrs. Price is already turning to page thirty-two, and math problem number four. I don’t know why but all of a sudden I’m feeling sick inside, like the part of me that’s three wants to come out of my eyes, only I squeeze them shut tight and bite down on my teeth real hard and try to remember today I am eleven, eleven. Mama is making a cake for me for tonight, and when Papa comes home everybody will sing Happy birthday, happy birthday to you.

But when the sick feeling goes away and I open my eyes, the red sweater’s still sitting there like a big red mountain. I move the red sweater to the corner of my desk with my ruler. I move my pencil and books and eraser as far from it as possible. I even move my chair a little to the right. Not mine, not mine, not mine. In my head I’m thinking how long till lunchtime, how long till I can take the red sweater and throw it over the schoolyard fence, or leave it hanging on a parking meter, or bunch it up into a little ball and toss it in the alley. Except when math period ends Mrs. Price says loud and in front of everybody,

“Now, Rachel, that’s enough, ”because she sees I’ve shoved the red sweater to the tippy-tip corner of my desk and it’s hanging all over the edge like a waterfall, but I don’t care.

“Rachel”, Mrs. Price says. She says it like she’s getting mad. “You put that sweater on right now and no more nonsense.”

“But it’s not —“

“Now!” Mrs. Price says.

This is when I wish I wasn’t eleven because all the years inside of me—ten, nine, eight, seven, six, five, four, three, two, and one—are pushing at the back of my eyes when I put one arm through one sleeve of the sweater that smells like cottage cheese, and then the other arm through the other and stand there with my arms apart like if the sweater hurts me and it does, all itchy and full of germs that aren’t even mine.

That’s when everything I’ve been holding in since this morning, since when Mrs. Price put the sweater on my desk, finally lets go, and all of a sudden I’m crying in front of everybody. I wish I was invisible but I’m not. I’m eleven and it’s my birthday today and I’m crying like I’m three in front of everybody. I put my head down on the desk and bury my face in my stupid clown-sweater arms. My face all hot and spit coming out of my mouth because I can’t stop the little animal noises from coming out of me until there aren’t any more tears left in my eyes, and it’s just my body shaking like when you have the hiccups, and my whole head hurts like when you drink milk too fast.

But the worst part is right before the bell rings for lunch. That stupid Phyllis Lopez, who is even dumber than Sylvia Saldivar, says she remembers the red sweater is hers. I take it off right away and give it to her, only Mrs. Price pretends like everything’s okay.

Today I’m eleven. There’s a cake Mama’s making for tonight and when Papa comes home from work we’ll eat it. There’ll be candles and presents and everybody will sing Happy Birthday, Happy Birthday to you, Rachel, only it’s too late.

I’m eleven today. I’m eleven, ten, nine, eight, seven, six, five, four, three, two, and one, but

I wish I was one hundred and two. I wish I was anything but eleven. Because I want today to be far away already, far away like a runaway balloon, like a tiny O in the sky, so tiny you have to close your eyes to see it.

By Sandra Cisneros

### **I) Basic level of understanding**

- 1) Summarize the story as you have understood it.
- 2) What happened to Rachel during Mrs. Price class?
- 3) Why does Rachel hope to be one hundred and two?

### **II) Awareness of language use for literary and creative purposes**

- 4) “Because the way you grow old is kind of like an onion or like the rings inside a tree trunk or like my little wooden dolls that fit one inside the other, each year inside the next one. That’s how being eleven years old is”. Notice Rachel’s language, what shows that her language is a child’s language?
- 5) Pick up other examples or similes which show the innocence and the young age of Rachel?
- 6) “Only today I wish I didn’t have only eleven years rattling inside me like pennies in a tin Band-Aid box”. From this example, how does Rachel perceive her age?

### **III) Ability to infer a message or to read between the lines**

- 8) Why did Rachel cry like she was three?
- 9) “only Mrs. Price pretends like everything’s okay”. Is everything OK for Rachel? What does Rachel expect from Mrs. Price?

### **IV) Identification of elements of the short story**

- 9) What is the plot of the story or the main events of the story (the rising events, the conflict, the falling events and the denouement?)
- 10) Who are the secondary characters in the story? Who are the main characters what can you infer about the personality of each of the main characters?

11) Who is narrating the story? What pronoun is used most of the time? What effect does this narration have on you as a reader?

12) What is the main theme or the main message that the writer of the story is delivering in this story? Are there any subthemes? What are they?

**V) Elements of raising a personal literary response**

13) Does the story remind you of another story that you read, a film that you saw or a real life story?

14) Do you feel pity for Rachel? Why?

15) Have you ever experienced something similar to this story?

**VI) Literary production**

16) Continue the story. What happened when Rachel went home?



## Appendix F

### The Experimental Group Pre and Post-LC Test Scores

#### The Experimental Group LC Pre-Test Scores

<i>Score</i> <i>Students'</i> <i>Pseudo Nomes</i>	LC components						Overall Score
	I BLU	II LA	III IMC	IV EF	V ER	VI LP	
<b>Hadjer</b>	4	0.5	2	1	1	1	9.5
<b>Rouba</b>	4	0	2	3	2	1.5	12.5
<b>Wiam</b>	2.5	0.5	0.5	1	1	1	6.5
<b>Bouchra</b>	3.5	1.5	1	2.5	1.5	0	10
<b>Fatima</b>	2.5	2	1	1.5	1	0	8
<b>Hanane</b>	4	2	1.5	4	2	1	14.5
<b>Hamida</b>	3	0	1.5	0.5	0.5	1	6
<b>Lina</b>	3.5	1.5	1	2.5	0.5	1.5	10.5
<b>Faycel</b>	4	3	1.5	4	1	0	13.5
<b>Soumia</b>	3.5	0	0	2	1	1	7.5
<b>Nassim</b>	3	0.5	1	1.5	1	1.5	8.5
<b>Lmia</b>	3	0.5	0	2	1	0	6.5
<b>Mahdi</b>	2	0.5	0	1.5	1.5	1	6.5
<b>Saiida</b>	3	1	0.5	1	1	0	6.5
<b>Othmane</b>	3.5	2	0.5	3.5	1	1	11.5
<b>Ahmed</b>	3	1	0	2	0.5	0	6.5
<b>Reda</b>	3.5	2	1	3	2	1.5	13
<b>Aya</b>	2	1.5	0	2	1.5	2	9
<b>Nadir</b>	2	1.5	1	2	1	1	8.5
<b>Naiim</b>	4	2	1.5	2	1.5	1	12
<b>Means</b>	3.18	1.21	0.88	2.13	1.21	0.84	9.35

**I) Basic Level of Understanding (BLU) 4points**

**II) Language Awareness (LA) 3points**

**III) Infer a message from context (IMC) 3 points**

**IV) Elements of fiction (EF) 5 points**

**V) Elements of literary response (ER)3points**

**VI) Literary production (LP) 2points**

### The Experimental Group LC Post-Test Scores

<i>Score</i> <i>Students'</i> <i>pseudo names</i>	L C Components						overall score
	I BLU	II LA	III IMC	IV EF	V ER	VI LP	
<b>Hadjer</b>	4	2	1	3.5	2	1	12.5
<b>Rouba</b>	4	2	2	4	3	1.5	16.5
<b>Wiam</b>	3	1	1	3	2	1	11
<b>Bouchra</b>	4	2	2	2	1	1	12
<b>Fatima</b>	3.5	2	1	3	2	1	12
<b>Hanane</b>	4	2	2	4	2	2	16
<b>Hamida</b>	3	1.5	2	3	1	1	11.5
<b>Lina</b>	3.5	2	2	4	1	1.5	14
<b>FAYCEL</b>	4	3	2	4	1	1.5	15.5
<b>Soumia</b>	4	1.5	1	3	1	1	11
<b>Nassim</b>	3	2	1	4	2	1.5	13.5
<b>Lmia</b>	3	1	1	3	1	1	11
<b>Mahdi</b>	3	1	0.5	3	1	1.5	10
<b>Saiida</b>	3	2	1	3	2	1	12
<b>Othmane</b>	4	2	2	5	2	1	16
<b>Ahmed</b>	3.5	1	1	3.5	1	1	11
<b>Reda</b>	4	2	1	3.5	2	2	14.5
<b>Aya</b>	3.5	2	1.5	4	1	1	13
<b>Nadir</b>	3	1.5	2	3.5	2	1	12
<b>Naiim</b>	4	2	2	4	1.5	1.5	15
<b>Mean</b>	3.55	1.78	1.45	3.5	1.58	1.25	13.11

**Appendix G**  
**The Control Group Pre and Post LC Test Scores**

**The control group LC Pre-test Scores**

<i>Score</i> <i>Students'</i> <i>Psoudo Nome</i>	<b>L C Components</b>						<b>Overall Score</b>
	<b>I BLU</b>	<b>II LA</b>	<b>III IMC</b>	<b>IV EF</b>	<b>V ER</b>	<b>VI LP</b>	
<b>Meriam</b>	3,5	2	1	3	2	1	12
<b>Abir</b>	3,5	3	0,5	3	0,5	0,5	12
<b>Amal</b>	3	0	1,5	3	1	2	10,5
<b>Amira</b>	3	2,5	0,5	2	1	0	9
<b>Dehane</b>	2	1,5	1,5	1,5	1	1	8,5
<b>Djauade</b>	3	1,5	1	2,5	2	1	11
<b>Djihane</b>	2,5	0	1	1	2	0,5	6,5
<b>Feriel</b>	3	0	0,5	2	1	1	7,5
<b>Hana</b>	4	2,5	0	2,75	1	1	10,25
<b>Hayat</b>	4	2,5	1,5	1	1,5	1	11,25
<b>Imane</b>	3,5	0	1,5	1	1,5	0	6,5
<b>Inas</b>	3,5	1	2	2,5	0,5	0,5	10,25
<b>Kheira</b>	3,5	2	0,5	2,5	1	1	11,5
<b>Mohamed</b>	2,5	0,5	1	1,5	0,5	0,5	6,5
<b>Narimane</b>	3,5	0	1,5	2	1	1	8,5
<b>Nour</b>	4	1	0,5	3,5	2	2	13
<b>Rajaa</b>	2,5	1,5	1	2	1,5	1,5	10
<b>Sami</b>	2	0	0,5	1,5	1	1	6
<b>Sana</b>	3,5	0	2	3,5	0,75	2	11,75
<b>Siham</b>	2,5	1	2	2	2	2	11,75
<b>Means</b>	3,13	1,13	1,08	2,19	1,24	1,03	9,5

### The Control Group LC Post-Test Scores

<i>Score</i> <i>Students' Pseudo Nome</i>	L C Components						Overall Score
	I BLU	II LA	III IMC	IV EF	V ER	VI	
<b>Meriam</b>	4	2	2	4	2	1	14
<b>Abir</b>	3.5	2,5	1	4	2	2	14.5
<b>Amal</b>	3.5	1		3,5	2	1	11,50
<b>Amira</b>	3.5	1	2	3	1	1	10,50
<b>Dehane</b>	3.5	1	1	4	1	1,5	10,00
<b>Djauade</b>	4	2	1,5	3	1	1	13,00
<b>Djihane</b>	3.5	2	1,5	4	2	1	9,00
<b>Feriel</b>	4	2	1,5	4	2	1	10,50
<b>Hana</b>	4	2,5	1,5	4	2	1	12,00
<b>Hayat</b>	4	2,5	1	5	1	2	13,00
<b>Imane</b>	4	2,5	1	3,5	2	1	9,00
<b>Inas</b>	4	2	1,5	4	2	2	12,50
<b>Kheira</b>	4	2	2	3,5	1,5	2	14,00
<b>Mohamed</b>	3	1	1	2,5	2	1	8,50
<b>Narimane</b>	4	1	2	4	1,5	2	10,00
<b>Nour</b>	3	1	1,5	3	2	1	15,50
<b>Rajaa</b>	3.5	2	1	3,5	2	2	12,00
<b>Sami</b>	4	2	1,5	3,5	1,5	1	9,00
<b>Sana</b>	3	1	2	3,5	1	1	13,00
<b>Siham</b>	3.5	2	2	4	1.5	1	14,00
<b>MEAN</b>	3.68	1,75	1,48	3,68	1,66	1,33	

**I) Basic Level of Understanding (BLU) 4points**

**II) Language Awareness (LA) 3points**

**III) Infer a message from context (IMC) 3 points**

**IV) Elements of fiction (EF) 5 points**

**V) Elements of literary response (ER)3points**

**VI) Literary production (LP) 2points**

## Appendix H

### The Readiness for Autonomy in Reading Literary Texts Questionnaire (RFARLTQ)

We are interested in your views concerning the study of literature

Please give us your opinions as indicated below.

Background information

Age: \_\_\_\_\_

Sex: M / F

How long have you been studying English? \_\_\_\_\_

Score in the Baccalaureate English exam: \_\_\_\_\_

Have you taken any international English tests? If yes, what was your score?.....

Please indicate how much you agree with the following statements concerning the study of English literature by circling the number which matches your answer.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Number 0 is an example						
0	I like English food	1	2	3	4	5
1	Literature is an important subject to study at university	1	2	3	4	5
2	Literature written in English can help me improve my language proficiency	1	2	3	4	5
3	Reading literature in English is pleasant and entertaining	1	2	3	4	5
4	Literature in English can help me improve my cultural knowledge	1	2	3	4	5
5	Literature written in English can help me develop my personality	1	2	3	4	5
6	Students who read lots of literature in English can write well in English.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Students who read lots of literature in English have wide vocabulary and can speak well	1	2	3	4	5
8	Literature involves lots of self-study	1	2	3	4	5

9	Reading and understanding a literary text in English can be done without a teacher	1	2	3	4	5
10	I think teachers should give us opportunity to select texts to study for the literature classes	1	2	3	4	5
11	I think the teacher should explain everything about the literary texts	1	2	3	4	5
12	I think the teacher should give us opportunity to decide when and where to read a literary	1	2	3	4	5
13	I think the teacher should give us time to read in class and understand on our own.	1	2	3	4	5
14	I like it when the teacher gives us opportunity to express our thoughts about the literary text	1	2	3	4	5
15	I am a confident reader; I can read and understand literary texts with very little difficulty.	1	2	3	4	5
16	I can manage to read and understand literary texts with some difficulty.	1	2	3	4	5
17	I can guess the general meaning of the literary texts from the context.	1	2	3	4	5
18	My lack of vocabulary can affect my reading and understanding of a literary text.	1	2	3	4	5
19	My level of language does not allow me to read and enjoy literature	1	2	3	4	5
20	I am a slow reader that is why I am not interested in reading literature.	1	2	3	4	5
21	I am not keen on reading literature, I get bored from reading.	1	2	3	4	5
22	I struggle to read literature despite its difficulty	1	2	3	4	5
23	Reading literature is similar to reading a newspaper article or a document.	1	2	3	4	5
24	The literary language is complex and not straightforward, which makes it difficult to read and understand.	1	2	3	4	5
25	The literary language is complex and not straightforward, which makes its reading challenging and interesting.	1	2	3	4	5
26	Literature can contain some ambiguities, which makes it unclear.	1	2	3	4	5
27	Literature can contain some ambiguities, which makes it more fun.	1	2	3	4	5

28	To understand a literary text better, I need to read it many times.	1	2	3	4	5
29	To understand a literary text, its historical background should be known.	1	2	3	4	5
30	My understanding of a literary text can be different from the teacher's understanding.	1	2	3	4	5
31	When I finish reading a literary text, I feel inspired and satisfied.	1	2	3	4	5
32	To improve my literary reading skill, I plan to read other literary texts than the ones in the programme	1	2	3	4	5
33	To improve my literary reading skill, I should start by reading simple literary texts like children short-stories.	1	2	3	4	5

## Appendix I

### SORS Adapted to Literary texts

The purpose of this survey is to collect information about the various techniques you use when reading a literary text. All the items below refer to your reading of a literary text (the short story, novella, novel)

Each statement is followed by five numbers, 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5, and each number means the following:

'1' means that 'I never or almost never do this'.

'2' means that 'I do this only occasionally'.

'3' means that 'I sometimes do this'. (About 50% of the time.)

'4' means that 'I usually do this'

'5' means that 'I always or almost always do this'.

After reading each statement, circle the number (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) which applies to you. Note that there is no right or wrong response to any of the items

Category	Statement	Never				always
GLOB 1.	I read with the writer's purpose in my mind.	1	2	3	4	5
SUP 2.	I take notes of the important events in the story.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB 3.	I think about the writer's life and his country to help me understand.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB 4.	I take an overall view of the story to determine what it is about before reading it.	1	2	3	4	5
SUP 5.	When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB 6.	I think about whether the content and the details of the text serve the purpose of the writer.	1	2	3	4	5
PROB 7.	I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB 8.	Before reading, I guess what the story is about from the title.	1	2	3	4	5
PROB 9.	I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	1	2	3	4	5
SUP 10.	I highlight significant quotations and information for the meaning of the story.	1	2	3	4	5
PRO 11.	I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB 12.	When reading, I decide what to read closely and what to read quickly.	1	2	3	4	5
SUP 13.	I use reference materials such as glossaries and dictionaries to help me understand what I read.	1	2	3	4	5
PROB 14.	When the text becomes difficult, I pay closer	1	2	3	4	5



	attention to what I am reading.					
GLOB 15.	I use pictures if there are any to increase my understanding.	1	2	3	4	5
PROB 16.	I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB 17.	I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading.	1	2	3	4	5
SUP 18.	I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I read.	1	2	3	4	5
PROB 19.	I picture and visualize events and characters to understand and remember.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB 20.	I pay attention to typographical features like bold face, quotation marks, and italics to identify their purpose in the text.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB 21.	I compare events and characters in the text with real events and characters.	1	2	3	4	5
SUP 22.	I go back and forth in the text to find motivations, causations, feelings, and relationship between events.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB 23.	I check my understanding when I come across new events or information.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB 24.	I try to guess what the story is about when I read					
PROB 25.	When the text becomes difficult, I re-read to increase my understanding.	1	2	3	4	5
SUP 26.	I constantly make hypotheses and guesses about what is going to happen and what I am going to read.	1	2	3	4	5
GLOB 27.	I check my hypotheses and guesses as I am reading and reformulate new ones.	1	2	3	4	5
PROB 28.	When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words and phrases.	1	2	3	4	5
SUP 29.	When reading, I translate from English into my native language.	1	2	3	4	5
SUP 30.	When reading, I refer to my knowledge about literature both in English and my mother tongue.	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for your contribution

**N.B.: the category of the strategy does not appear in the version administered to the students in order not to confuse the participants**

## **Appendix J**

### **Protocol of the Semi-structured interview**

Interview Protocol for Attitude toward literature Reading and literature in general conducted with members from the experimental and the control group just before the end of the experiment

- 1) Do you think that literature is an important subject to study as part of your English degree?
- 2) In your opinion, what are the benefits of studying literature?
- 2) What does literary reading involve?
- 3) What are the main roles of the teacher in the literature classroom?
- 4) What are the most important activities of the literature classroom?
- 5) What do you think of reading literature and your ability of reading literature now compared to what it was before the beginning of the course?
- 6) What do you think of the content (the literary texts) of this literature course?
- 7) What do you plan to do to improve your literary reading?

## Appendix K

### The Read Aloud Protocol Instructions

#### Instructions

This is a Read-aloud exercise where you have to speak your thoughts aloud. Read the following story and stop at each sign  to speak out your thoughts. If you are informed, surprised, happy or sad, say it loud whenever the sign is provided. You can express these thoughts in any language you are comfortable with (English, French, or Arabic).

#### The Unicorn in the Garden

James Thurber

Once upon a sunny morning a man who sat in a breakfast nook looked up from his scrambled eggs to see a white unicorn with a golden horn quietly cropping the roses in the garden. The man went up to the bedroom where his wife was still asleep and woke her. "There's a unicorn in the garden," he said. "Eating roses. .."  She opened one unfriendly eye and looked at him. "The unicorn is a mythical beast," she said, and turned her back on him. The man walked slowly downstairs and out into the garden. The unicorn was still there; he was now browsing among the tulips. "Here, unicorn," said the man and pulled up a lily and gave it to him. The unicorn ate it gravely. With a high heart, because there was a unicorn in his garden, the man went upstairs and roused his wife again. "The unicorn," he said, "ate a lily." His wife sat up in bed and looked at him, coldly. "You are a booby," she said, "and I am going to have you put in a booby-hatch.  " The man, who never liked the words "booby" and "booby-hatch," and who liked them even less on a shining morning when there was a unicorn in the garden, thought for a moment. "We'll see about that," he said. He walked over to the door. "He has a golden horn in the middle of

his forehead, "he told her. Then he went back to the garden to watch the unicorn; but the unicorn had gone away. The man sat among the roses and went to sleep.

And as soon as the husband had gone out of the house, the wife got up and dressed as fast as she could. She was very excited and there was a gloat in her eye. She telephoned the police and she telephoned the psychiatrist; she told them to hurry to her house and bring a strait-jacket.  Then the police and the psychiatrist looked at her with great interest. "My husband," she said, "saw a unicorn this morning." The police looked at the psychiatrist and the psychiatrist looked at the police. "He told me it ate a lily," she said. The psychiatrist looked at the police and the police looked at the psychiatrist. "He told me it had a golden horn in the middle of its forehead," she said.

At a solemn signal from the signal from the psychiatrist, the police leaped from their chairs and seized the wife. They had a hard time subduing her, for she put up a terrific struggle, but they finally subdued her.  Just as they got her into the strait-jacket, the husband came back into the house. "Did you tell your wife you saw a unicorn?" asked the police. "Of course not," said the husband. "The unicorn is a mythical beast." "That's all I wanted to know," said the psychiatrist. "Take her away. I'm sorry, sir, but your wife is as crazy as a jay bird." So

they took her away, cursing and screaming, and shut her up in an institution. The husband lived happily ever after.

Moral: Don't count your boobies until they are hatched

## Appendix L

### Extracts from the Read-Aloud Protocol of a student from the Experimental group

The title 'The Unicorn in the Garden' I can guess its fiction from the title, James Thurber is the author. OK reading from "once upon a sunny morning" to "opened one unfriendly eye and looked at him. As there are many difficult words for me. I don't understand the word cropping, but I understand later that it is eating. Perhaps, I'll read again the first sentence "nook" I don't know what is nook. Reading again from " Once upon a sunny morning" to "turned her back on him" So his wife can't believe him. Reading from "the man walked slowly" to "we'll see about that". I am a bit confused, just because it is the first reading, but his garden seems very nice I think. There is roses and lilies and (laugh) many flowers. Reading from "he has a golden horn" to "sat among the roses and went asleep" re-reading the last sentence. Reading from "as soon as the husband" to "there was a gloat in her eye" gloat is a difficult word, I don't know this word. At the beginning she didn't believe, but I guess later she got excited to see the unicorn. Reading "she telephoned the police and she telephoned the psychiatrist" Ahh laugh reading "she told them to bring a straight jacket" a straight jacket, I think is the cloth we put for ill mental , *c'est la camisole, c'est la camisole voila (French)*. Reading "my husband she said" quand ils parlent c'est très court, the didcourse is not very detailed. Reading "my husband she said" to "seized the wife" they thought it was the wife who was ill. Reading from "they had a hard time subduing her" to " I am sorry sir , but your wife is as crazy as a jay bird" Laugh "they took her away cursing and screaming" till "moral don't count your boobies until they are hatched". At the beginning, it seems that it is a fairy tale, but then I understood that there is a problem in this couple. The husband was not happy with his wife, so he created *a bizzar story juste pour se débarassé d'elle en faite ( French)*. But a second reading will make things clearer. So I am going to read again, and this time I'll use a dictionary.

## Appendix M

### Extracts from the Read-Aloud Protocol of a Student from the Control Group

“The Unicorn in the Garden” James Thurber. I think the story is about a unicorn الحديقة في  
وحيد القرن وحش . Reading from “once upon a sunny morning” till “and turn her back on  
him” translation في يوم مشمس

Once upon time a sunny morning a man who sat in a breakfast nook looked up from  
his scrambled eggs to see a white unicorn with a golden horn quietly cropping the roses in  
the garden. The man went up to the bedroom where his wife was still asleep and woke her.  
“There’s a unicorn in the garden,” he said. “Eating roses.” She opened one unfriendly eye  
and looked at him. Aaah, La première paragraph في نهار مشمش ناض الصباح راجل كان يتقهوى في  
الحديقة تاعه، طل مور الطبسي تاع البيض تاعه شاف وحش عنده قرن واحد، شغل قعد ياكل فيهم، ياكل في الأزهار،  
there is a unicorn نوضها وقالها there is a unicorn in the garden عند المدام تاعه قالها

“The unicorn is a mythical beast,” she said, and turned her back on him. The man  
walked slowly downstairs and out into the garden. The unicorn was still there; now he was  
browsing among the tulips. “Here, unicorn,” said the man, and he pulled up a lily and gave  
it to him. The unicorn ate it gravely. With a high heart, because there was a unicorn in his  
garden, the man went upstairs and roused his wife again. “The unicorn,” he said, “ate a  
lily.” His wife sat up in bed and looked at him coldly. “You are a booby,” she said, “and I  
am going to have you put in the booby-hatch.”

The man, who had never liked the words “booby” and “booby-hatch,” and who  
liked them even less on a shining morning when there was a unicorn in the garden, thought  
for a moment. “We’ll see about that,” he said. He walked over to the door. “He has a  
golden horn in the middle of his forehead,” he told her. Ten he went back to the garden to  
watch the unicorn; but the unicorn had gone away. The man sat down among the roses and  
went to sleep.

As soon as the husband has gone out of the house, the wife got up and dressed as  
fast as she could. She was very excited and there was a gloat in her eye. She telephoned the  
police and she telephoned a psychiatrist; she told them to hurry to her house and bring a

strait-jacket. When the police and the psychiatrist arrived they sat down in chairs and looked at her, with great interest.

“My husband,” she said, “saw a unicorn this morning.” The police looked at the psychiatrist and the psychiatrist looked at the police. “He told me it ate a lilly,” she said. The psychiatrist looked at the police and the police looked at the psychiatrist. “He told me it had a golden horn in the middle of its forehead,” she said. At a solemn signal from the psychiatrist, the police leaped from their chairs and seized the wife. They had a hard time subduing her, for she put a terrific struggle, but they finally subdued her. Just as they got her into the strait-jacket, the husband came back into the house.

“Did you tell your wife you saw a unicorn?” asked the police. “Of course not,” said the husband. “The unicorn is a mythical beast.” “That’s all wanted to know,” said the psychiatrist. “Take her away. I’m sorry, sir, but your wife is as crazy as a jaybird.”

So sorry took her away, cursing and screaming, and shut her up in an institution. The husband lived happily ever after.

Moral: Don’t count your boobies until they are hatched.

ناض الصباح يشرب القهوة، شاف وحش عنده قرن ياكل في الأزهار، وراح يجري عند المدام تاعه

## Appendix O

### Some of the Experimental Group Students' Tasks as delivered by the students

**Eveline's Post-reading Task**

**student B. Abir**

#### **THE END**

Eveline run, through the crowd, away from Frank, away from the oceans and from a new life. Frank kept on shouting her name, begging her to come, like his life depends on her, asking her why she is doing this. This made her feel so guilty. She knows that many eyes are on her but she didn't care, she couldn't care. She run and run, trying to escape to a place she herself didn't know, she run like running would solve everything.

The young woman takes a look at the door before opening it. She doesn't even know how she made it here. She takes a look inside and sighed, was this the right decision? It must be! Now that she chose to stay, that she rejected to leave and neglect her life despite the hardness, despite the unfairness of people around her, she has to accept it as it is, she has to deal with it, like she had always done, without regret.

she broke into cold sweat when she remembered the letters she left on the livingroom table, near the window. Eveline rushed to it hoping that they are still there untouched; However, her breath hitched when she saw her father there, lying his head on the table and the letter on his hand.

'Did he fall asleep on the table?' She asked herself and took a step forward on her tip toes, afraid to wake him up.

As soon as she was beside him, she could smell alcohol. He was drunk.

Eveline took the letters and rip it into pieces and went to her small room.

she set at the bed, all memories from the past rushed into her mind.

She remebered the first time she moved to this room and how her brother was dissappointed, how her mother laughed at his childish behaviours and they all started laughing together untill they heard the arival of her father. Those memories made her smile bitterly. she doesn't remember when was the last time she laughed, or at least smiled genuinly, when was the last time she felt happy.

Now that she refused to let go of her life, that she took the right choice, the wiser. she should be happy, shouldn't she? She should be satisfied with her decision. But why the feelings still lingered. Why the weight on her shoulder didn't go.



As she laid her head in the pillow and closed her eyes, she knows that tomorrow would be just another day of her miserable life, although she wished, she begged and prayed to god that when she wakes up the following day, things would be better. isn't this her home? home, the first place people go to when life is unfair, where they go when they feel alone. home where people go to rest their bones. this is her home. the home she's been trying to keep together all these years.  
she should be happy, however it is. She can try, right?, Right.  
'i will be happy' was the last thing she said to herself before she drifted off to sleep.

"Eve! Hurry up dad is coming!" Ernest shouted at her, she went back to bring her doll. Once she picked it, she run as fast as she can so she can reach her brother. They run together to the house and into the living room.

"Your father is coming?! Did he see you?! I told not to go out now he will never stop talking about this." Her mother scolded them in a hushed voice.

As soon as they sat down, the front door opened and their father stepped in. They acted like they were talking, in hope that he wouldn't punish them. Hopefully, he hang his scarf and coat on the clothes-hanger and went straight to the bedroom.

Ernest and Eveline looked at their mother and she stared back. Then, out of nowhere, they started laughing.

"Come on eve help mom prepare dinner." The woman ordered her daughter while she was on her way to the kitchen.

Eveline sat up and followed her mother; however; she didn't find her there.

"Mom, where are you?" Eveline called, but there was no answer. She went out of the kitchen to find her mother, alongside with her brother and father, holding hands and going out of the house.

"Take care evy!" Her father said, smiling at her. She wanted to shout and call for them to wait for her but her voice, she couldn't find her voice, she couldn't run after them as if she was rooted to the ground. Her mother turned and smiled at her as well.

"Take care evy....." and they disappeared.

Eveline gasped when she opened her eyes, the same dream she has been dreaming all these days for two weeks, from the night she came back home from the station where she was about to escape till now. Her life didn't change, nothing ever changed from that time. She expected her father to get angry, to shout at her and to even beat her for the letters she left, for thinking about escaping with that man, for abandoning her family and her home. But he seem like he forgot it.

she maintained her daily life activities. like any other day. She goes to the shop, keep up with Miss Gavan's demeanor, go back home and the something everyday. The dusk, however, tiers her more than before. Now she has to dust it twice a week. apart from that the only thing thing that changed is her father bringing groceries on saturday. She appreciates it, she decided to appreciate every little change that would happen because this is her life, the life she decided to live.

Eveline wondered how is Frank, she is sure that he will be okay with his life. She wouldn't have brought him so much happiness if she went with him anyway.

She tried to keep hope, but that's hard when nightmares had been chasing her everyday, the same dream. The same events..... Eveline head snapped. The dream was different this time! Her father was in her dream this time!

She got up from her bed on lightning speed, rushing to go to her father's room, but she didn't make it to the bedroom when she saw him, lying his head on the table, a paper on his hand. The view reminded her of when she came back home that night.

'D-dad?' She took a step forward, she could smell alcohol just like last time. She didn't know why but she is no longer afraid of him waking up. She doesn't know why but she felt it, the connection between her father and her. Maybe it's because for the first time, she decided to accept her life as it is. Or maybe that he started bringing groceries on Saturday. She took one step closer, now that she is just beside him, she called once more time "Dad, wake up". And still there was no response. She touched his shoulder and shook him slightly. 'He must be really drunk' Eveline thought to herself and shook him more, no response.

she held his shoulders and laid him back to rest his back on the sofa so he could wake up and look at her and that's when she noticed, he isn't moving, he isn't responding to her, his body is lifeless... he is not breathing.

"DAD WAKE UP!" she unconsciously slapped him, tears running down her cheeks like a flow, her whole body trumbling like a leaf on a windy day.

"Dad wake up! Please, don't leave please." She begged, cried for him to wake up. This couldn't happen, the only person that she had is no more here. She wished that he wasn't so dear to her heart. Despite his attitude, despite his threats, despite his lack as a father. She loves him fully. He can't leave her, not now at least, not when she begin to try harder for him, for them. Not when she thought that maybe, maybe life is finally opening up to her.

Doesn't everyone deserve happiness? Is she an exception? Why everytime she tries to go up just a little, life drag her down to the bottom.

she felt paralyzed and numb. her head was swaying and she felt like throwing up, it's too much. With shaky hands and blurred vision, the girl took paper that was on her father's hand. It was a letter, the first and the last letter from her father.

Dear EVELINE,

I am writing you this letter because i do know that these are my last few days left. I've never been good at apologies, but I have been pretty good at saying something harsh in the moment out of anger. I've been like that my whole life, my temper is short and my patience is even shorter. I have never been the father you and your brothers ever wanted, i know. I am sorry, for always treating you bad, for always putting the blame on you, for always neglecting you and my duties as a father and even as a human. I am sorry for not being brave enough to apologize directly. I am sorry because I personally believe that there are some things that an apology will never fix, i know it is too late to apologies.

You didn't deserve that, your mother didn't deserve that, no one deserves that. If someone did what I did to you, to me, I would feel worse than I do now.

I have been so bad to you when you were all a father would ask for, you deserve the world evy. I have always kept you from reaching your happiness and im sorry for that.

That time you decided to escape with Frank, i wished, i wished you would go with him, i prayed that you would go and live your life and get the happiness you truly deserve, but no you didn't go, you stayed and i took that as a sign to try and make it up to you but i failed and i guess i don't deserve such an opportunity, such a chance. I don't deserve your forgiveness.

Please live your life now, that im gone. please be happy in your life as much as you can. let go of your sorrow and stop caring for others too much, you need to let go now to find your happiness.

You've done enough, for us and for everyone. Now it's your turn, do whatever makes you happy. and remember, you are never alone, your mother is always looking after you from above. Now please promise me, promise your mother that you'll be happy. at least try to be happy.

please live in peace and take care.

"I promise."

**END**

Student: Y. Hayet

March

10th, 2020

### **The Happy Prince Post-reading task: an Algerian story about kindness**

#### **Cowhide**

Once upon a time, there was a sultan who had two wives who did not give him children. On the advice of his astrologer, he got married a third time. This third wife had seen in a dream that she was holding in her arms a moon crossed by a ray of light. As she was pregnant, she told her concubines about it:  
- According to this good omen, I will give birth to a boy with a strand of golden hair on his forehead.

This premonition aroused the jealousy of the two wives. They plotted and on the day of the delivery, they appealed to the damned old 'Settoute' instead of a midwife. As predicted, the mother gave birth to a handsome little boy with a wick of gold on his forehead. Settoute replaced him with a puppy and carried him under his veil.

The sultan was impatient to see the baby with the golden wick when his first two wives handed him the puppy, announcing to him with a devastated air:  
- You married a monster, that's the fruit of his entrails.  
- What? A woman who gives birth to an animal deserves to live with animals. Dress her in cowhide and tie her with the beasts, yelled the sultan.

The poor mother in childbirth had not had time to see her child. Accused of being a monster, she found herself among the beasts. To get rid of the baby, Settoute put it in a basket and delivered it to the sea. Fortunately, the waves soon dumped it on a secluded beach in the exact spot where a very poor fisherman prepared his nets. The basket glittering in the sun caught her eye. He approached it and discovered the child with gold on the pillow. As he had no children, at the height of happiness, he ran to bring it to his wife:  
- Our house is filled! Heaven has sent us a son! A son with gold on his head. We are overwhelmed.

The fisherman and his wife became wealthy. All they had to do was sell the gold collected every morning on the boy's pillow at the souk. Time passed in happiness and peace and the child grew in age, intelligence and beauty. One day, one of his comrades after a stampede, shouted contemptuously at him:  
- Who do you think you are? You're just the son of the wave. These words plunged the young man into deep melancholy. He complained to his parents. The fisherman and his wife told him the whole truth:  
- God is our witness, we love you like our child, but it's time that you find your real family. Go! Our blessing is with you. Trace your origins.  
- I will come back if the sky gives me life! Promised the young man.

He got on his horse and hit the road. He travels a long, long time. He crossed prosperous cities, arid regions, unknown countries. Finally, at the end of many adventures, chance led him to his father's sultanate. When he heard the story of Cowhide, that sultan's

wife who gave birth to a puppy instead of a golden wicked son, he recognized his mother! So he was a prince! And as he was rich and of noble appearance, he managed to be invited by the sultan. He presented himself at the palace with a trunk. This trunk contained sumptuous clothes, balms, soaps and perfumes. After dinner, he caused the sultan's surprise when he asked him:

- Sire, allow this creature called Cowhide to come and sleep in these apartments that you put at my disposal.
- You don't think about it my friend! She's not a human being! Objected the sultan.
- Sire, I ask you as a favor in the name of the hospitality that you grant me.
- Alright! As you wish! But tomorrow, after your departure, she will return with the animals.

The prince said nothing more and received Cowhide, which fell asleep, for the first time, in a long time, under cover. During the night, he woke her up discreetly, opened his trunk and asked her to take what she needs:

- This is something to wash, style, scent and dress yourself. The hour of truth has come.

The poor woman obeyed without understanding what was happening to her. A moment later, she appeared dressed in magnificent kaftans. She sparkled. It was then that the young man took off his turban and announced to her in a voice full of emotion:

- Look at my forehead! I am your son and you are my mother! You never gave birth to a puppy.

She threw herself into his arms. The cries of joy alerted the sultan who came running. He was amazed to see with his guest a beautiful woman, more beautiful than the sun. He believed himself the victim of some Djinn who had come to disturb his mind when his host revealed the truth to him by taking off his turban for the second time:

- My lord! I am your son and this woman is my mother. Look at my hair.

Thus, nothing prevented the truth from revealing itself. The two concubines were driven out, exiled forever. Then the Sultan, after the forgiveness, organized a new marriage

with the one he had so unjustly punished. . The prince did not forget his adoptive parents whom he brought with him. And they all lived happily together for a long time.

### **Commentary on the story:**

The story of Cowhide is an old Algerian tale, which speaks about injustice, jealousy, kindness and truth.

### **The post-reading tasks of Kate Chopin's the Story of an Hour**

#### **2) Do you feel sympathy for Mrs. Mallard?**

- Yes, feel sympathy for Mrs. Mallard because Mr. Mallard is a typical husband in the late 19th century and his wife feels entrapped and unloved, as soon as she view the end of the tunnel and taste the elixir of freedom, she dies.

#### **3) Do you know Algerian feminist writers? What do they write about?**

Assia Djebar and Meissa Bey. They also about Algerian women conditions.

**4) Continue the story making Mr. Mallard the hero; he is the main character of “ The story of an End and a Beginning ”. Say what he thinks about his wife and what he thinks about his future as a widower Begin like this “As soon as Mrs. Mallard saw her husband she fainted unconscious, everybody tried to wake her up but in vain. They called the doctor and while the doctor was on the way Richard explained to Brently what had happened in the midst of Josephine's crying.**

### **The Story of an End and a Beginning**

**By L1 student with some of the teacher's remarks and corrections**

As soon as Mrs. Mallard saw her husband she fainted unconscious, everybody tried to wake her up but in vain. They called the doctor and while the doctor was on the way Richard explain to Brently what had happened in the midst of Josephine's crying. Seeing his wife like a statue he didn't believe that she was (dead)died until the verdict of the doctor came, she had died of heart disease—of joy that kills. At that moment, his whole life was turned upside down, Brently became a widower. He decides to isolate himself in his room to try to digest the news.

The room was cold and silent, what will I become without you Louise? I loved you so much he says and bursts into tears. After a few minutes without moving, he goes to the window and breathes (~~deeply~~) a ~~big~~ blow, his gaze goes far away, very far at the top of distant mountains, how will I go up the slope? Then he swept the room with his eyes he could still smell her perfume, her dress was on the bed, her hairbrush on the dressing table, her medicine on the bedside table that reminded him the illness that had ripped off his wife. The scene of Louise's death didn't want to leave his mind.

Exhausted, Brently relaxes on the roomy armchair, closes his eyes and lets himself be carried away by the spring breeze that came from the window. He realizes that this fatigue has been going on for a long time, the burden of having a sick and fragile wife was becoming too heavy to carry, it was no longer the same woman he married, he had the impression that she was aging faster, she could no longer provide household chores properly and too fragile to have children. Richard has four children and his wife, who is almost Louise's age, is still radiant.

Lots of questions were going through Mr. Mallard's head, this death may have shortened Louise's suffering, was she really happy with me? It is true! She was not very demonstrative of his love for me and then ... finally I fear that it was the shock that I am alive that killed her! Why didn't her heart give up when she knew that I was supposedly dead?

He opened his eyes, a slight smile on his lips he ~~got~~ gets up, puts his jacket on his shoulder, ~~left~~ leaves the room and closes the door gently, he decent the stairs, passing in front of Richard and Josephine without even looking at them he heads for exit, open the door, pause before putting on his hat and close the door behind him. Free, free, I'm free he whispers.

## «L'EFFET DES MATÉRIAUX CONÇUS PAR TÂCHES SUR L'AUTONOMIE DES ÉTUDIANTS DE PREMIÈRE ANNÉE L.M.D DANS LA LECTURE DE TEXTES LITTÉRAIRES »

### Résumé :

La promotion de l'autonomie de l'apprenant est devenue une entreprise éducative répandue à tous les niveaux d'enseignement. La littérature est l'une des matières qui impliquent un niveau élevé d'autonomie vis-à-vis des étudiants et des lecteurs en général. Malheureusement, l'enseignement de la littérature dans le cursus EFL algérien au niveau tertiaire ne favorise pas chez les étudiants l'habitude de lire de manière autonome. Par conséquent, dans une tentative de trouver des outils pédagogiques appropriés pour favoriser l'autonomie des étudiants de première année LMD d'anglais dans la lecture de textes littéraires, cette étude a mis en œuvre l'approche pédagogique par tâches sous forme de supports de tâches aux étudiants de première année LMD. L'étude se réfère à l'utilisation d'une expérience avec des méthodes qualitatives et quantitatives et les résultats prouvent la pertinence des matériaux conçus à base de tâches dans la promotion de l'autonomie en littérature pour les étudiants de première année.

**Mots clés :** *matériaux conçus en fonction des tâches, textes littéraires, autonomie.*

## « THE EFFECT OF TASK-BASED DESIGNED MATERIALS ON FIRST-YEAR L.M.D STUDENTS' AUTONOMY IN READING LITERARY TEXTS »

### Abstract :

Promoting learner autonomy has become a widespread educational endeavour at all educational levels. Literature is one of the subjects that involve high levels of autonomy from the students and the readers in general. Unfortunately, the teaching of literature in the Algerian EFL curriculum at the tertiary level does not foster in students the habit of reading independently. Therefore, in an attempt to find appropriate pedagogical tools to promote first-year LMD students of English autonomy in reading literary texts, this study implemented the task-based teaching approach in the form of task-based materials to first-year LMD students. The study refers to the use of an experiment together with qualitative and quantitative methods and the findings prove the relevance of task-based designed materials in promoting autonomy in literature for first-year students.

**Key words :** *task-based designed materials, literary texts, autonomy.*

"تأثير المواد المصممة على أساس المهام في استقلالية طلاب السنة الأولى لنظام ليسانس ماستر دكتوراه في قراءة النصوص الأدبية"  
المخلص:

أصبح تعزيز استقلالية المتعلم مسعى تعليمي واسع الانتشار على جميع المستويات التعليمية. الأدب هو أحد الموضوعات التي تنطوي على مستويات عالية من الاستقلالية عن الطلاب والقراءة بشكل عام. لسوء الحظ، فإن تدريس الأدب في منهج اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية في الجزائر على مستوى التعليم العالي لا يعزز لدى الطلاب عادة القراءة المستقلة. لذلك، في محاولة لإيجاد أدوات تربوية مناسبة لتشجيع طلاب السنة الأولى استقلالية اللغة الإنجليزية في قراءة النصوص الأدبية، نفذت هذه الدراسة نهج التدريس القائم على المهام في شكل مواد قائمة على المهام لطلاب السنة الأولى ليسانس ماستر دكتوراه. تشير الدراسة إلى استخدام تجربة جنباً إلى جنب مع الأساليب الكمية والنوعية وتثبت النتائج أهمية المواد المصممة القائمة على المهام في تعزيز الاستقلالية في الأدب لطلاب السنة الأولى.

**كلمات مفتاحية:** المواد المصممة القائمة على المهام، النصوص الأدبية، الاستقلالية