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Department of English language and Literature

**Teachers' Appraisal of Affective Strategies in Teaching
Foreign Language Oral Tasks.**

**The Case of Three Algerian Universities (Constantine, Biskra, and
Oum El Bouaghi)**

Thesis submitted to the Department of English Language and Literature in
candidacy for the degree of Doctorat Es-Sciences in Applied Linguistics and
English Language Teaching

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Dedications

I dedicate this work to

My parents

My brothers and sisters

My friends

My colleagues

My students

And all people who supported me

One day

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Abstract

The problematic issue of teachers' effectiveness is highly linked to their motivation and affect. On one hand, to be affective, one has to possess certain qualities at the different stages of the teaching/ learning process. Teacher quality is not only the prerequisites but also everything they do. On the other hand, to enhance motivation and communication, teachers should involve learners in every class activity where they have less teaching and focus their attention on the learners. Therefore, some learner-centred methods should be implemented such as task-based teaching which takes into account some aspects of motivation, confidence, anxiety, language ability, and the learning setting. In such a complex problem of teaching Oral Expression, the aim of the study was to explore teachers' appraisal of affective strategies in teaching foreign language tasks so as to answer the following question: do teachers use a task-based design and whether they appraise affective strategies in teaching foreign language oral tasks. The study hypothesizes that when teachers appraise affective strategies, they would reach affective teaching. This main hypothesis needed to be checked by three underlying hypotheses: when teachers appraise affective strategies and use task based teaching, their teaching quality would be enhanced, their practices would be effective; and they would reach the objectives of learner-centeredness. The study was conducted in three Algerian Universities through a mixed method using the concurrent triangulation design. The data collected revealed that there is a huge gap in teacher quality which led to a deficiency in their practice. To compensate that shortage in teacher quality and education, alternative solutions might fill in the gap and solve some problems. By the end of this research, two software tools were designed to help teachers to evaluate their cognition and practice as well as to be evaluated by others. Further, a model of sample motivating tasks was provided based on the self-system model and task-based design.

List of Abbreviations

ARCS: Attention Relevance Confidence and Satisfaction

IDRA: Intercultural Development Research Association

L2: Second or Foreign Language

NA: Not Available

OfSTED: Office for Standards In Education

T: Teacher

TBL: Task Based Learning

TEFL: Teaching English as Foreign Language

Vam: Value Added Modelling

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General Introduction

1. Aim of the study

This study aims to examine language teachers' appraisal of affective strategies and to assess how often each strategy is used in the participating teachers' own practice in teaching oral tasks at English department of three Algerian universities: Biskra, Constantine, and Oum Elbouaghi). Under teachers' appraisal, two domains are considered. On the one hand, the study attempts to shed light on teachers' awareness, knowledge and self-evaluation, i.e. teachers' cognition as referred to by Borg and metacognition by other researchers. On the other hand, it attempts to explore and evaluate teachers' practice of affective strategies in teaching oral tasks as well as teachers' qualities during the process of Oral tasks teaching.

2. Statement of the Problem

Many factors contribute to a student's learning, including individual characteristics and family and others' experiences. However, research suggests that, among school-related factors, teachers matter most. The literature showed that to improve educational outcomes, effective schools need a quality teaching force. Quality teaching is represented by quality teachers who are one of the most important school-related factors found to facilitate student learning. In any school, teachers are central, and the majority of education policy discussions focus directly or indirectly on the role of teachers.

Teaching techniques used by teachers carry ideological beliefs and are thus more than just classroom behaviours. The dominant view is that effective teachers have a broad

repertoire of skills and techniques which they use in skillful ways to meet the changing needs of classroom demands and learners' needs. In this research, we started with the belief that to be affective, a teacher should be effective first. To be an affective teacher, one has to be effective at the different levels of the teaching/learning process: personal attributes, classroom management, and organization, implementing instruction and monitoring learners' success which can be reflected in teachers' practice of particular strategies. We believe that teachers' effectiveness cannot be based on schools they attended, certificate they hold or the number of teaching years. For instance, there are some teachers who are highly effective although they do not have some of these qualities just as some teachers are not effective even though they have all of them. Thus, the best way to assess teachers' effectiveness can be through looking at qualities related to teachers' performance during the process and their reflections on learners' progress. In fact, this is the real problem at the Algerian university where there is no teachers' evaluation, observation or appraisal.

To be able to explore quality and teachers' practice, tasks are selected to be the scope of the study because of two reasons. First, in a Task Based Learning (TBL) lesson, the teacher builds activities on the completion of a central task and the language determined by what happens during task completion rather than determining the aspect of language to be studied. TBL as an approach is believed to be advantageous in many ways for being active, communicative where students spend much time communicating where they are not expected to have language control. Further, a natural context is developed from the students' experiences with the language that is personalized and relevant to them in which students can have a more varied exposure to the language. They will be exposed to different language aspects such as lexical phrases, collocations, and patterns as well as language forms. Moreover, the language explored arises from the students' needs that

dictate what has to be taught in the lesson instead of what is decided by the teacher or the course-book. Finally and most importantly, it is enjoyable and motivating.

Second, unlike a whole lesson or activity, tasks include specific situations (stages) where teacher quality can be examined with consideration of the different affective (motivational) strategies used and the type of motivation students convey. From a traditional viewpoint, L2 motivation was treated in a general sense focusing on general dispositions of learners towards learning the L2; recently, studies have shifted emphasis towards a more situated approach that concerns how student motivation is reflected in real classroom events and processes. By focusing on tasks, the learning process can be broken down into discrete segments with well-defined boundaries (researchable behavioural units that have a well-definable profile). Dornyei considers tasks as basic instructional variables or building blocks of classroom learning. He adds that, for research purposes, they can be used as "logical models that describe what students are doing in classrooms and the context of their actions" (Dornyei 2002, 137). Therefore, the micro perspective is more suitable for an education where motivation can be defined through learners' behaviours in particular learning situations. As a result of this perception, this 'situation-specific' approach is the new emerging perspective on motivation. For these mentioned reasons, this study attempted to make a link between the two and study motivation and teachers' qualities in a situation-specific as a way to demystify the different motivational strategies needed for successful language tasks.

It is common in Algeria that teachers start with a part time status, then probation after a few months and then permanent status. In all these stages, the teacher would not expect anyone to come for observation, any evaluation or decision. All teachers know that they are officially recruited and probation stage is just a formality. Moreover, teachers

know that there is no appraisal system; accordingly you work more or less, you will get the same report and same salary. If it is not the case, the concerned teachers will make effort to prepare teacher's file or portfolio including lesson plans, materials, students' follow-up reports, students' assessment and all pedagogical documents. Also, they will be ready and alerted all time for observation by a colleague or administration staff.

Despite what has been said above, teachers' evaluation is one of the most neglected aspects in the Algerian higher education system though to achieve professional growth in any institution, we need strong evaluation systems that provide specific, timely and actionable feedback with reference to clear professional practice. Evaluation provides feedback about strengths and weakness of teachers as well as about lesson plans and students' needs in terms of resources, materials and management. Unfortunately, in the Algerian higher education system, evaluation is done from a general scope for different purposes such as getting performance bonus or internal leave (e.g. 'Stage' or conference participation). Additionally, the criteria which are used to evaluate the concerned teachers have no relation with their classroom practice or learners' outcomes. For example, in the Executive Decree 10-252, issued on the 20th October 2010 which is followed by all universities, the criteria of teachers' evaluation are related to time, calendar, collaboration, students evaluation and integrating technology (See appendix).

The evaluation checklist (rubric) designed by the ministry of higher education is based on a very general scope excluding teachers' actions and work in the classroom; rather, a score of 40 points is given to the total for non measurable criteria. Thus, evaluation can be very subjective and context related. The criteria are: (1) respecting duty timing (20 points), (2) respecting deadlines for the pedagogical planning (5 points), (3) effective collaboration with pedagogical and scientific committees (6 points), (4) collaboration in students' evaluation (7 points) and (5) integrating technology in teaching

and research (2 points). Based on these criteria, it is clear that teacher quality is perceived to cover only some professional qualities that serve the administration more than the student and learning outcomes. Many teachers get good scores because of coming on time, responding to administration requests, attending exams and participating in department activities even if their practice in the classroom is ineffective. Thus, teachers' qualities in real teaching such as personal attributes with students, classroom management and organization, implementing instruction and monitoring students' success and potential are totally absent in the grid.

In case of problems addressed by students, the teacher will be requested to see the head or vice head and discuss the issue theoretically and with much subjectivity without any evidence or proof. Most teachers do not accept criticism and some of them do accept it but no one can see the change or improvement after the feedback given. Another crucial reality is that, in most of cases, students feel scared to tell they are not studying or getting anything from a particular teacher, or a teacher is always absent or he/she has not covered the syllabus. In addition to that, students' evaluation for teachers is absent; if it is the case, students can evaluate teachers anonymously without feeling anxiety or fear. In many universities around the world, students are sent or given questionnaires to give feedback about their teachers' performance and quality which is not the case in Algeria.

From my experience as a student and teacher and from discussions with some teachers in charge of Oral Expression in Biskra, Constantine and Oum Elbouaghi, I noticed that the majority of teachers are not following new methods in teaching foreign language; many say we are trying a learner-centered instruction but actually they are using only random choice of activities such as discussion activities or role plays without any kind of planning or processing. The activities are selected randomly either because of the teachers' interest or because they are proposed by the teacher in charge of the subject. Those

activities are not based on any syllabus or objectives to fulfil neither a meaning purpose nor a language focus. Sometimes, teachers give activities but without strict instructions or time management; in this case, the teacher devotes a whole session for one activity which is not an appropriate way to deal with language tasks. Furthermore, there is no agreement on resources and materials. Only a small number of teachers use some books trying to integrate language skills and competencies like ‘Speaking Extra’, ‘Listening Extra’ and ‘Just Speaking and Listening’.

In this research, two plans are designed to solve the problem. First, to explore the situation and arrive at logical and objective results, though all domains are explored, teachers’ practice and performance during the process are more emphasized than the prerequisites of effective teaching such as experience or certification. Therefore, to avoid any kind of subjectivity or bias, foreign language oral tasks are the specific situations selected to examine teachers’ appraisal of affective strategies in teaching foreign language oral tasks (i.e. strategies used by teachers during the process or the quality indicators conveyed by teachers). Second, to solve the situation and to raise teachers’ awareness about what they do, what they expect and what are they supposed to change, detailed rubrics should be provided for both observation and self-evaluation. The rubrics include real actions and plans used by the teacher during the learning cycle starting from planning till evaluation to be able to rethink about the first planning and get ready for another planning. The rubrics include quality indicators rather than general qualities. Furthermore, the rubrics are not manual but software that can help to give approximate scores for every indicator, sub-quality or a quality as a whole. In addition to that, the rubrics offer the gained points (i.e. areas of strength) as well as missed points which will be a great source of motivation for teachers.

Second, to solve the problem of task planning, teachers are provided with a detailed description of two frameworks for task design as well as a sample of motivating tasks based on Hadfield and Dornyei's framework but modified according to the task-based framework by Willis. to be affective, teachers do not need only quality but also considering their learners' needs, interests and selves; for this reason, this sample is selected in particular because it is the only framework that links language tasks and activities with the learner as a person (based on the L2 self-system) which can help both teachers and students to start the journey of motivation and learning at the same time.

3. Research Questions

To achieve the research aims that attempt to explore the affective variables and teachers' practice, the study attempts to answer the following questions:

- Do teachers have the required prerequisites of effective teaching?
- Do teachers have enough knowledge about affective strategies and task design?
- Do teachers teach oral expression using task-based instruction?
- Do teachers use affective strategies during the different stages of the process to develop oral tasks?
- What type of affective strategies do teachers use in teaching oral tasks?
- Do teachers make self-evaluation?

4. Hypotheses

It is assumed in this study that when teachers are affective, they tend to teach foreign language tasks effectively. Thus, we hypothesize that:

- When teachers appraise affective strategies, they would reach affective teaching.

In view of the problem statement, research aim and questions, this main hypothesis needs to be checked by three underlying hypotheses:

- When teachers use affective strategies, their teaching quality would be enhanced
- When teachers appraise affective strategies; their practices would be effective
- When teachers use affective strategies through task based learning, they would develop their practice and reach the objectives of learner-centeredness.

5. Research Methodology

The sample represents the whole population of Oral expression teachers at three Algerian universities (Biskra, Constantine, and Oum Elbouaghi). The reason behind this choice of these three universities is time feasibility and some contact constraints as facilities are available in the department of English at the three of them. The total population number was 30 teachers as recorded by the heads of departments in the academic year 2010/2011 (10 at Biskra University, 3 at Oum Elbouaghi University and 17 at Constantine University). Three universities were selected because the population of Oral expression teachers at one university is usually small and would not give enough reliable data and responses.

The method used in this research is a mixed method research using concurrent triangulation (For more details, see chapter 4). To achieve the purpose of the mixed method research and answer the research questions, three data collection tools were used (questionnaire, observation and a self-evaluation checklist). The core aim of this research is to explore two different domains related to the participant teachers, as mentioned in the problem statement, and each tool is served for both. The concerned domains are:

- Teachers' metacognition: including awareness and knowledge of affective strategies and self-evaluation of their practice in the classroom.
- Teachers' practice in the module of Oral expression, particularly in teaching Foreign Language Oral tasks.

6. Thesis Structure

The thesis is divided into two parts. The first part is devoted to the literature review about research variables and the relationships that might be between them. It includes three chapters. The second part presents the research design and data analysis; it consists of three chapters. So, the overall thesis is six chapters. The first chapter, characteristics of effective teachers introduces the concept of quality from different perspectives. It is devoted to discuss the prerequisites of good teaching, qualities of effective teachers, i.e. the personal attributes, management and organization characteristics, implementing instruction strategies and finally monitoring success strategies.

Chapter two, motivational strategies in foreign language classroom, is devoted to the concept of motivation and gives an overview of motivational theories from 1950's till 2014. In this chapter, the aim is to clarify the principles behind each theory and model and to see which ones are more appropriate in the Algerian setting. Emphasis is made, here, on how to motivate learners during tasks and to prove how tasks are motivating.

Chapter three, foreign language tasks, aims at exploring tasks from different perspectives where a focus is put on the meaning of a task, task types, principles, features and the sequence of a task as compared to other methods of teaching. Two frameworks - Jane Willis framework and David Nunan framework- are discussed in detail because they overlap on a number of characteristics.

Chapter four, research methodology, aims to explore the research design which is a mixed method research, specifically the concurrent triangulation as well as research tools represented in different ways to fulfill different purposes. This chapter includes teachers' questionnaire, classroom observation, and self-evaluation checklist. In addition to the description of the pilot study, some measurements tools, scales and observation grid are presented in this chapter.

Chapter five is devoted to the analysis of data obtained from questionnaire and observation. It includes statistics, thematic analysis, and discussion of the different questions of the research. The first section includes the questionnaire analysis in different ways according to the type of questions and their aim. The second section is devoted to classroom observation which is based on the grid which has been designed with reference to Dornyei's framework and task components and principles by Willis and Nunan.

Chapter six covers the self-evaluation checklist analysis. The checklist was designed based on Stronge's framework of qualities of effective/good teachers which encompasses the following qualities: prerequisites of good teaching, classroom organization and management, implementing instruction and monitoring learners' success and potential.

Chapter seven, Implementations and recommendations, presents two different sections to suggest some solutions to the problems explored in the study. The first section aims to discuss two means of teachers' evaluation presented in a form of software to motivate the task of evaluation as well as to facilitate it and make it less time consuming. The first one is self-evaluation software that has been designed according to the checklist used for the study but modified according to research findings and participants' suggestions. The second is others observation form or what might be called friendly

observation form which might be conducted by a student, a friend, a colleague or administrative staff. Both programs are classified into domains and qualities and within each quality, there are quality indicators to make it as specific and concrete behaviour. The two of them are based on a system of scores, percentage, and graphs in which the evaluator may arrive at the total score of qualities as well as the scores of each quality with clarification of the gained points and the missed ones. So, participants will find it a good strategy to know some of their strength and weakness points.

The second section of this final chapter is devoted to solving the problem of tasks and task design. Here, we adopted two frameworks: one of the motivational activities by Jill Hadfield and the other one for tasks by Willis. The first framework is used but in the form of the second. That is, the motivational activities of Hadfield are modified and designed using Willis framework for a language task. The purpose of this program is to help teachers design tasks which are motivating so as to overlap motivation with task-based instruction. These suggested tasks cover different aspects which fits learners' needs and interests such as motivation, involvement, planning, integrativeness, instrumentality as well as a language focus because they are designed to enhance the L2 self in which learners will find themselves in every bit of the task as well as they learn a new language form or structure.

7. Operational Definitions

In this research, some keywords are used for specific meanings. First, the term "Appraisal" which is defined by the Miriam Webster dictionary as "the act of estimating or judging the nature or value of something or the estimate or considered the opinion of the nature, quality, and importance of it"? In this research, we referred to teachers' evaluation

and use of affective strategies in teaching oral tasks. By affective strategies, we mean motivational strategies. Thus, the terms: motivation, affect, and strategy need to be explained. According to Gardner (1979), motivation is defined as “Those affective characteristics which orient the student to try to acquire elements of the second language, and include desire the students have for achieving a goal and the amount of effort he expends in this direction.” (Gardner in Gils & Clair, 1979: 179). This definition is the one adopted for this research.

Affect, like the adjective affective is defined by Readable (Online association) as experience of feeling or emotion which represents a key part of the interaction process with stimuli. The word also refers sometimes to affect display, which is a facial, vocal, or gestural behaviour that serves as an indicator of affect. The term "affect" refers to an instinctual reaction to stimulation that may occur before the typical cognitive processes that may form a more complex emotion. A Strategy is a long-term plan of action designed to achieve a particular goal, most often "winning." The strategy is extensively premeditated, and often practically rehearsed which makes it different from tactics, or immediate actions, with resources at hand. Oxford (1990) defined the word in the following terms “strategies are specific actions taken by.....”. This definition is for a particular kind of strategy used by learners; however, if applied to teaching, strategies are actions or plans used by teachers to make the problem easier to understand and solve. The strategy should always provide a competitive advantage which makes it different from planning. The strategy can also be termed as direction that enables teachers or schools to achieve their goal and objective. Therefore, for this research, an affective strategy is any action or quality indicator carried by the teacher to enhance learners’ motivation, autonomy and engagement.

In common language, a task is can be seen as an action among a set of actions to complete a job, problem or assignment. Hence, task is viewed as a synonym for activity although the former carries a connotation of being possibly longer duration and more complicated. A task is any piece of work done as part of one's duties. Though, in this research, the term is used for a very restricted meaning; we meant activities that entail a focus on meaning; a piece of classroom work that involves learners's comprehension, manipulation, production and interaction in the target language, (i.e. activities where the uses the language for a communication (goal) in order to achieve an outcome (orally or in writing) (Willis and Willis, 2007).

Chapter One

Qualities of Effective Language Teachers

Introduction

Research proved that learners' achievement is highly linked to teachers' quality. Therefore, to achieve good results in the learning/teaching process, schools, decision makers and all authorities should shift their emphasis to teacher development and training. This chapter is devoted to demystifying the concept of teacher quality, i.e. what is teacher quality, what is meant by teacher effectiveness and what are characteristics of effective/good teachers and what have research indicated about that. In addition to that, teacher quality will be explored from different angles based on a few frameworks such as those of Stronge, Strong, and Goe. Finally, qualities will be discussed according to Stronge framework which is classified into: the teacher as a person, classroom organization and management, implementing instruction and monitoring learners' success and potential.

1.1. Defining Teacher Quality

To define the term teacher quality, a few words related to it should be emphasized including teacher quality, good teachers/teaching, and teacher effectiveness.

1.1.1. Teacher Quality

In early 1900's, teachers were considered as ideal persons with major impact on their community and their learners. Hence, they were supposed to demonstrate good

models of virtue through their moral character, educational and cultural values as well as following curriculum prescribed for them. Currently, teacher quality is defined differently in a way that acknowledges students diversity and stresses the importance of an instruction level which is more meaningful than the old definitions discussed in the literature at the intellectual level.

These new definitions do not focus on teachers' character traits or technical proficiency but more on teachers' ability in engaging students in different meaningful activities for better academic learning. Current statements about teacher quality concern new dimensions such as knowledge, skills and dispositions demonstrated by a teacher. Therefore, field views, teacher development, and assessment are subjects of the new definitions. Karen et al. (2001: 23-30 summarize some of these definitions in the following statements:

- teachers are committed to their students and students' learning
- teachers have deep subject matter knowledge
- teachers manage and monitor students' learning
- teachers are reflective about their teaching
- teachers are members of the broader community

Accordingly, teacher quality varies according to researchers' interests and perspectives. According to Strong (2011:12), definitions may be grouped according to the following criteria:

- the qualification of the teacher as a reflection of competence (e.g. degree, quality of the college, exam scores, certification, subject matter, experience),
- the personal or psychological qualities (e.g. love, honesty, compassion, fairness)

- the pedagogical standards that a teacher exhibits (e.g. use certain teaching strategies, classroom management skills, the establishment of a positive classroom climate)
- teacher's demonstrated the ability to raise students' learning (successful affective strategies)

Based on Lin et al (2010) point of view, teacher quality is seen in terms of teacher's engagement in tasks, ability to conduct learning activities, arousing students' interest in learning and improving their achievements. They came up with that definition based on many previous definitions, mainly by researchers like Ko, Peng, Wu, and Juan. According to Ko (2003), teacher quality is presented as teacher cultivation, professional qualification and abilities. Further, Wu (2003) added morals to abilities and knowledge. Juan (1997) extended the two previous definitions to cover knowledgeable cultivation, teaching techniques and experience, ability to improve learning achievement and effectiveness. More comprehensively, Peng (1999) characterized all previously mentioned characteristics into five domains which are: common quality, professional knowledge and abilities, professional beliefs and attitudes, personality and professional subject accomplishment. Comprehensively, in these definitions, teacher quality comprises not only personal qualities but also classroom management and instruction implementation as well as learners' achievement and success.

Within IDRA work (Intercultural Development Research Association, USA), Grayson (2009) clarified that a bachelor degree or full state certificate or licensure are necessary for a quality teacher along with a demonstration of subject area competence in all subjects he/she teaches. Further, she added the IDRA standards of teacher quality which are not related only to the teachers' credential, but also to other dimensions such as classroom perspectives, teaching strategies and the learning environment. Within the same

perspective, Akiba et al. (2007:370) arrived at this definition: “Highly qualified is defined as fully certified, possessing a bachelor degree and demonstrating competence in subject knowledge and teaching

Broadly speaking, there was no general agreement about an appropriate and comprehensive definition because of the nature of teacher quality as being a complex phenomenon. In that sense, Goe (2007:8) introduced the dilemma to distinguish between teacher quality and teaching quality. She defined teacher quality in terms of a set of inputs represented in certification, teacher test scores and a college degree to indicate future classroom success for any teacher. However, teacher quality is not only teacher’s training and certification but their daily practices in the classroom. In sum, Goe assumes that teaching quality is an outcome of teacher quality in which the two definitions can be combined where teacher quality can be seen as a quality teaching guarantee.

Accordingly, Goe proposes a framework for teacher quality consisting of related ways to consider in teacher quality. These domains are classified into three categories:

- input (teacher qualification, teacher characteristics)
- processes (teacher practices)
- outcomes (teacher effectiveness)

Therefore, teaching effectiveness or effective teaching is a part of teacher quality which refers to students outcomes as a measure or indicator of successful teaching. Further, Frenstermacher and Richardson (2000) distinguish between the value of activity represented in good teaching and the realization of the intended outcomes which is defined by those authors as successful teaching. They conclude that quality teaching necessitates both good teaching and successful teaching; so, both must be considered in the quality assessment. According to them, besides the teacher, some other constraints should be taken

into account such as the learning environment, learners, the social surroundings and learning and teaching opportunities. About that, Fenstermacher and Richardson (2000:6) explain:

Quality teaching pertains to what is taught and how it is taught. The content has to be appropriate, proper and aimed at some worthy purpose. The methods employed have to be morally defensible and grounded in shared conceptions of reasonableness. To sharpen the contrast with successful teaching, we will call teaching that accords with high standards for subject matter content and methods of practice good teaching. Successful teaching is teaching that yields the intended learning. Good teaching is teaching that comports with morally defensible and rationally sound principles of instructional practice (Fenstermacher and Richardson, 2000:6)

In this regard, their argument is that both good teaching and successful teaching are needed for quality teaching. By good teaching, they refer to the appropriateness of content based on adequacy and completeness norms, teaching methods, approaches and strategies that fit the intended objectives to achieve learners' competence. On the other hand, successful teaching is the extent to which learners respond positively to what the teacher is doing in class in an acceptable way.

1.1.2. Teacher Quality and Teaching Quality

A further distinction to be made between teacher quality and teaching quality. In this concern, teachers should not be the only source of teaching quality; other factors may play a considerable role. Successful teaching depends on many factors; for instance, if the learning setting is not motivating and the basic conditions are not provided, it is possible

that even the talented and excellent teachers will not do well. Factors that affect teaching include instructional resources available, staffing levels, professional development and administrative support. Based on that consideration, teacher quality is defined by Karen et al. (2001: 19) as “The knowledge skills, abilities, and dispositions of teachers”. Thus, it is not a simple task to define teacher quality because it varies according to people, schools, and places.

1.1.3. Teacher’s Effectiveness

As far as teachers’ effectiveness is concerned, another word which is discussed in the literature is teacher’s self-effectiveness which refers to teachers’ evaluation of their own teaching abilities. Furthermore, teacher effective teaching is considered to cover all domains and factors to be dominated and managed by the teacher. Accordingly, effective teaching requires a teacher who can make use of knowledge and abilities, is decisive, about teaching methods, is able to handle teaching materials, is motivating students and who is able to create a supporting learning environment (Lin et al., 2010: 168)

Another researcher in the field, McBer (McBer in Butcher 2005) defined effectiveness with a combination of some affective strategies which are related the eight quality indicators: clarity, interest, order, fairness, participation, safety, support, and environment. First, students should be clear about the aims, objectives and context of each lesson. In addition, students should feel just and equality as well as interest. Second, lesson order should have a level of simulation to enhance interest, motivation and participation. Effectiveness is also linked to how far do students feel they can question and offer opinions in class. Finally, students should feel safety from emotional and physical bullying; they should also be supported in experiencing new things and learning from their

mistakes in a well-organized and comfortable setting. The latter is essential for effectiveness, though, in many cases, it is out of teachers' control.

Another point of view was brought by OFSTED (Office for Standards in Education); their view is based on the focus on students' needs rather than what has to be taught without any opportunity for discussing methods or ideas (Ofsted in Butcher 2005: 45, 46). In this regard, they emphasize only three factors for effective teaching being: subject knowledge, expectations and planning and organization. In their report, they stress the importance of subject knowledge in which the teacher should be an expert, and that would affect the other factors.

Furthermore, for many researchers, teacher effectiveness is measured by students' outcomes, which is not true as the latter is affected by many other factors. One of the researchers who are against that definition is Goe; she gave some critiques including:

- Students learning is not only teachers' responsibility
- Consensus should drive research, not measurement innovations
- Learning is more than average achievement gains

According to Goe (2008), teachers role involve much more than providing subject matter instruction. She added five points to be considered based on discussions in the research literature, policy documents, standards, reports and experts feedback. She arrived at the following points:

- Effective teachers have high expectations for all students and help students learn.
- effective teachers contribute to positive academic, attitudinal, and social outcomes for students such as regular attendance, on-time promotion to the next grade, on-time graduation, self- efficacy, and cooperative behaviour

- Effective teachers use a variety of resources to create learning opportunities, monitor student progress, adapt instruction as needed, and evaluate learning using multiple sources of evidence.
- effective teachers contribute to the development of classroom and schools.
- effective teachers collaborate with other teachers, administrators, parents, and education professionals to ensure student success, particularly the success of students with special needs and those at high risk for failure.(Goe 2008: 8)

In her definition, she appeals for a broader insight trying to clarify priorities as students' results after tests and exams are not the only means to measure teachers' work. This definition will be the basis and focus of our research (Chapter4, 5, and 6)

Brown and Atkins (1988) conclude 'effectiveness' is best estimated in relation to goals of teaching. Thus, criteria vary from one context to another and from one school to another. According to them, a well-constructed and planned lesson may reveal good outcomes only if the goal was well articulated and informative. However, if the goal is to stimulate students to develop the solution, then the lesson may be ineffective. They add bad teaching is also effective in a way that it forces students to make more effort, but that should not be a justification for not improving teaching. So despite all, bad teaching reduces motivation, increases negative attitudes towards learning and yields lower achievement. Based on their perception, it is important to focus on clarifying some issues to students to avoid confusion because students and teachers proved that although effective teaching is measured in connection to goals, there are other factors affecting effectiveness. Thus, effective teaching has to be systematic, motivating and caring. They also clarify that successful teaching is not necessarily always effective where the latter is centered not only on success but also appropriate values for both teachers and students.

Another conception for a good and effective teacher is the one used by Brookfield (2006: 17-32) which is ‘the skillful teacher’ where he defines the concept as a highly variable process that can be affected or change by any contextual factor rather than a set of behaviours of personality types. He argues that what remains steady about successful teaching is being grounded in three centre suppositions, but these assumptions can vary from one context to another. These assumptions are:

- skillful teaching is whatever helps students learn
- skillful teachers adopt a critically reflective stance towards their practice
- The most important knowledge skillful teachers need to do good work is a constant awareness of how students are experiencing their learning and perceiving teachers’ actions.

1.2. Teacher Quality and Learners’ Achievement

The most reliable studies that focused on the relationship between teacher quality and learners’ achievement spread between 2002 and 2005; among them, Darling-Hammond and Youngs (2002), Rice (2003), Wayne and Youngs (2003) and Wilson and Floden (2003).

1.2.1. Darling-Hammond and Youngs (2002)

Darling-Hammond and Youngs (2002) reviewed research to respond to arguments made by US secretary of education in their report on teaching quality as they believed that there a tendency to lower qualification standards. Their research was aiming to prove the following assumptions:

- (1) Teachers matter for student achievement, but teacher education and certification are

not related to teacher effectiveness;

(2) Verbal ability and subject matter knowledge are the most important components of teacher effectiveness;

(3) Teachers who have completed teacher education programs are academically weak and underprepared for their jobs; and

(4) Alternative certification programs have academically stronger recruits who are highly effective and have high rates of retention.

However, they found little evidence about these four assumptions but the second assumption related to verbal ability and subject knowledge was a special case as many researchers proved that they are linked to teacher effectiveness. They confirm also that pedagogical coursework and student- teaching experience are critical producing teachers who are effective. They found some basic evidence for the last assumption (alternative certification programs) but only for specific and highly dedicated programs. So, in their review, they contend that some qualification may count more than others, but the subject matter and grade are essential to mediate qualifications.

1.2.2. Rice (2003)

Rice (2003) focused on attributes rather than assumptions with much more emphasis on experience, preparation programs, and degrees, certification, coursework, and teacher test scores. In her research, she distinguishes the importance of empirical evidence for intercepting data, and she concludes the following:

1) Teacher Experience can make a difference in teacher effectiveness; specifically, the "learning by doing" effect is most obvious in the early years of teaching.

- 2) Teacher preparation programs and degrees: The selectivity or prestige of the college a teacher attended can impact student achievement, particularly for middle and high school students.
- 3) Teacher certification: teachers certified in a certain subject can enhance high school achievement. Teachers with emergency or alternative route certification, as compared to teachers who acquire the standard certification, show little difference in their students' performance.
- 4) Teacher coursework: teacher coursework in both the subject area taught and pedagogy contributes to positive education outcomes. Pedagogical coursework seems to contribute to teacher effectiveness at all grade levels, particularly when coupled with content knowledge.
- 5) Teachers' own test scores: National Teachers Examination and other state-mandated tests of basic skills and/or teaching abilities are not necessarily consistent predictors of teacher performance. Tests that assess teacher literacy or verbal ability are related to higher student achievement. (Rice in Rudo, 2004: 3)

As it is noticed in this review, Rice focused on the prerequisites of good teaching rather than the teaching/learning process itself. These indicators like teacher experience and coursework are crucial, but they are never a guarantee of good or effective teaching. Rice ended up based on the conception that things teachers know and can do are better indicators of effective teaching than are conventional standards such as degree earned and coursework. Goe (2007: 5) estimates that Rice synthesis “is a valuable contribution to the understanding about which qualifications matter most in terms of students’ achievement, but its scope is limited- primarily due to the lack of availability of empirical data on critical points.”

1.2.3. Wayne and Youngs (2003)

During the same year, after reviewing studies about the relationship between teacher quality and students' outcomes; Wayne and Youngs (2003) arrived at a stricter set of criteria which are different from previous research syntheses done in the field.

- 1) The collected data address teacher characteristics as well as the standardized test scores of the teachers' students.
- 2) The data were collected in the United States.
- 3) The design accounts for prior student achievement.
- 4) The design accounts for student socioeconomic status.

They argue that students learn better with teachers with certain characteristics. The first category of characteristics reviewed by them is college ratings and test scores in which they confirm the existing of a positive relationship between college rating and learning outcomes. As far as other aspects (degree, coursework, and certification) are concerned, they note that there was no clear evidence only in the case of mathematics (Wayne and Younges, 2003: 107). In sum, they assert that some of the mentioned characteristics worked only for one context or one subject though all the qualities have positive impact on students' achievement.

1.2.4. Wilson and Floden (2003)

Wilson and Floden (2003) made an extension to the previously discussed studies. They reviewed research trying to answer some questions related to a few qualities such as the impact of subject knowledge, the advanced degree, subject major and minor, pedagogical theory, field- based experience and accreditation of teacher preparation

programs. Their study stressed teacher' effectiveness more than teaching quality considering teacher effectiveness as an outcome of teacher quality with the focus on characteristics of new teachers. They make synthesis of the following findings:

- 1) Findings on the impact of teachers' level of education were inconsistent, based on 14 studies.
- 2) Findings on the relationship between teacher experience and student achievement were inconsistent, based on 12 studies.
- 3) Findings on the relationship between teachers' verbal or general ability and student achievement were inconsistent, based on five studies.
- 4) Findings on the relationship between teacher race, student race, and student achievement were inconsistent, based on six studies.
- 5) Findings on the relationship between teachers' degrees and coursework and student achievement were inconsistent, based on 11 studies.
- 6) Findings on the relationship between teacher preparation and student achievement were inconsistent, based on three studies.

They concluded by noting that in the examined studies, there was no clear evidence as students learning was not counted as a measuring tool for the studies qualities. The authors end up with suggesting further research with the nowadays availability of students' data, statistical software and methods to make the link and bridge that gap in relating teacher qualities to students' scores and outcomes.

In sum, evaluating teachers can be approached from three different but related angles: measurement of input, processes and output. "Inputs are what a teacher brings to his or her position, generally measured as teacher background, beliefs, expectations, experience, pedagogical and content knowledge, certification and licensure, and educational attainment" (Goe, 2008: 4) . Processes, on the other hand, refer to the

interaction that occurs in a classroom between teachers and students and also to activities within school or community. Outputs represent the results of classroom processes, such as student achievement, graduation rates, student behaviour, engagement, attitudes and social-emotional well-being. Outputs are referred to by quality researchers as “teacher effectiveness”. (Goe 2008)

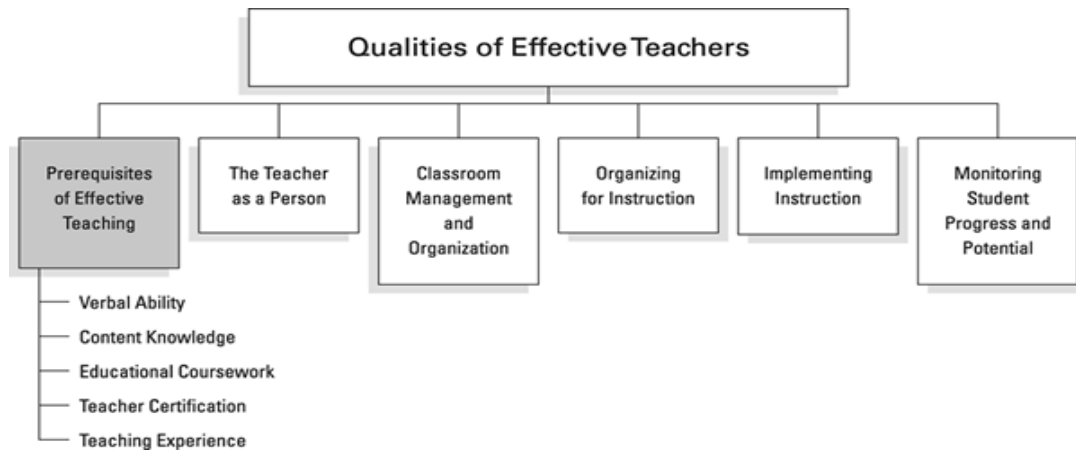


Figure.1. A Framework for Qualities of Effective Teachers (Stronge et al, 2004: 2)

Teacher quality in this study will be considered according to the following framework proposed by Stronge et al (2004: 2) which is selected because of a number of reasons. First, the conditions of any teaching to take place are considered as prerequisites and without them nothing could happen. Second, the model is comprehensive and focuses on the teacher as a person; the learning/teaching process as well as the learning outcomes and students’ success.

1.3. Prerequisites of Effective Teachers

According to Stronge et al, prerequisites are the personal attributes teachers bring with them to the classroom (2004: 11-12). They stress five of them which must be realized for any effective teaching to take place: verbal ability, content knowledge, education coursework, teacher certification and teaching experience.

1.3.1. Verbal Ability

Teacher verbal ability is perceived to have a positive influence on students' achievement where teachers make connections through words and actions that are among the best ways to show enthusiasm in class. Verbal ability according to Andrew et al. (2005: 344) is "a person's facility at putting ideas into words, both oral and written". However, they argue that to have this ability, the person does not only need a strong working vocabulary but also the facility to select the appropriate words for a particular type of audience and setting.

For teaching to be affective, not only knowledge needs to be communicated but also thoughts, beliefs and enthusiasm. Based on research about the link between teacher's verbal ability and students' achievement, Stronge (2007: 4) confirms that point saying: "students taught by teachers with greater verbal ability learn more than those taught by those with low verbal ability." From some studies, Strong estimates that: there is a direct relationship between first teachers' scores on tests of verbal ability and student achievement in which high verbal ability had a big influence on learners' performance on standardized tests. In sum, good teachers are role models of appropriate speech; so, they are requested to understand the verbal communication of their students as well as help

them improve their verbal skills. Andrew et al. (2005: 344) mentioned some strategies to maintain that which are:

- clearly and cogently present information,
- give clear explanations,
- help students put their ideas into words,
- help students improve their communication skills,
- help students understand the meaning of written language,
- provide apt analogies to assist learning,

1.3.2. Content Knowledge

The second prerequisite is content knowledge; teachers cannot teach what they do not know. Research in literature shows clearly that teachers with high competence in knowledge in the subject area they teach attain better achievement results and are more effective with their students than teachers without a background in their subject area. Researchers in the field of didactics investigated many kinds of knowledge. Among those researchers Bilash (2015), who classified knowledge into three types based on Shulman (1986) research. The first type of knowledge Bilash (2015) introduced is pedagogical general knowledge which is related to general management, awareness of responsibilities, dealing with multi- level classes and how to continue to develop a career. This type of knowledge is essential for any teacher as a starting point. The second type of knowledge is the content knowledge of what will be taught. This type includes fluency, grammatical knowledge, confidence, cultural knowledge and experience, print literacy (literature), visual literacy and most importantly passion for the subject.

The last type of knowledge mentioned by the author was pedagogical content knowledge which is the combination of the first type and the second type or forms the

intersection between the two. This type of knowledge comprises a repertoire of approaches and methods, theoretical understanding of concepts, the relationship between pedagogy and content, i.e. how to plan a lesson for a particular subject, how to assess and finally how to shape our own teaching philosophy.

Stronge et al. (2004: 10) explains this idea in these terms:” the relationship between teacher knowledge and student acquisition of knowledge make sense.” Successful teachers know the content, the essential knowledge, and skills that are necessary for the mastery of the subject in order to integrate them into effective instruction. It is believed that teachers with subject matter knowledge can go beyond textbook content and involve students in meaningful discussions and students- direct activities. Investigations of the importance of teacher content knowledge have yielded the following findings as summarized by Stronge (2007: 10):

- Teachers with a major or minor in their content are associated with higher student achievement
- students, teachers, principals and school board members have all emphasized the importance of subject matter knowledge in describing effective teaching
- The ability to convey content to students in a way that they can grasp, use, and remember is important, but it is not necessarily related to additional teacher knowledge or course work in the content area.
- Content- area preparation is positively related to student achievement within specific subjects.
- Several studies have illustrated that teachers with greater subject matter knowledge tend to ask higher level questions and involve students in the lessons.

Studies have found a positive relationship between education coursework and teachers' effectiveness. Significant positive relationships between education coursework and teacher performance were found by Ashton and Crocker (1987) in four of seven studies they reviewed. Further, Evertson, Hawley, and Zlotnik (1985) made a report about the positive effect of teachers' formal education training on teachers' scores and student learning. In 11 of 13 studies, they show the greater effectiveness of prepared and certified teachers compared to those who are not. Content knowledge sometimes cannot be gained only through study and graduation, but much work and involvement in educational course work. The latter is an essential indicator of teaching quality. Educational coursework refers to the courses teacher took as part of their preparation programs as a part of postgraduate work to earn a certification which should not end the day when they sign a teaching contract. Teachers' professional knowledge should be developed continuously in order to renew their licenses and themselves.

In this line of thought, Montgomery (1999:131-155) stresses three kinds of knowledge for teacher effectiveness: knowledge of teaching methods, knowledge of curriculum and differentiation which is a term reserved for individualizing the curriculum task so that individual needs and difficulties are catered for. Hiebert et al (2002: 3-8) add another dimension to knowledge which is knowledge base for teaching profession that grows and improves. They identify three features that make practitioner knowledge useful and valuable: it is linked to practice, it is detailed, it is concrete and specific, and it is integrated. Moreover they add the weaknesses of practitioner knowledge as being: professional knowledge must be public, professional knowledge must be storable and sharable and professional knowledge requires a mechanism for verification and improvement

Shulman (1987:8) identified several types of knowledge for teaching:

- Content knowledge
- General pedagogical knowledge, with special reference to those broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organization that appear to transcend subject matter
- Curriculum knowledge, with particular grasp of the materials and programs that serve as “tools of the trade ” for teachers
- Pedagogical content knowledge, that special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers, their own special form of professional understanding
- Knowledge of learners and their characteristics
- Knowledge of educational contexts, ranging from workings of the group or classroom, the governance and financing of school districts, to the character of communities and cultures
- Knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds

In his classification, he stressed that pedagogical knowledge represents a special interest because it identifies the distinctive bodies of knowledge for teaching. it represents the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organized, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction. Teachers also need to know about personal wellbeing; as to be productive they have to be fine and to be motivating they should be motivated first. Aspects they need to know about are stress, wellbeing through resilience, wellbeing through energy management, wellbeing and communication and

wellbeing and conflict, wellbeing and setting goals and wellbeing and balance as all these aspects affect their teaching in one way or other (Ferguson, 2008).

Champeau de Lopez (1989:11) summarizes the role saying that today's language teacher must manipulate much more information in several different areas of knowledge. The problem lies not only in the amount of information to be mastered but in the organization and application of that knowledge to a practical situation, i.e., how the teacher can use the knowledge of linguistics, psychology, sociology and pedagogy to help his/her learners learn English. Champeau classified knowledge into five types: psychological factors (schemata, cognitive styles, affective factors), personal needs, and social factors (general environment and personal environment), linguistic knowledge and pedagogical knowledge which are all necessary for selection of appropriate materials, presentation of materials, and creation of affective environment conducive to learning.

1.3.3. Course Work

For many teachers, development is a must where they must take graduate classes in education, attend conferences, and participate in different professional development opportunities. Everything teachers do to acquire knowledge and skills, both before and after they begin teaching, influences the learning that occurs in their classrooms. However, the type of experience with the preparation program is a key factor in the teacher's effectiveness. Preparation programs that provide mentors, clinical teaching experiences, and preparation of pedagogy made teachers express their feeling of confidence in their teaching abilities and intentions to continue teaching (Strong 2007:6). Teachers who lack course work in education are perceived to have difficulties in classroom management and organization, implementing instruction, student motivation, and specific teaching strategies. Further, they can lack the ability to predict student knowledge and expect

difficulties or re-plan the lesson to meet students' needs. Filmore and Snow (2000) offer a listing of possible courses or course components that together cover fundamental issues related to language and learning. The courses are:

- Language and Linguistics
- Language and Cultural Diversity
- Sociolinguistics for Educators in a Linguistically Diverse Society
- Language Development (See also Bolito et al. 2003)
- Second Language Learning and Teaching (See also Ellis 2010, Ellis 2009)
- The Language of Academic Discourse
- Text Analysis and Language Understanding in Educational Settings

Besides courses teachers may take, Professional development activities in various forms, which are cited by Bubb (2005:23-43) as following "coaching and mentoring, learning conversations, self- study and teachers' TV, observing other teachers, visiting other schools, courses and conferences and being observed" (ibid: 26). So opportunities are not only in course enrolment but in every chance teachers may find.

Teacher-preparation programs should be designed to develop students' general education and personal culture. Therefore, the purpose should be to build a variety of skills within trainees. Participants should receive training to enhance their ability to educate others, their awareness of the principles of good human relations, and their sense of responsibility towards teaching and community progress. A teacher-preparation program should include: general studies, study of philosophy elements, psychology and sociology in education, theory and history of education, comparative education, experimental pedagogy, school administration, teaching methods of various subjects, studies related to the intended field of teaching, and practice in teaching and conducting extra-curricular activities under

the guidance of a fully qualified teacher (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Montreal, 2006: 51).

Strong et al. (2004) and Strong and Hindman (2007) summarize some research outcomes that confirm the importance of coursework as being:

- A teacher's formal pedagogical preparation has been shown to have a positive effect on student achievement, especially in science, mathematics and reading
- the teachers who completed study programs in education consistently perform better on state licensing exams than do teachers who did not attend a program in education
- A teacher's subject matter expertise supports student learning up to a point, but educational coursework appears to have a substantive value added influence on student achievement.
- There is a positive relationship between student achievement and how recently an experienced teacher took part in a professional development opportunity such as a conference, workshop, or graduate class.

Course work is essential to bridge the gap between one's own knowledge and area and practice; however, the type of certification matter as it is proved that teachers with certification in a particular area have more impact on students' learning than uncertified teachers. In many educational systems quality is measured through certification, for example, The No Child Left Behind Act (2002) defines "a highly qualified teacher" as "one who possesses full state certification" (Stronge et al. 2004:14) e; however nowadays, many certification courses became common as alternatives. A certification is never a guarantee of effectiveness; however, research proved that students of certified teachers have higher levels of achievement than do students of uncertified teachers. For the latter to be achieved, teachers should be assigned to teach in their field of study. Some important

findings from research, related to the overall issue, are cited by Stronge (2007: 9) as following:

- Fully prepared and certified teachers have a greater impact on gains in student learning.
- Teacher certification status and teaching within one's field are positively related to student outcomes.
- Teachers with certification of some kind (standard, alternative or provisional) tend to have higher achieving students than do teachers working without certification.

To make a link between theory and practice Wallace (1991: 48-58) proposes a reflective model for foreign language teachers for professional education. The special feature of this model that makes it different from the applied science model is the fact that it presents the trainee as a receiver of knowledge, not a researcher or expert. Wallace's Reflective Model is applicable for both pre-service and in-service education. The model is built up in three stages:

The pre-training: teachers who intend to attend a professional program should have at least some pre-training knowledge about teaching. He/she can not enter the program with a blank mind.

The professional development: It is the stage of professional education or development through theory and practice. Key elements are highlighted:

Received knowledge: refers to data, facts, theories which are either by necessity or convention associated with the study of a particular profession.

Experiential knowledge: refers to that knowledge which is developed by the trainees throughout their teaching practice either from own experiences or others. **The professional**

competence: the goal of this model is to increase professional competence. The second stage seems to be more complicated because it involves three sub-stages: learning, practice, and reflection. The learning stage is the specific preparation that should be made by a language teacher before starting practice.

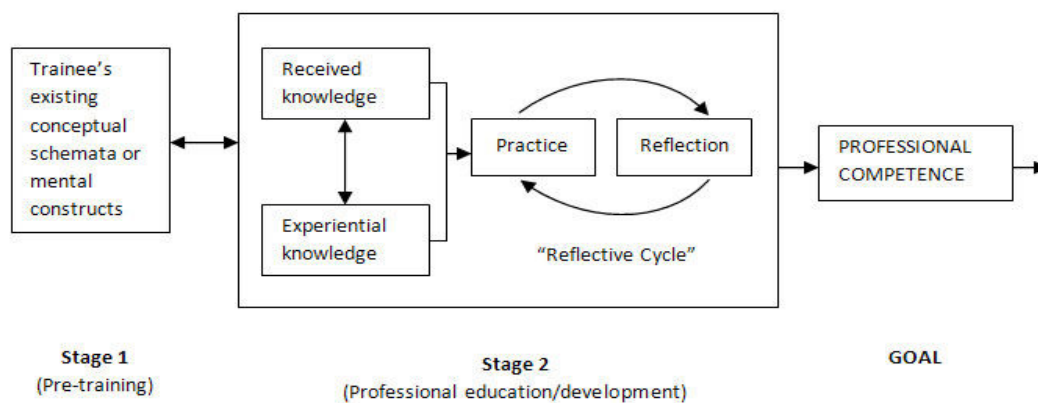


Figure.2. Teacher Professional Education Reflective Model, Wallace 1991:49

Ellis (1990:26-36), further, introduced teacher preparation practices as experiential such as teaching practices and awareness raising practices which involve the use of teacher preparation activities and teacher preparation procedures. Teacher preparation activities (data, tasks) consist of the materials that the educator uses in his/her program; they correspond to materials for use in classroom language teaching. Each activity will give the student teacher a number of tasks to perform. These tasks are likely to be based on some data, which constitute the raw material of the activities. It follows that activities can be described by specifying the different ways in which data can be provided and the different kinds of operations that the student teacher is required to carry out in the tasks based on the data. Teacher preparation procedures constitute of the educator's methodology for using activities in teacher preparation sessions. Just as the teacher needs to draw up a lesson plan for exploiting teaching materials, so the teacher educator needs to

draw up a preparation plan incorporating appropriate procedures for exploiting different teacher preparation activities

1.3.4. Teaching Experience

Another prerequisite which is really important besides certification and coursework is teacher experience which gives teachers an increased depth of understanding of the content and pedagogy. We need to draw attention to a few terms which are used alternatively in literature; Wallace (1991: 121 -122) distinguished these terms: teaching practice that “refers to the opportunity given to the trainee to develop and improve professional practice in the context of a real classroom, usually under some form of guidance or supervision”. Professional action “refers to normal teaching and thus does not have the same connotation of learner status”; it is therefore sometimes considered a more convenient term to use since it can cover in-service as well as pre-service training. Additionally, Wallace (ibid) Considers school experience as “the total experience of working in a school which trainees have when they are on placement when they are allocated to a particular school as a part of their professional development. It is a wider term than teaching practice which refers only to one aspect of the school experience.”

Teachers need knowledge theoretically and experientially about school management, disciplinary procedures, staff relations, appropriate professional behaviour both inside and outside the classroom. They are believed to be more effective because of their access to different resources and use of a wider variety of strategies. Further, they are familiar with students’ problems and difficulties and are trained to deal with them. They develop an increased depth of understanding of the content and how to teach it and use

different strategies to meet students' needs as well as they know how to maximize the use of materials and management procedures.

Stronge et al. (2004: 15) say that there is no agreement in the research literature on the number of years that make a teacher experienced; but effectiveness starts between three and eight years. They add that "experience does not make a difference in teacher effectiveness", but learning from practice offers teachers the opportunity for professional growth. Then, "novice teachers begin their transformation into competent teachers through that growth as a part of their learning curve" (2004: 15). Furthermore, Strong (2007: 12) summarizes some of the findings related to this issue:

- Teachers with more experience tend to show better planning skills.
- effective, experienced teachers are better able to apply a range of teaching strategies, and they demonstrate more depth and differentiation in learning activities
- experienced teachers tend to know and understand their students' learning needs, styles, prerequisite skills, and interests
- The classrooms of more experienced teachers are better organized around routines and plans for handling problems.

In an original review, Wilson and Floden (2003: 17-18), described and critiqued traditional field experiences where they gave a potential list of features of high-quality field experience:

- High-quality field experiences may depend on authentic, respectful relationships between k12 and university faculty
- for some teachers and prospective teachers, working in partnership field experiences might be more effective than single placement teaching

- Prospective teachers might benefit from participating in service learning activities, such as school-based tutoring as part of their field experiences.

According to Strong et al. (2004: 17), there is a plausible relationship among the prerequisites of effective teaching. Based on their view, verbal ability would affect someone's acquisition and mastery of both educational coursework and content knowledge, which together would be prerequisites for teacher certification. Then, teacher experience would be gained through the development of these prerequisites.

1.4.Characteristics of Good /Effective Language Teachers

In the research literature, there is still no affirm agreement on what makes a good and effective teachers. In this section, we are going to explore a few frameworks by Geo (2007), Strong (2011), Walker (2008), Stronge et al (2004) and Stronge (2007).

Goe's (2007) examination of teacher quality focuses on four categories of teacher quality indicators. In her taxonomy, Goe considered what we mentioned previously and called prerequisites, as a part of what makes a good teacher. She collected all prerequisites under one domain which she called teachers qualifications. The four lenses proposed by Goe (2008) to examine teacher quality are qualification, characteristics, practices and effectiveness. According to Goe (2008: 2) teacher qualification, include credentials, knowledge, and experience that teachers bring with them when they enter the classroom (such as coursework, grades, subject matter education, degrees, test scores, experience, certification, and evidence of participation in continuing learning).

Teacher characteristics are all attributes and attitudes that teachers have such as expectation for students, collegiality or a collaborative nature, race, and gender. Concerning classroom practices, they refer to interaction strategies used by teachers to

accomplish specific teaching tasks. Finally, Goe addresses the issue of teacher effectiveness which is a value-added assessment of teachers' contribution to their students' learning as indicated by a higher-than-predicted increase in student achievement scores.

Strong (2011) identified four domains or indicators of teacher quality: Teacher qualifications, personal attributes, pedagogical skills and practices and teacher effectiveness. First, teachers' qualification refers to certificates and types of programs they attend. One advantage of defining teacher quality in terms of competence as indicated by qualification, credentials is that these variables are objective and relatively easy to measure. Second, a focus on psychological or personal attributes can lead to subjectivity. In a study conducted in the middle of the last century, Paul Witty reviewed 12,000 letters from learners who had been asked to describe "the teacher who has helped me most." He found that the top twelve characteristics mentioned by learners were:

- Cooperative, democratic attitude
- Kindliness and consideration for the individual
- Patience
- Wide interests
- Personal appearance and pleasing manner
- Fairness and impartiality
- Sense of humour
- Good disposition and consistent behaviour
- Interest in pupils' problems
- Flexibility
- Use of recognition and praise

- Unusual proficiency in teaching a particular subject.(Paul Witty in Strong, 2011:13)

Some of these traits, particularly related to warmth and friendliness, have continued to surface in later studies that examine students' opinions about good teaching; others relate more to teaching practice and fit better into the category of pedagogical standards. All of them rely on subjective impressions.

Another recent study of this nature was conducted by Walker (2008). More than 15 years, he asked his undergraduate and graduate students at several institutions to describe effective teachers qualities that helped them learn and achieve success. The 12 most frequently mentioned characteristics in his study were a mix of personal and teaching strategies. Here is the full list:

- Came to class prepared
- Maintained positive attitudes about teaching and about students
- Held high expectations for all students
- Showed creativity in teaching the class
- Treated and graded students fairly
- Displayed a personal, approachable touch with students
- Cultivated a sense of belonging in the classroom
- Dealt with student problems compassionately
- Had a sense of humour and did not take everything seriously
- Respected students and did not deliberately embarrass them
- Were forgiving and did not hold grudges
- Admitted mistakes (Walker 2008, 61, 68)

We can say that, generally, teachers believe that a primary attribute of a good teacher is to be caring and to like or love their learners. Also, the beliefs of pre-service teachers are well formed before they enter their training programs because of classroom experience, and they change little over the course of their training programs. Some teacher educators, therefore, see that a definition of a good teacher can be a combination of two types of attributes; personal attributes which are represented as caring and love for learners and professional attributes which related to content and pedagogical knowledge.

The third quality indicator discussed by Strong (2011) is pedagogical skills and practices. Education reform experts tend to think of teacher quality solely in terms of classroom practice rather than of the front-end qualifications or personal attributes that a teacher may possess. Several organizations have issued curriculum standards and guidelines that direct reform-minded practice and indicate what constitutes quality teaching from their perspectives. These organizations define quality teachers as conducting instruction that engages students as active participants in their own learning, and that enhances the development of complex cognitive skills and processes.

The last indicator mentioned by the same author is effectiveness or successful teaching as measured by student outcome. In their analysis to answer the question “What Do We Mean by Teacher Quality”, Fenstermacher and Richardson (2000) draw attention to distinguish between good teaching (the worthiness of the activity) and successful teaching (the realization of intended outcomes), then they point that quality teaching is a combination of both good and successful teaching. To conclude, they affirm that an assessment of quality teaching must take into account contextual factors such as the state of the learners, social surroundings, and opportunities for teaching and learning not only the teacher. Thus, the nature of teacher quality, to their way of thinking, is elusive and contested.

Today, those who view teacher quality as synonymous with effective teaching as defined by student outcomes commonly use a statistical procedure known as value-added modeling (VAM) to measure effectiveness. VAM refers multiple years of student test-score collected through statistical techniques to evaluate the effects of individual schools or teachers on student achievement. However, in spite of the importance given to standardized test scores as a measure of school and teacher effectiveness in the United States, many educators and parents advocate other kinds of factors such as the level of motivation to learn, dropout or graduation rates, participation in advanced courses and college acceptance rates, or other social, behavioural, or intellectual outcomes. Some of these outcomes are often linked to broader notions of school or educational effectiveness as opposed to teacher effectiveness.

In this section, we cannot explore all characteristics, but following one comprehensive framework which is mentioned above, Stronge et al (2004) and Stronge (2007) framework for teacher quality, for it covers aspects discussed in all other frameworks and studies. It emphasizes the following domains: the teacher as a person, classroom management, and organization, implementing instruction and monitoring students' success.

1.4.1. The Teacher as a Person

Characteristics of good teachers vary from teachers' perspective to students' perspectives, but they all centre on a common point which is personal attributes. Miller (2012), an English language teacher, points that it is important for the teacher to put himself/ herself in the position of language learner rather than that of the teacher. She

finds it beneficial to view the process through the eyes of a student. Her investigation reveals the essential characteristics of an effective teacher:

- 1) I want a teacher who has a contagious enthusiasm for his teaching.
- 2) I want a teacher who is creative.
- 3) I want a teacher who can add pace and humour to the class.
- 4) I want a teacher who challenges me.
- 5) I want a teacher who is encouraging and patient, and who will not give up on me.
- 6) I want a teacher who will take an interest in me as a person.
- 7) I want a teacher who knows grammar well and who can explain something on the spot if necessary.
- 8) I want a teacher who will take a minute or two to answer a question after class, or who will take five minutes to correct something that I have done on my own.
- 9) I want a teacher who will treat me as a person, on an equal basis with all the members of the class, regardless of sex, marital status, race, or my future need for the language.
- 10) Finally, I want a teacher who will leave his emotional baggage outside the classroom.

Miller (2012) draws a conclusion that a teacher's effectiveness depends on the demonstration of the effective characteristics (enthusiasm, encouragement, humour, interest in the student, availability, and mental health).

Lvova (2015) shares the points of view that effective teachers should be caring and take into account the needs and desires of every student. One day, she decided to hear the students' opinions about characteristics of the good teacher and good student. The students were supposed to think of the following question: "What do you think about an

ideal teacher? Describe the ideal teacher and explain, why you think so.” The answers were centred on these points:

- 1) Teachers should be experienced, responsible, sociable, caring and loving my profession.
- 2) Teachers should be ready to meet their educational needs at any particular moment.
- 3) Teachers should help them gain the professional skills essential for the future career.

Further, she added some of the students’ explanations and discussions. Details mentioned by students are the following:

- 1) to give more illustrative life examples while teaching the subject.
- 2) to present the information in the exciting and inspiring the desire to study manner. It means they expect us to motivate them.
- 3) to have more practice during classes.
- 4) to be ready to answer all the questions concerning the topic discussed.
- 5) to give them more creative tasks.
- 6) not to give them much homework, as much homework makes them less effective and distracts their attention.
- 7) to be 25-35 years old, because in their opinion, if the teacher is older there may be some generation gap. At the same time, they say, if the teacher is too young, he may be not enough experienced.

It is clear here that learners are aware of teaching strategies, and they expect teachers to possess personal attributes as well instructional strategies. In addition to that, they added the age notion and the negative effects of home-works.

Tompson et al (2010) asked students: What is it about your favourite teacher that made them teachers from whom you were able to learn? The answers were not surprising. The surprise was the consistency in the answers over time. After analyzing the data over time, they decided twelve themes. In readings and reflections about preparing teachers to create unique classrooms where students find success, they began to see how students' responses followed the growing body of research about effective teaching. What researchers have spent years discovering and writing about, students knew already. The twelve personal characteristics of effective teachers students recalled over and over revolve around one theme which is caring. All of the twelve characteristics, stress this essential personality trait.

Another general overview about top ten requirements for good teaching is the one done by Leblanc 1998 who was awarded the Schulich Award for Teaching Excellence.

- 1) Good teaching is as much about passion as it is about the reason.
- 2) good teaching is about substance and training students as consumers of knowledge.
- 3) good teaching is about listening, questioning, being responsive, and remembering that each student and class is different.
- 4) Good teaching is about not always having a fixed agenda and being rigid, but being flexible, fluid, experimenting, and having the confidence to react and adjust to changing circumstances.
- 5) Good teaching is also about style.
- 6) Good teaching is about humor. This is very important.
- 7) Good teaching is about caring, nurturing, and developing minds and talents.
- 8) Good teaching is supported by strong and visionary leadership, and very tangible instructional support resources, personnel, and funds.

- 9) Good teaching is about mentoring between senior and junior faculty, teamwork, and being recognized and promoted by one's peers.
- 10) good teaching is about having fun, experiencing pleasure and intrinsic rewards.

In this taxonomy, Le Blanc overlaps many characteristics with more emphasis on personal attributes such as flexibility, style, having fun and caring. It is well noticed that during process qualities are not focused on.

1.4.1.1. Teachers' Caring

In her research and publications about caring, Noddings (2001) explained that caring can be shown in a variety of ways including being attentive and receptive. As educators, we are responsive to the needs and feelings of our students. Noddings (2001: 100-101) says: "A caring teacher is someone who has demonstrated that she [he] can establish, more or less regularly, relations of care in a wide variety of situations...[and] will want the best for that person". Care between teacher and student is a continuous process that lasts over time, and that involves mutual understanding. additionally, Noddings links caring to preparation and organization. In which students recognize caring in teachers who are prepared and organized. This philosophy of caring permeates the actions of teachers students remember best. (Noddings in Tompson et al, 2010)

So caring is what teachers do, not what they feel. Davis (2011) explains this idea and the role of caring in six assumptions. The first is caring is as a professional disposition; teachers should consider it as a part of their job and objectives. Second, it is perceived by students as a quality in a relationship. Third, it is nurturing for the teacher. Fourth, caring should be for the whole class. Finally, caring should be associated with understanding and

learners feel their understanding matters. Thus, caring can be demonstrated in everything a teacher does in the classroom. The most important aspect for students is to be understood and to feel that understanding is important.

Furthermore, according to Davis (ibid) Successful teachers not only need to care for their students; they need to care for themselves also. This kind of care will always maintain enthusiasm and motivation and gives more energy for more care for students and teaching. When teachers Show care about them, it helps create a positive, supportive relationship and helps build an environment where learning can flourish. we are modeling behaviour that we want students to learn and imitate because in many cases, teachers ignore the influence of little gestures such as a touch, a smile, or a kind word which can change students' life or thinking.

1.4.1.2. Teachers' Active Listening

In their excellent and much reprinted book getting to yes, Fisher and Ury (1981: 35) said about active listening the following words:

the need for listening is obvious, yet it is difficult to listen well. listening enables you to understand their perceptions, feel their emotions, and hear what they are trying to say. Active listening improves not only what you hear but also what they say. if you pay attention and interrupt occasionally, they will realize that they are not just killing time, not just going through a routine. They will also feel the satisfaction of being heard and understood. (Fisher and Ury in Poster and Poster 1993: 106)

Most teachers consider themselves to be naturally good listeners because their job demands this; active listening is, however, a skill that can be cultivated and learnt.

Some say active listening is an art.

1.4.1.3. Teachers' Fairness and Equal Opportunities

Fairness seems to be an easy task mastered by everyone but in reality it is not. About fairness, Curwin (2012) says: "Many define it as treating everyone the same, but I would argue that doing so is the most unfair way to treat students. Students are not the same." In this definition, Curwin wanted to prove the idea that "fair is not equal"; so, teachers have to treat students fairly but not the same. Rodabaugh (1996) clarifies that when assessing teachers' fairness, a student does not usually consider the intentions but his/her own perceptions of the teacher's behaviour or strategies. To fit this perception, Rodabaugh (1996) classified fairness into three types. The first type is interactional fairness; in which the teacher has to be fair in the way he/she interacts with learners. This type includes impartiality, respect, concern for students, integrity and propriety.

The second type of fairness is procedural fairness; this type includes rules for rating and classroom administration. Based on a conceptual analysis, four factors contribute to perceived procedural fairness in the classroom. These factors are course work load, tests, provision of feedback and most importantly responsiveness to students. The last type mentioned by Rodabaugh (1996) is outcome fairness. Grades are essential indicators for students' perception of fairness. This last type is related to grades distribution. For that, this category includes: following the institutional practice, using accurate assessment instruments, making multiple assessments, telling them how they will be graded, basing grades on individual performance and never changing policies midcourse (Rodabaugh in Whitley et al., 2000). To these categories, they add the importance of the syllabus which is

an excellent means of ensuring fairness if it is complete and with well explained objectives from the beginning.

1.4.1.4. Teachers' Enthusiasm and Motivation

Many teachers fear that if it does not appear there is serious learning taking place, they will be criticized. However, research proved that students learn more when they are having fun. If teachers are enthusiastic about what they teach and support it with beneficial knowledge; then, students can have the same enthusiasm. Further, Teacher's enthusiasm can permeate students with a belief in themselves. LeBlanc summarizes teacher's enthusiasm in these terms: "Good teaching is as much about passion as it is about reason.....it is about caring for your craft, having a passion for it, and conveying that passion to everyone, most importantly to your students" (LeBlanc, 1998). Urban (2008) makes a distinction between two types of enthusiasm: for learners and for teaching. To achieve both kinds, teachers should pay attention to the following points:

- having fun and sense of humour while working hard
- always prepared and motivated with Enthusiasm spelled out
- energetic and not boring
- tough and always prepared
- Understanding with high standards
- imaginative and story teller

Another survey was done by Parson (2001) in which she gave some characteristics of enthusiastic teachers' behaviours. To the previously mentioned aspects, she added some details about using paralanguage such as varying speaking voice, showing excitement through eye contact, using body language and facial expression and encouragement. The

latter is perceived by many researchers to have a considerable effect on students to value enthusiasm. Research indicates that there are effective ways to praise students if it is used as encouragement. Whereas praise is used to express approval and admiration, encouragement refers to a positive acknowledgement response that focuses on student efforts to specific attributes of work completed. Encouragement presents the following characteristics as mentioned by Hitz and Driscoll (1989):

- offers specific feedback rather than general comments
- is teacher initiated and private
- focuses on improvement and efforts rather than an evaluation of finished product
- uses sincere, direct comments
- helps students develop an appreciation of their behaviours and achievements
- avoid competition or comparison with others
- works toward self-satisfaction (Hitz and Driscoll in Madrid 2002)

So, one thing, all teachers should remember is motivation comes from within, and students reflect their teachers in one way or another. Motivation and enthusiasm are simply loving our students and loving what we are doing.

1.4.1.5. Teachers' Reflective Learning

In distinction from other thinking operations, reflective learning involves 1) a state of doubt, hesitation, perplexity, mental difficulty in which thinking originates, and 2) an active searching, hunting, inquiring, to find material that will resolve the doubt, settle and dispose of the perplexity. Reflection was seen as a method of challenging transmissive

approaches to teaching because reflection highlighted the importance of understanding teaching as problematic. So, teachers need to acknowledge that there is not necessarily one way of thinking or one way of responding to situations. Therefore, if there is not one true way of thinking, then our teaching methods need to support alternative ways of thinking and doing in order to develop students' learning for understanding. Learning for understanding is one form of thinking about what it means to be educated. According to Dewey, a reflection is a specialized form of thinking that a learner applies when confronted by a puzzling or curious situation in order to make better sense of that situation. He saw reflection as one of a teacher's artful skills which, when applied in practice: supplies the conditions that will arouse intellectual responses in students (Dewey in Loghran 2010: 161-162)

Dewey (1933) outlines three attitudes that he considered important in predisposing an individual to reflect. He continually demonstrates through his writing that it is not sufficient to "know"; there also need to be an accompanying desire to "apply." The attitudes which he described as important in securing the adoption and use of reflection are:

- **Open mindedness** being open minded means to be prepared to listen to all sides and perspectives
- **whole- heartedness** involves being enticed and engaged by ideas and thoughts
- **Responsibility** refers to seeking meaning in that which has been learnt. (Loughran 2010: 162- 163)

So, reflection is described as being built on these three attitudes. However, it is described as a consequence of events comprising of five elements: suggestions, the

problem, hypothesis, reasoning, and testing. Reflective practitioners are therefore thoughtful and well informed about their practice setting because they have built up their knowledge of that setting through learning from experience and being open to standing back and considering not only alternative ways to a given situation, but of framing the situation in ways that acknowledge and respond to alternative perspectives.

Generally speaking, being reflective may appear as a simple task as we refer to our personal practice and experience. But, according to Loghran (2010), it is not as it seems when considered to develop alternative perspectives in which it takes a new meaning as a demanding intellectual exercise. Therefore, instead of thinking about justifying practices and beliefs, teachers need to examine, learn and respond using a variety of skills, knowledge and abilities according to the nature of the problem or purpose. For that, the term is easily misunderstood in education where people assume that reflecting is simply looking back at a situation.

Some of these quality indicators such as caring, fairness, respect and attitudes can be considered as input variables for describing the teacher as a person. Other indicators such as motivation, enthusiasm and social interaction can be considered as output variables. Therefore, the output indicators can be highly influenced by the input indicators. Reflection can be considered as the attitude that enhances and influences all personal attributes.

1.4.2. Classroom Management and Organization

Classroom management refers to the variety of skills and techniques that teachers use to sustain organization, order, focus, attention and academic productivity during class.

“When classroom-management strategies are executed effectively, teachers maximize the

behaviours that facilitate or enhance learning and minimize the behaviours that prevent learning for both individual students and groups of students” (Glossary of Education). In recent years, leaders, reformers, and researchers paid more attention to classroom management and begun investigating and researching effective strategies used by successful teachers. Researchers who are concerned with classroom management base their point of view on “the general recognition that effective classroom management is a requirement for effective instruction and strong management skills are the foundation of strong teaching” (ibid)

There has been no agreement about effective strategies for classroom management; however, in the literature, there are many strategies emphasized by many researchers. Stronge et al. (2011) describe managed classrooms saying:” Effective teachers create focused and nurturing classrooms that result in increased student learning.” (Marzano et al., 2003; Shellard & Protheroe, 2000 in Stronge et al.: 2004: 66). This statement implicates that any strategy used to provide nurture and attention in for good learning to take place is a management strategy.

In this sense, Stronge (2007) focuses on two pillars for management and organization which are rules and routines where teachers can use some rules to maintain safety and productivity in the classroom. Evidently, wherever this is interaction among people, rules are required. Webster’s dictionary rule is defined as “a fixed principle that determines conduct.” Effective teachers follow some classroom rules to maintain good relations, keep a safe environment, and enhance learners’ participation in learning. So, teachers can explain norms clearly, model them, rehearse the expectations with students, and offer students opportunities to be successful in meeting the expectations. Dornyei (2001) considers rules as one of the motivational strategies for a language classroom. He insists on the fact of explaining rules in which he agrees with research findings that suggest

that norms would be most efficient if they are explicitly discussed and willingly adopted by students. To achieve that, Dornyei (2001: 46) suggests the following strategies:

- formulating potential norms
- justifying their purpose in order to enlist support for them
- having them discussed by the whole group
- eliciting further potential norms from the learners and subjecting to the discussion too
- Agreeing on a mutually accepted set of class rules.

The second pillar of management mentioned by Stronge (2007) is routines. Routines are defined by many researchers as the backbone of daily classroom life. They facilitate the teaching/ learning process as well as saving valuable classroom time. Routines make learning and achievement easier (Shalaway 1999). For that, to ensure that the classroom runs smoothly, students need to understand what is expected of them in the classroom through established routines (Young, 2016). But, this should be done to nurture a sense of ownership and community in the classroom in a way that before establishing specific procedures or routines, it is necessary to discuss their importance with students. During their discussion, teachers should be able to talk about reasons behind every routine and invite students to share the creation of procedures. In establishing procedures or routines, Young (2016) reminds about the following:

- Ensure that students understand the reason for the routine.
- Clarify the procedure through modeling.
- Allow students opportunities to practice the routine through rehearsal.
- Try not to overwhelm students by teaching too many routines at once. The process of establishing routines and procedures may take several days.

- Remember that it will probably be necessary to revisit this process as you see the need.

Establishing procedures and routines might be at different times during the day like beginning the day, classroom entering and exiting, collection and distribution of papers, attention, and quietness, appropriate moving around times, emergency procedures, going to the restroom, reading and homework policies, asking questions, late arrival, and dismissal. For routines to be effective, they should be taught at the beginning of the year. If routines are presented and practiced in an appropriate way, the classroom focus will be centred on instruction. Routines also may help to create a positive atmosphere in the classroom as well as a sort of flexibility (Strong et al., 2004: 67- 68)

Classroom management and organization are intertwined. While rules and routines influence student behaviour, classroom organization affects the physical side of the classroom and makes it more productive. There are three aspects of classroom organization that are proved to have a great impact on students and teachers: seating patterns, proximity, and staff organization. The seating arrangement also needs to be organized in a way that the instructor can easily move around the room and monitor student behaviour. Proximity can help to control what is going on in the classroom, especially in cases of students causing problems. Therefore, moving from one place to another is essential and standing in one place in the classroom is never safe in a way that makes students feel free to do whatever they want (Catapano, NA)

Another side of management is high expectations for student behaviour. Students should be exposed to what they are expected to do in the classroom and those expectation should be high. Hence, for effective teaching to take place, teachers should use

all verbal and non-verbal cues to teach expectations to reinforce and motivate efforts and positive behaviour so as to achieve good management of students' behaviour. They establish relationships with their students, in which high levels of cooperation and dominance are balanced, resulting in an optimal relationship. Another characteristic of effective teachers is that they consider individual student's problems, and they try to intervene if necessary to help students learn the desired behaviour. Teacher expectations for student success are powerful motivators for both the teacher and the student. For students high achievement, teachers need to set appropriate goals for students and support them in attaining their goals. Effective teachers convey a "you can do it" attitude to students and demonstrate confidence in the students' abilities to master new content and skills (Stronge et al, 2004: 69)

To ensure that lessons and activities are sequenced and presented adequately, planning should take the main focus where teachers create an overview of each unit, identifying components that are primary, secondary, enrichment, and remediation.. Planning can help also to decide about materials and carefully consider the curriculum. According to Stronge (2007) and Stronge et al. (2004), efforts to organize for instruction should reflect three strategies: be organized around lesson objectives, reflect students' needs and interests, and oriented toward standards-based assessments. Unfortunately, at the level of the Algerian university, there is no agreement on fixed planning by subject specialized teams or committees that can reduces the isolation that teachers may feel as well as guiding new teachers. Consequently, many teachers prepare their lesson plans just before the session or they do not have plans at all.

Planning also overlaps with time which is "a non-renewable resource in the classroom" that can work for or against the teacher. "Teachers only have a finite amount of

it, and when it is gone, there is no way to generate more” (Stronge et al, 2004: 96). Many things, changes, and events may happen but the given time is the same. So, teachers have to be very selective, careful and strategic to deal with such incidents. Effective teachers know how to control time by setting routines and norms right at the beginning, explaining the syllabus and objectives as well as explaining what is expected from their learners. Further, they know how to make adjustments in case of emergencies. To be able to achieve all those planning strategies, teachers should be aware and have content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge.

A part of planning is knowledge of curriculum and instructional materials and resources. The curriculum is the framework and basis for teachers to identify important concepts and to focus on desired learning outcomes. Furthermore, curriculum defines the specifics of *what* students should learn. Effective teachers have a deep knowledge of their content area, and they also plan lessons to allow students to use their knowledge in new and authentic ways as well as know how to activate learners’ schemata. Effective teachers update their repertoire of knowledge about instructional materials and equipment in order to meet the needs of their students. They use their knowledge of instructional standards to guide their decision making on what resources they need to acquire or develop. Most teachers use supplementary materials and overheads on a regular basis. However, teachers should integrate technology and be aware that students are different from one generation to another as their interests change. Teachers use technology to offer more opportunities, enhance motivation and provide extra follow-up outside class.

1.4.3. Implementing Instruction

Research in the field of language teaching proved that students get refreshed and stimulated if new techniques and strategies are applied in the classroom. Some teachers use what they master; others use what they perceived as successful from their experience while some of them use the same strategies every day with every objective. Another type of teachers, focus on variety, but they do not give a chance for questioning, explanation or reflective learning which is good in one way offering consistency, but if students' learning needs are not being met by the strategies employed, then they are not benefiting from the educational experience. Therefore, teachers should think about creating a balance between routines and novelty. A few simple guidelines which may help with the selection process and implementation of the strategy are suggested by Strong (2007, 131-132) as follows:

1. Review the current research on the strategy to determine if it has a proven track record based on solid evidence.
2. Learn about the instructional strategy and how to apply it in a classroom.
3. Start off slowly and build your comfort level by focusing on one strategy at a time.
4. Stick with it in the short term. Try a strategy in a lesson and reflect on how it went.
5. Stick with it in the long term (but only if it works).
6. Continue to refine your use of the strategy until you become an expert. Once the basics are mastered, branching out to other strategies is a natural next step.

Successful instruction does not involve only planning but needs communication of content and skills knowledge as well. Therefore, dialogues and listening to students must be main parts of learning objectives. Most importantly, for effective teaching to take place, teachers should communicate high expectation of their learners needs and make students understand learning objectives related to what they are expected to do. This kind

of communication and understanding can create a supportive environment and give learners a sort of security. Communicating with students also plays an essential role in motivating learners and reduces their anxiety from the teacher and classmates in which interaction becomes a natural activity with class. Good communication is not only about skills and knowledge but also the link between those skills and knowledge and students' lives. In this sense, teachers need to create contexts for their lessons to help students organize and remember information. To achieve that, teachers need to start from students' prior knowledge and help them to make connections between what they know and the current subject.

Effective teaching nowadays is centred on students' engagement. Therefore, teachers should find ways to enhance learners' involvement. Some techniques can be used such as calling students, engaging them in different experiences, responding to their questions and taking their responses into consideration. Prior knowledge is also basic to achieve engagement as students can get motivated to participate and value through relating the material to what they know. Unfortunately, it is impossible to make all students involved either because of the lack of motivation, lack of interest in the task or the type of the content and activity itself. Hence, teachers need to provide instructional activities that promote high student engagement and reduce teachers talk and work.

Along with communication, instructional complexity has to be given attention. Effective teachers know that learning involves more than just memorizing facts; it means connecting facts into mental frameworks that have meaning and that represent patterns in a given subject area. First and foremost, teachers need to understand what knowledge, skills, and interests, students bring to the classroom. All students are unique because of their individual strengths, weaknesses, and prior experiences. Effective teachers meet students where they are and move them forward with the appropriate level of challenge and support.

These educators are able to raise the achievement levels for all groups of students in their classrooms by varying the complexity of instructional tasks. Remediation, skills-based instruction, and individualized instruction are commonly provided to students based on their individual needs. Furthermore, students are able to learn advanced skills so long as they are provided concurrent support for addressing their weaker skills. Many strategies that promote critical thinking or creative problem solving for gifted and talented students can be used to raise the instructional complexity levels for all students.

Teachers help students construct knowledge in multiple and meaningful ways. Sometimes unfamiliar concepts are connected to familiar ones to generate new understandings or enhance a basic concept. Models, diagrams, movies, and experiments can also provide students with the necessary connections to make sense of complex information. Recognizing the essential components of content knowledge and the ways in which students can demonstrate their understanding of it is necessary to good teaching. Knowing what questions to ask to further students' understanding and assess where they are is another skill of effective teachers.

Questioning Strategies are also essential as they pave the way for both the teacher and students to achieve what was mentioned earlier in this chapter. Good teachers ask good questions to check understanding of the basic facts, skills, or ideas in a lesson and then push students to think critically and creatively about what they have learned. Some educators think of questions according to Bloom's Taxonomy: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. Others consider the cognitive process involved in answering the question. Regardless of how we choose to categorize classroom questions, a timely, thoughtful question can be an excellent tool for instructional delivery.

Research suggests that the way a question is posed determines the response

given. Effective teachers phrase questions to encourage students to use the desired level of thinking from basic recall to evaluation of an idea. The amount of wait-time after a question influences the level of participation, nevertheless, shorter wait time might be appropriate for basic recall questions. Effective teachers are competent in using multiple levels of questioning successfully according to the objectives of the lesson. Effective teachers also teach learners how to ask questions themselves. If students regularly discuss what they are learning and ask questions to one another, their interaction and articulation of ideas and opinions will enhance. Consequently, students are shifted from a passive to an active situation.

Effective teaching nowadays is centred on students' engagement. Therefore, teachers should find ways to enhance learners' involvement. Some techniques can be used such as calling students, engaging them in different experiences, responding to their questions and taking their responses into consideration. Prior knowledge is also basic to achieve engagement as students can get motivated to participate and value through relating the material to what they know. Unfortunately, it is impossible to make all students involved either because of the lack of motivation, lack of interest in the task or the type of the content and activity itself. Hence, teachers need to provide instructional activities that promote high student engagement and minimize teachers talk and work.

1.4.3. Monitoring Learners' Success

Earlier in this chapter, teachers' effectiveness was defined in terms of learners' outcomes and achievement; therefore, to be effective, the teacher should pay attention to learners' success and monitoring where they do more than testing students. Rather, they should monitor and collect evidence of students' understanding. Also, they should ensure

that learners are aware of course objectives, expectations and assessment strategies. Research on learners monitoring stressed three components which are homework, monitoring students' progress and responding to students' needs and abilities.

Effective teachers are perceived to be aware of the value of homework though they know that learners get frustrated and bored when it comes to homework. Some perceive it to be boring and unmotivating as it loads learners outside class while others consider it to be necessary to develop students' skills and knowledge. Good and Brophy (2003: 393) indicate that many view homework as, "An important extension of in-school opportunities to learn." The question that proponents and opponents of homework raised is its purpose; so, Should homework be assigned and graded on a regular basis, or should it be viewed as an educational means to an end? As a means to an end, should one centralized school or district policy govern homework, or should some flexibility exist? (Carbone, 2009). In both cases, homework is proved to be effective and beneficial.

Bishop cited ten benefits of homework which will be summarized in a few points. First, Homework teaches students about time management. Regarding this point, teachers should play a main role in training students to manage time and plan their tasks by giving clear objectives and instructions for the homework teaches students how to set priorities. Second, homework helps teachers determine how well the lessons and material are being understood by their students. Therefore, the homework if done in an appropriate way is one of the best strategies to conduct teachers' evaluation. Third, homework teaches students how to problem solve. It is a way to practice and check understanding; so, if the learner finds himself/herself facing a problem, he/she will have an opportunity to revise or solve it. Also, homework gives students another opportunity to review the class material. Finally, homework teaches students that they have to do things, even when they don't want

to and how to be responsible and independent. Therefore, homework can be used to reinforce a concept from the lesson, facilitate exploration of a concept, or examine a topic in greater depth. Researchers found a positive relationship between students' grades and the amount of homework they do (Cooper et al. in Strong et al., 2004: 171)

The second component in monitoring learners is monitoring students' progress. To monitor students' progress, teachers should focus on both their goals and students level and needs as related to those goals. Thus, on one hand, teachers need to understand the knowledge base and skills set of each learner in order to set a realistic framework of objectives and content. Further, they should be aware of the prerequisite skills needed for progress and must be patient in letting students attain one level of skill or knowledge development before they move to the next step. On the other hand, teachers should focus on feedback that enables students to develop their knowledge and skills. So, feedback should be continuous and should be given in a motivating way.

Finally, as learners' styles, interests, needs and ability differ, teachers' techniques and strategies should vary too. In this regard, the class should not be seen as one group but as individuals. Teachers should pay attention to learners' needs and respond to them individually by finding out how best to support each learner's success. To achieve that, one of the motivational strategies suggested by Dornyei (2001) is teachers' availability; sometimes, class time is not sufficient to explore all criteria mentioned above, so, the teacher should have little extra time to meet learners, discuss their problems and tutor them when needed.

Conclusion

Research proved that investing in teachers can make a difference in student achievement. To reach effectiveness, the prerequisites should be met first where education policy makers and administrators should recognize the complexity of the issue and adopting multiple measures along many dimensions to support existing teachers and to attract and, hire new and highly qualified teachers. Learners' achievement, learners' motivation, teachers' satisfaction is a shared responsibility. Teacher quality is one of the basic conditions of any school success; so to think about motivation, we need first to create the appropriate atmosphere for it and motivate teachers to do well. The coming chapter will be devoted to some issues related to motivational strategies in the language classroom.

Chapter Two

Motivational Strategies in Foreign Language Classrooms

Introduction

Motivation is important in learning because it impacts mental and physical reactions of learners. Highly motivated learners have a willingness to learn efficiently and effectively, resulting in higher productivity, increased achievements and high grades which are the demands of the communicative approach. Low motivation can be caused by a lack of direction or purpose, lack of teachers' motivation, classroom environment as it can be intrinsic or extrinsic. The role of motivation in the classroom is theoretically straightforward but is difficult actually to measure. Hence, before discussing the issue of motivation to learn, we should first understand learning to motivate. This chapter is dedicated to discussing the concept of motivation, theories, models and strategies that can be used to generate and maintain motivation.

2.1. Defining Motivation

Research in the field of psychology and teaching proved the complexity of motivation and its multi-disciplinarily where different domains and aspects contribute to constructing its components and indicators. It is surprising how little agreement there is in the literature concerning the exact meaning of this concept though it is a term which is frequently used in both educational and research contexts. About the difficulty in defining motivation, Chambers says: "Motivation is multifaceted that it is almost impossible to articulate a definition which covers all facets satisfactorily and with any conciseness"

(Chambers, 2001:2). He also explains it as a mass of strands interlinking to determine an individual's behaviour (Chambers, 2001:1).

In early motivation research, many academics tried to define motivation in five ways. The first was related to instinct theory (19th century): Freud maintained that human behaviour was motivated instinct and regarded it as a part of the individual's unconsciousness. Secondly, drive theory (early 20th century; Cannon 1932): "a drive may motivate not a single behaviour but various behaviours based on the same need. Hunger, for example, may motivate not only eating but also restlessness before mealtimes." (Chambers, 1999: 15). Thirdly, neo-behaviourism (Hull, 1943) proposed that the probability of a given behaviour was based on three factors: a) drive determined by need; b) incentive-the perceived capacity of the external stimulus to reduce the need; c) habit-the extent of the individual's experience in performing the behaviour. Fourthly, Behaviourism (Skinner, 1957) focuses on stimulus-response associations and causes rather than need and reason for action.

Skinner experiments on rats led to the development of definitions for reinforcement (any operation that increases the rate of response), punishment (any operation which decreases the rate of response), shaping (the step by step procedure in training animal through reinforcing each phase of the desired behaviour), and reinforcement schedules (i.e. only certain responses are reinforced). Finally, Cognitive approach (Weiner; Jung 1978), unlike behaviourism which focuses on the observable, this approach focuses on non-observed things; it shows that action can be particularly understood about cognitive factors, e.g. thought processes, intentions, expectations, interpretations of given situations. (Chambers, 2001:2-3)

Wlodkowski (2005) discusses motivation as a dynamic process explaining that motivation is an unstable hypothetical construct which cannot be directly measured. He defines motivation regarding finite amount of energy that can be applied to a goal, people change their minds about what they want, vary in how they feel, vary in how much effort they will expend when they finally get to it friends, family, job, normal life all compete with education. Wlodkowski (2004: 93-195) adds motivation is operation on integrated levels which are determined by the author in three levels. The first level is expectancy for success plus a sense of volition (willing to learn/expect they can master material/treat learners with normal positive expectations that they will learn/make the learning worthy of the adult learners' choice. The second level is expectancy for success plus a sense of volition plus value (learners take it seriously/context is meaningful and worthwhile/learning can raise self-esteem, incorporate their intrinsic motivation). The third level is expectancy for success plus a sense of volition plus value plus enjoyment (learning is pleasurable)

Dornyei and Otto (1998: 65) get closest to a definition which acknowledges most appropriately the multidimensional and changing nature of motivation:

The dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritized, operationalized and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out.

Dornyei (1999: 525), summarizes this definition indicating that motivation determines three aspects of human behaviour: the choice of the action, persistence with it, and effort expended on it, that is motivation is responsible for people's decisions to do something, their degree of sustainability, and effort spent to pursue it.

Motivation is also linked to desire by many researchers like Mele (1995: 388), who presented six popular themes in the philosophical and psychological literature on motivation; he stated that: motivation is present in the animal kingdom, motivated beings have the capacity to represent goals and means to goals, a motivated attitude may have either a goal or a means to a goal as its object (intrinsic/extrinsic), motivation varies in strength and finally the more strongly motivated agents are to do in a comparison to alternative courses of action, the more likely they are to do other things being equal.

Differently, Dembo (2004: 53-54) relates motivation to three interactive components. The first component is the personal and socio-cultural factors that include individual attributes such as learners' attitudes and values based on their personal, family, and cultural life. The second component is the classroom environment factors that influence instruction in many ways. The third component is the internal factors or students' beliefs and perception. Both personal and sociocultural factors influence internal factors and play a great role in shaping learners beliefs and perceptions. Current research on motivation indicates that internal factors are key factors in understanding behaviour. Thus, motivated behaviour can be evaluated through the choice of behaviour, the level of activity and involvement, persistence and management of effort.

Other researchers explain motivation regarding goals. Wlodkowski (2008:3) confirms this relationship indicating that being motivated means being purposeful. People use attention, concentration, imagination, passion and other processes to achieve goals, such as learning a particular subject or completing a degree. Learners' society and family cultures have a considerable impact on the way they deal with their goals as well as their passion for a subject. Further, he explains this relationship between motivation and goals in the following words: "Seeing human motivation as purposeful allows us to create a knowledge base about effective ways to help adults begin learning, make choices about

and give direction to their learning, sustain learning, and complete learning”(ibid). Thus, teachers start to deal with motivation when they seek solutions to know learners’ needs and difficulties and start thinking to find solutions to encourage them to set goals and make effort into their learning.

2.2. Defining Motivation in Second and Foreign Language Learning

If motivation in learning, in general, is multifaceted and complicated to define, L2 motivation is more complex and involves a variety of accounts and considerations because motivation theories tend only to answer the question “why humans behave as they do”.The multifaceted nature and roles of language itself made L2 Motivation a complex and unique situation.Language is myriad of aspects at the same time. Language is a communication coding system, and it is the most important embedded channel used in social community. Also, it is a part of the individual's identity which is involved in almost all mental activities. For that, the motivational basis of language attainment is different from that of the mastery of other subject matter because L2 learning requires the development of a kind of L2 identity along with incorporating L2 culture elements. Further, language learning involves environmental and cognitive factors that may affect learning. Also, L2 motivation also includes personality and social dimensions. Dornyei concludes that “L2 motivation is necessarily a multifaceted construct, and describing its nature and its core features requires particular care.” (Dornyei 1998: 117-118)

All above definitions emphasized the role of motivation in learning which can be summarized in the following terms: productivity, efficiency, achievement, development, collaboration, autonomy, and stability. So, motivation is important not only

because it improves learning but it mediates learning and is a consequence of learning as well. Wlodkowski (2008: 6) confirms that saying: “Psychologically and biologically, motivation and learning are inseparable.” Teachers have long known that things go more smoothly when learners are motivated during the learning process, communication flows, anxiety decreases, and creativity and learning are more apparent. Teaching with motivated learners can be joyful and exciting, especially for the teacher. Learners who complete a learning experience feeling motivated about what they have learned seem more likely to have a continuing interest in and to use what they have learned. It is also logical to assume that the more numerous their motivating learning experiences in a particular subject, the more probable it is that people will become lifelong learners of that subject.

2.3. Components of Motivation to Learn

In this section is devoted to introduce two points of view about components of motivation which are discussed by Frith and Dornyei and Csizer

2.3.1. Firth Taxonomy of Motivation Components

Firth (1997: 2-4) identified six components of motivation being: curiosity, self-efficacy, attitude, needs, competence and external motivators. First curiosity; through Curiosity, humans tend to explore and experience new things in a form of learning enjoyment, puzzles solving, or developing competence. Firth (1997: 2) defines it as rewards and punishments as the main motivators for learning so as behaviour is oriented to gain a reward or avoid a punishment. So, teachers should focus on this part as a motive to nurture curiosity within their learners. To achieve that, teachers should provide stimuli that are new but not too different or high level when compared to their prior knowledge as

the latter may create anxiety rather than curiosity. Accordingly, Firth (1997) recommends making a balance between task complexity and clarity.

The second component discussed by Firth (1997) is self- efficacy. The concept was found by Bandura (1977, 1989). Self- efficacy is the belief in one's ability to achieve goals or solve problems. Bandura (1989) believes that efficacy expectations which are beliefs about one's ability to reach a goal, "determine how much effort one expends and how long one persists in the face of obstacles" (Bandura in Good and Brophy, 1995: 345). In the context of learning, motivation can be reduced and negatively affected by doubts about one's ability to succeed and negative self- concept. In this case, the teacher can scaffold learners by dividing tasks into chunks and enhancing their positive self-image through task which are appropriate to their level and interest. This strategy is called "performance accomplishments" which is one the four sources of self-efficacy discussed by Driscoll (1994).

The other three sources mentioned by the author are vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological states. Vicarious experience happens when the Learner observes other role models achieving success at a task and attaining goals. Sometimes learners have doubts about their ability so they might be convinced by others about their ability to succeed in a particular task; this called by Driscoll "verbal persuasion". Physiological states refers to the feeling of conviction that a student may have about his/her success or failure like students who correlate the exam to a physical problem or illness. "In this case, the teacher can not do much to change that physiological state rather they can only suggest relaxation exercises or desensitization training to overcome fears and anxiety" (Driscoll 1994, in Firth, 1997: 2)

The third component is the attitude. Attitudes have been considered a central concept of social psychology; “early writers have defined social psychology as the scientific study of attitudes” (Schwarz and Bohner, 2001: 2). Early definitions were broad including cognitive, affective, motivational, and behavioral components. A decade later, Krech and Crutchfield (1948: 152) came with a new definition, "An attitude can be defined as an enduring organization of motivational, emotional, perceptual, and cognitive processes with respect to some aspect of the individual's world" (Krech and Crutchfield in Schwarz and Bohner, 2001: 2). Most definitions stressed the continuity and the relationship between attitudes and behavior and some of them stated that attitude is the probability of showing a specified behavior in a specified situation (Schwarz and Bohner, 2001: 2). Therefore, Firth (1997: 3) stresses the importance of explaining specific behaviours that demonstrate an attitude. However, sometimes it is impossible to demonstrate an attitude because of the intrinsic nature of learners’ attitudes toward learning. Accordingly, Fleming and Levie (1993) , discussed three approaches to change attitude: “providing a persuasive message, modeling and reinforcing appropriate behaviour and inducing dissonance between the cognitive, affective and behavioral components of the attitude” (Fleming and Levie in Firth, 1997: 3).

Concerning needs, Frith (ibid) relies on Maslow’s hierarchy of needs stressing that the lower-order needs should be met first, before higher-order needs; otherwise, learners will not be able to learn.. As teachers, we should consider that education works towards achieving higher level needs not lower level ones. Motivation is also related to competence which is an intrinsic motive for learning that is highly related to self-efficacy. This relationship is based on the idea that when things are done well, individuals receive pleasure. For some learners, success in a subject is not enough; in this case, teachers must not only provide situations of possible success but also give students opportunities to

undertake challenging tasks on their own to convince themselves that they can achieve. Further, teachers can show external support, respect and encouragement to help the student to achieve competence and the latter become the intrinsic motivating factor (Frith, *ibid*: 4).

External Motivators are all strategies that can be used by the teacher to enhance motivation such as participation, interaction and managing the environment. On one hand, teachers can achieve that through teaching learning strategies in a flexible and creative way. Learning environments should be stimulating through a varying activities, strategies, methods materials to avoid boredom and reduce anxiety. Grades valued as an external motivator in learning if the process of evaluation is studied well and based on motivation theory. Teachers should pay attention to two aspects; first in intrinsic motivation, the main reason to finish an activity is “doing” whereas, in extrinsically motivated learners, find value in the end of the action. Students need reinforcement strategies to build confidence such as praise and encouragement. Students can also have their self-rewards for fulfilling a task or a goal. “They must feel that their perspectives are valued, and they have opportunities to share their thoughts and feelings”. (Frith, *ibid*: 4)

2.3.2. Dornyei and Csizer Taxonomy of components

Dornyei and Csizer (2005: 20-22) discussed seven components as being: integrativeness, instrumentality, vitality of the L2 community, attitudes toward the L2 speakers/community, cultural interest, linguistic self-confidence, and milieu. Pritchard and Rashwood (2008:19-22) propose five components of motivation (figure.3): an action (is something you do putting energy into a particular act or task.), results (applying energy to actions generates results.), evaluations (evaluations are assessments of the value that result

create. Put another way, how valuable is the result?), outcomes (outcomes are the good and bad things that happen as a result of the evaluation of our actions) and Need satisfaction (the last step in the process is needed satisfaction. Need satisfaction comes from outcomes that are received)

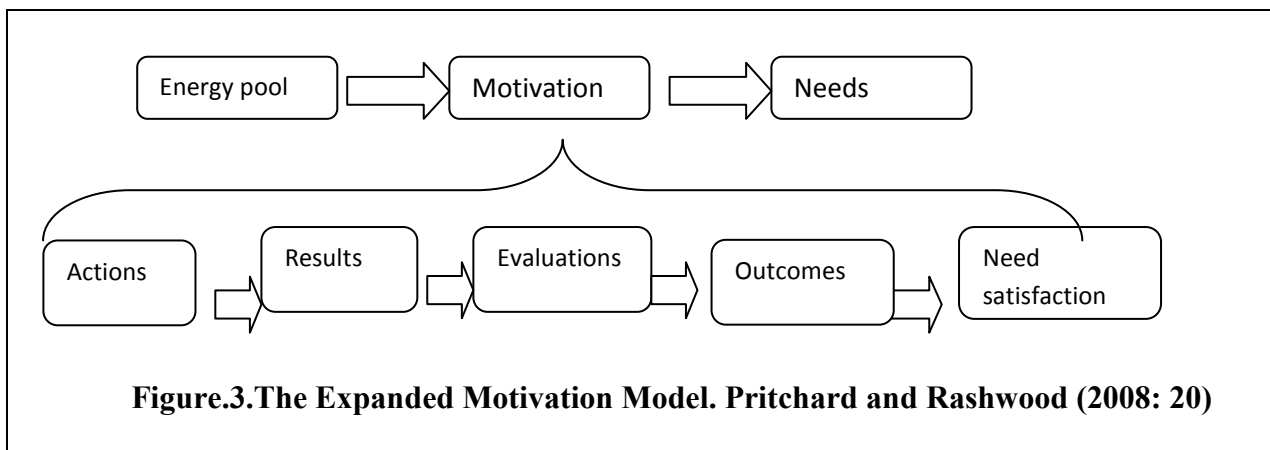


Figure.3.The Expanded Motivation Model. Pritchard and Rashwood (2008: 20)

This figure shows that the five components of the motivation process work together. People devote energy to actions, actions produce results, these results are evaluated, and the evaluations produce outcomes that may or may not lead to need satisfaction.

2.3.3. Chambers Taxonomy of Components

To sum up, Chambers (1995: 14) classified components of motivation into four categories (**Figure.4.**).

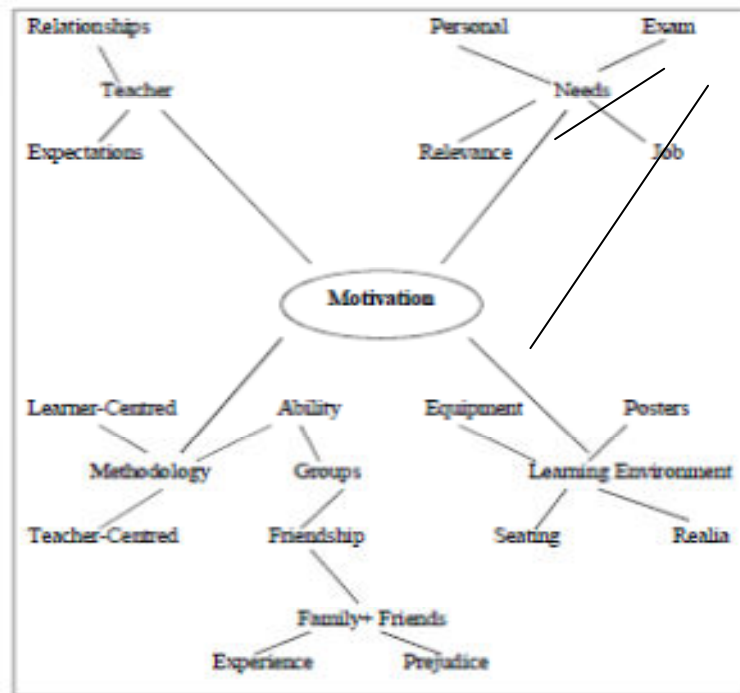


Figure. Initial brainstorming on motivation (Chambers 1995:14)

Figure.4. Initial brainstorming on motivation (Chambers 1995:14)

The first category includes the teacher who has a direct influence on relationships and expectations which are essential in the motivation process. The second are needs, involving all kind of learners' needs such as personal needs, relevance, exams or job. The third category represents methodology which is learner centered, teacher-centered or related to ability. The last category, the learning environment, includes seating patterns, equipment and materials.

2.4. Sources of Learning Motivation

Educational psychologists emphasize three major sources of motivation in learning which are: the learner natural interest (intrinsic satisfaction), the teacher /institutional/employment (extrinsic reward), and success in the task (combination of

satisfaction and reward) (Littlejohn, 2001). Wlodkowski (2008: 96) emphasized responsibility as “a corner stone of adult motivation”. Almost all cultures hold adults more responsible for their actions than others. Responsibility is considered as the motive of competence and effort. About that, Knowles (1989: 83-84) provided two assumptions

- adults have a self-concept of being responsible for their lives and develop a deep psychological need to be seen and treated by others as being capable of self-direction
- adults become ready to learn those things they need to know or.....to cope effectively with their real life situation (Knowles in Wlodkowski, 2008: 97)

In current literature, needs are viewed as dispositions toward action in as way that they provide a condition that lead to taking action or making a change and moving in a certain direction. Action or overt behaviour may be initiated by either positive or negative incentives or a combination of both. Hitt (2011) provides a brief overview of the different sources of motivation in the following chart.

Sources of Motivational Needs	
<u>behavioral/external</u>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • elicited by stimulus associated/connected to the innately connected stimulus • obtain desired, pleasant consequences (rewards) or escape/avoid undesired, unpleasant consequences
<u>social</u>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • imitate positive models • acquire effective social competence skills

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • be a part of a dyad, group, institution, or community
<u>biological</u>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • increase/decrease stimulation (arousal) • Activate senses (taste, touch, smell, etc. • Decrease hunger, thirst, discomfort, etc. • Maintain homeostasis, balance
<u>cognitive</u>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • maintain attention to something interesting or threatening • develop meaning or understanding • increase/decrease cognitive disequilibrium; uncertainty • solve a problem or make a decision • figure something out • eliminate threat or risk
<u>affective</u>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • increase/decrease affective dissonance • increase feeling good • decrease feeling bad • increase security of or decrease threats to self-esteem • maintain levels of optimism and enthusiasm
<u>conative</u>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • meet individually developed/selected goal • obtain the personal dream • develop or maintain self-efficacy • take control of one's life

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • eliminate threats to meeting the goal, obtaining the dream • reduce others' control of one's life
<u>spiritual</u>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • understand the purpose of one's life • connect self to ultimate unknowns

Table.1. Sources of Motivational Needs. Huitt 2011

2.5. Factors that Affect Learning Motivation

Factors and components are used as alternatives in literature. Therefore, many of the factors we are going to discuss in this section are already mentioned in (section 2). It is impossible to cover all literature related to factors affecting motivation; rather, an emphasis will be put on those that centred on the language and classroom learning. Wlodkowski (2004: 95-97) discussed six factors that impact learner motivation. The factors are:

- Attitude: combination of concepts, information, and emotions that result in predisposition to response
- Need: internal force that the leads learner to move in direction of a goal
- Stimulation: change in perception of or experience with environment helps to sustain adult learning behaviour/ once boredom sets in, fatigue and distraction are not far behind; adults are more vulnerable because of other adult responsibilities.

- Affect: emotional experience while learning/emotions give meaning and relevance to learning/can be intrinsic motivator/positive emotion sustain involvement and deepen interest in subject or activity
- Competence: humans inherently desire to gain competence over environment/people naturally strive for effective interactions with their world/both symbol and value of adulthood. Thus, adults are especially motivated when aware they are mastering learning tasks which will make them more effective at what they value.
- Reinforcement: any event that maintains or increases the probability of the response it follows/how reinforcement is applied critically to adults; must be accompanied by clear explanations of progress or will not be taken seriously.

So organizing the major factors of motivation for maximum usefulness instruction is a network of interactions between teacher and learner that lead to learning. He confirms that saying: “The teacher’s knowledge of learners’ motivation, subject matter, instructional situation, and time constraints will determine the quality and quantity of the motivational strategies employed.” Wlodkowski (2004: 101)

Another research is done by Ebata (2008) who made an investigation of three factors that may affect motivation which are self-confidence, the experience of success and satisfaction and good relationships among learners and between teacher and students. Self-confidence is essential in language-learning. It provides learners with positive attitudes in a form of motivation and energy. It also creates the drive for them to acquire the target language, enjoy the learning process, and experience real communication. A person’s belief in his or her ability to accomplish the task is the key to success. In general, successful language learners appear to have higher self-esteem than those who are

unsuccessful. The second factors stressed by Ebata is the experience of success. It is the main provider of power for students to pursue a new goal. It allows language learners to understand the purpose of trying and have pleasure in communicating with others. Some people might feel successful when they can communicate their thoughts to people; others might feel the sense of success when they complete a challenging task in the target language.

Finally, good relationships are among the affective strategies that teachers need in order to find creative ways to teach the language and increase motivation to learn and appreciate learning. There are some methods that English instructors can use to motivate students in class, and instructors should flexibly employ the most suitable method for the class. Teachers should develop a mutual relationship with their learners. They need to understand students' backgrounds, interests, future goals, aims for English learning, and most importantly, different personalities. Dembo (2004: 53-63): discusses three factors that affect motivation: personal and socio-cultural, classroom environment and internal factors.

Furthermore, William and Burden (1997) propose a comprehensive summary of all what have been said by all researchers mentioned above, dividing factors into internal and external factors. Those factors are considered by some researchers as a framework for motivation (Matsumoto, 2009:3) internal factors, are all factors related to the learners which may influence the process of learning directly or indirectly. They discussed a total of nine internal factors being: (1) intrinsic interest of activity (arousal of curiosity, optimal degree of challenge), (2) perceived value of activity (personal relevance, anticipated value of outcomes and intrinsic value attributed to the activity), (3) sense of agency (locus of causality, locus of control, ability to set appropriate goals), (4) mastery (feeling of competence, awareness of developing skills and mastery in a chosen area, self-efficacy),

(5) self-concept (realistic awareness of personal strengths and weaknesses in skills required, personal definitions and judgements of success and failure, self-worth concern, learned helplessness), (6) attitudes (to language learning in general, to the target language, to the target language community and culture), (7) other affective states (confidence, anxiety), (8) developmental age and stage and (9) Gender (William and Burden in Dornyei, 2001: 20).

William and Burden (1997) classified external factors into four categories which are not perceived to be different in different learning contexts. The first factor is significant others; teachers, peers, and parents may play an essential role in affecting learners' motivation. The second factor is the nature of interaction with significant others; so not only they are important but the way they interact with the learner is also valuable in determining motivation (such as mediated learning experiences, nature and the amount of feedback, rewards, nature and amount of appropriate praise, punishments). The third factor is the learning environment including comfort, resources, time, and class size and class and school ethos. The fourth factor is related to the broader context comprising wider family networks, the local education system, conflicting interests, cultural norms and social expectations and attitudes (William and Burden in Dornyei, 2001: 20).

In the literature on motivation, what is confusing is the lack of agreement about factors, components and sources. So what is referred to as a factor in one study is a source in other one and a component in a different one. Further, what is referred to as a factor is considered by some researchers like Dornyei as a framework of motivation or model. So, it is impossible to draw general conclusions about any motivation related issue.

2.6. Theories of Learning Motivation

Motivation is such a complex phenomenon that it cannot be defined by a single theory. It can be in different forms as well as may be affected by different factors such as cause, behaviour or outcomes (Petrides, 2006). In foreign language learning theories, motivation can be defined about two factors: needs of the learners and their attitudes towards the foreign language. Therefore, motivation theories tend to focus on one of these two or both of them together. Motivation has been explained in different taxonomies that fall under three main paradigms: behavioural, cognitive and humanistic.

In teaching, all these theories address one issue which is how to change the learner. Behaviourists stress changing behaviour where they believe that behaviour is determined by reinforcement, so they seek to explain motivation by identifying the cues that elicit behaviour and the reinforcement that sustains it. Cognitivists talk about changing minds in which they believe thoughts processes control behaviour; so they focus on how people process information and interpret personal meanings in particular situations. Humanists discuss changing lives and critical reflectors about changing societies. They believe that people act in their environment and make choices about what to do, but they are more concerned with the general course of personal development, the actualization of potential and the removal of obstacles to personal growth (Ho, 1998: 167)

Cognitive theories of motivation stress that the way of people thinking about what is happening to them is an as important determinant of subsequent behaviour as the objective reality of what takes place (Good and Brophy 1994:366). Thus, cognitivists explain motivation regarding person's active search for meaning and satisfaction in life which means that motivation according to them is intrinsic. Humanists emphasize the need for personal growth. They put emphasis on the learner as a whole. They also maintain that learners need to be empowered and have control over the learning process. The teacher

becomes a facilitator. Three theories fall under the umbrella of the “humanistic” theories of learning.

2.6.1. Bandura Self-Efficacy Theory

Behaviourists place emphasis on external reward and the systematic arrangement of reinforcement contingencies. So, according to this theory, the physical environment and actions of the teacher are of prime importance. Bentham (2002) discussed three theories starting from Pavlov experiment that explains the notion of classical conditioning. This theory states that biological responses to associated stimuli energize and direct behaviour. The second theory is instrumental/operant learning by Skinner. This theory states reinforcers are incentives to increase behaviour and punishers are disincentives that result in a decrease in behaviour (stimulus-response-reward).

The third and most relevant behaviouristic theory to language learning she discussed is Bandura’s observational/social learning. This theory suggests that modelling and vicarious learning are important motivators of behaviour. According to Bandura (1977), there are two major sources of motivation. One source involves predicting outcomes of behaviour. Based on consequences of past actions, the person tries to predict the consequences of contemplated actions. The second source of motivation is actively setting goals that become personal standards for evaluating performance. While working toward a goal, individuals imagine the positive things that will occur if they succeed and the negative things if they fail. Thus, they tend to continue their efforts until they meet the standards they set. Hence, they can be satisfied for a time but begin to identify new goals or to set new (higher) standards for themselves. (Bandura in Good and Brophy 1994: 361).

Based on that belief, Bandura came up with the concept of self-efficacy (social cognition theory) which refers to “the perceived capabilities for learning or performing actions at designated levels” (Bandura 1997 in Shunk and Pajares: 2002, 35). According to this theory, self-efficacy is considered as a powerful impact on individuals’ motivation, achievement and self-regulation. (Shunk and Pajares, 2002: 35). In education, its influence is seen in students’ choices of activities, efforts they spend, persistence in a task, interest, and achievement. So students with high self-efficacy participate more readily, work harder, persist longer, show greater interest in learning, and achieve at higher levels than others who doubt about their abilities. (Bandura 1997 in Shunk and Pajares, 2002, 35). There are four types of self-efficacy: Self efficacy for performance, Collective self efficacy, Teacher or instructional self efficacy and Collective teacher self-efficacy (Bandura in Shunk and Pajares, 2002: 38).

2.6.2. Expectancy –Value Theory (VIE: Valance, Instrumentality, and Expectancy)

This theory is based on Vroom’s concept that motivation overlaps these elements: expectancies for success (expected probability for success on a specific task), connection of success and reward-material benefit (instrumentality) and value of obtaining a goal (valance/value). This theory indicates that a low value in one among these three will result in a low value in motivation.(Hitt, 2011). Atkinson developed the first formal, mathematical expectancy value model in an attempt to explain different kinds of achievement- related behaviours such as success efforts, task choice and persistence. Atkinson 1957 postulated that “achievement behaviours are determined by achievement motives, expectancies for success, and incentive values”. (Atkinson in Wigfield et al, 2002: 55). He that achievement motives are relatively stable dispositions, which include two kinds: a motive for approaching success and a motive to avoid failure. Wigfield et al

(2002: 55-56) state that expectancies and values are more task specific and also tied closely to one another. Therefore, for motivation to occur, all three must be present. That is, the probability that the individual will engage in the required learning activity is low if the learner does not believe in his/her success at a task or the individual does not see a connection between his/her activity and success or the individual does not value the results of success, then, (Hitt, 2011).

2.6.3. Cognitive Dissonance Theory

Cognitive dissonance theory was founded by Festinger (1957). “The term cognitive dissonance is used to describe the feelings of discomfort that result from holding two conflicting beliefs.” (Cherry, 2016). Festinger suggested that there is an inner need within individuals to ensure consistency in their beliefs and behaviors. Therefore, inconsistent or conflicting beliefs may lead to a sort of disharmony, which people strive to avoid. Thus, it is a kind antecedent condition which leads to activity oriented to reduce dissonance. According to cognitive dissonance theory, there is a tendency for individuals to seek consistency among their cognitions (i.e., beliefs, opinions).

Kearsley (2006) explains cognitive dissonance in the following terms “When there is an inconsistency between attitudes or behaviors (dissonance), something must change to eliminate the dissonance” . In most of cases, when discrepancy happens the attitude will change to accommodate the behaviour. However, the degree of dissonance people experience may be affected by different factors such as the rate of dissonant beliefs, and the importance attached to each belief. Ways to eliminate dissonance include: reducing the dissonant beliefs importance, adding consistent beliefs that exceed the dissonant beliefs, or changing the dissonant beliefs to be consistent (Kearsley, 2006). So

the task of the teacher in this situation is to create the appropriate amount of disequilibrium. Then, the a change in thought patterns will happen as a result of a change in behaviour which in turn leads to more change in behaviour (Abisamra, 2006).

2.6.4. Cognitive Developmental Theories

Regarding this theory, students' needs, goals, and interests must be the starting point for motivation to occur. For motivation and progress, instructional input to learners must be challenging and relevant (Oxford and Shearin 1994). This theory is represented by two important theories: stages of cognitive development and zone of proximal development. As far as stages of cognitive development are concerned, Piaget (Piaget, 1972, 1990) asserts that children need a set of stages to develop their cognitive or mental abilities: the sensorimotor stage (infancy, 0 to 2 years), the pre-operational stage (toddler and early childhood, 2-7 years), the concrete operational stage (Elementary and early adolescence, 7-12 years) and finally, the formal operational stage (adolescence and adulthood 12 years –adult) (Piaget, 1972 in Stevens-Long and Cob, 83:49-50).”This model suggests that the fulfillment of the previous stage is necessary for advancement to the next stage” (Abisamra, 2006) . According to this thoery, to achieve motivation, parents and teachers need to create situations to challenge the learner’s abilities but they have take larners’ level into account to avoid activities which are beyond their level. In this case, it is recommended to use a variety of concrete experiences to motivate.

The second theory within this paradigm is the zone of proximal development. The concept was brought by Vygotsky to describe an optimal learning environment. Brainbridge (2016) explains this in the following terms:

Sometimes work is too easy. Sometimes work is too hard. And sometimes work is just right. When the work is just right, it creates an optimal learning environment. When work is easy, learners can do the work on their own without any help. It is their "comfort zone." If all the work a learner is asked to do is always in the comfort zone, no learning will take place. In fact, a learner will eventually lose interest. When the work is too hard, on the other hand, the learner becomes frustrated. Even with help, learners in the "frustration zone" are likely to give up.

Therefore, the zone of proximal development is the area between the comfort zone and the frustration zone where learning will take place. It is the area where a learner needs to be assisted or needs further effort to understand the information or complete the task at hand. In this case, the learner will not be bored or frustrated, but challenged. This theory is to help promote problem-solving abilities through giving difficult material to provoke their reasoning and thinking skills. Hence, In a learning setting, the teacher is in charge of scaffolding which is a strategy used to assist learners through sequencing lessons in small steps based on what the learner knows and able to do.

2.6.5. Achievement Motivation Theory

Achievement is having the desire to to master a goal or solve a problem or a challenge. Achievement oriented people like to have feedback about their level in achieving their goals and their success. Atkinson (1964) formulated a comprehensive theory of achievement motivation and behaviour based on three elements motive, probability and incentive value in both success and failure. He indicates that the tendency for approaching an achievement goal is a product of three factors: the need for achievement or

the motive for success; the probability of success and the incentive value of success. (Good and Brophy, 1995: 349) In this case, the high need for achievement can lead learners to be interested in excellence in achievement (extrinsic rewards), get involved in achievement activities as well as spend more efforts on tasks to carry on in case of failure. Furthermore, a tendency to avoid failure can be a product of three factors: the motive to avoid failure, the probability of failure and the incentive value of failure. Thus, to do well, learners can be simulated by failure so they avoid achieving a negative outcome rather than approaching a positive one.

Achievement oriented people are motivated through standards of excellence, precise goals and clear roles. This results in a non-conscious concern to spend effort for achieving excellence. Achievement people love to achieve and measure outcomes in which they usually set challenging goals for themselves and they assume responsibility for accomplish goals as well as count risks and challenges. Therefore, they become very effective in leading task oriented groups. In a learning setting, to maximize students' achievement motivation teachers should keep criticism constructive and minimize reasons for students to feel failure, by helping the students to set challenging but realistic goals and to take pleasure in reaching those goals, and by offering incentives for good effort and performance (Good and Brophy, 1995: 353).

2.6.6. Attribution Theory (Weiner 1979)

Attribution is the study of how individuals explain their lives and it grew out of research on achievement motivation. Weiner developed a very influential theoretical framework in social psychology. Attribution theory assumes that people try to determine why people do what they do, that is interpreting causes to an event or behavior (Weiner

1972: 203) Attributions are answers to those why questions such as why did I fail in the exam? (in case of achievement), or why wasn't I invited to the party (in case of affiliation). Attributions can be made by the individual himself/herself as well as by others. Teachers may ask for example why did Mary fail? Or why doesn't Mary work in a group? (Graham and Williams, 2002: 12)

Weiner (1979) argues that attribution can be explained through causality in three-dimensional classification related to achievement. According to him, there are four factors affecting attributions: ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck. Concerning the three categories of attribution, he discussed locus of control (internal /external), stability (stable/unstable) and controllability (controllable/ uncontrollable). Wang (2001) explains these dimensions as following: locus of control, stability, and controllability. Locus of control (internal-external) refers to the degree of the effect of the internal factors (internal locus of control) or external (external locus of control) an individual. External causes are factors such as mood and ability; external causes are like stability (stable-unstable) which refers to an unchanging cause and controllability including those controllable factors that influence results. Skill and competence are classified as controllable while luck and mood are classified as uncontrollable.

Success and failure are attributed to ability including aptitude and skills, effort, task difficulty, luck, mood, and help or hindrance from others. According to Graham and Williams (2002: 12), ability and effort are the most dominant perceived causes of success and failure among causal ascriptions. When they tend to explain achievement outcomes, individuals attach the most importance to their perceived competence and how hard they try. However, in most of cases it is the opposite; **for instance**, in case of success, the individual can attribute successes to himself/herself (internal) but another person

succeeds, it can be credited to luck (external). On the other hand, if one fails or makes mistakes, they will use external attribution in which they attribute causes to situational factors rather than blaming themselves. When others fail or make mistakes, internal attribution is often used, saying it is due to their internal personality factors.

2.6.7. Hierarchy of Human Needs (Maslow, 1962)

In a recent study, Green, (2000) discussed Maslow's hierarchy. He summarized the two groupings that form this hierarchy: deficiency needs and growth needs. Deficiency Needs include: physiological (hunger, thirst, bodily comforts), safety/security; belonging and Love (affiliation) ; and esteem. Therefore, according to Maslow, an individual is ready to act upon the growth needs only if the deficiency needs are met.

Growth needs include cognitive needs (to know, to understand, and explore) ; aesthetic (symmetry, order, and beauty) ; self-Actualization (self-fulfillment). self-actualization is essential because self actualized people are considered to be problem-solving focused. They also tend to appreciate life and show concern about personal growth and ability to have peak experiences. Another dominating characteristic of self actualized people is the tendency to help others and realize their potential (Abisamra, 2006). Maslow (1962) confirms that “unless lower needs are satisfied, higher need may not even be appreciated, let alone motivate behavior” (Maslow in Good and Brophy, 1995: 348). Psychological needs are basic to survival, but once they are met, higher needs can take over. Thus, if psychological and safety needs are satisfied, individuals can start to appreciate motivating factors and can think about higher level needs. In learning contexts, teachers need to understand that they should not address higher needs too quickly as some

students need to feel secured in the classroom or learn to work within a group before achieving higher needs like competence or self esteem.

2.6.8. Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985)

This theory is based on the relationship between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation and the basic human need for autonomy. Intrinsic motivation refers to the internal desires that drive individuals to perform a particular task so that people do certain activities because it gives them pleasure, develops a particular skill, or it is morally the right thing to do. Thus, it involves engaging in behaviour because it is personally rewarding; so they perform an task for its sake instead looking for any external reward like participating in group work because one finds it fun and exciting not because it is a part of the assessment schedule . Extrinsic motivation refers to factors external to the individual and unrelated to the Task they are performing. This kind of motivation occurs when people are motivated to perform behaviour or in engaging in a task gain a reward like having a good grade or avoid punishment. Therefore, in the first one the behaviour is motivated by an internal desire to participate in an activity for its sake; whereas in the second, the behaviouris motivated by a desire to gain a reward or avoid punishment (Deci and Ryan in Boggiano and Pittman1992, Kover and Worrell 2010). So for the task to be intrinsically rewarding, the individual can initiate and regulate through personal choice and the expended effort to accomplish a task. Thus, the task itself is the intrinci reward. Extrinsic motivation is all related to rewards beyond the task such as teachers' praise, grades or certificates.

2.7. Models of Learning Motivation

To be able to motivate, one needs to understand what type of motivation the concerned person needs. In fact, people may be motivated different factors either internal or external. Ryan and Deci (2000:54) explain that in the following words: “People have not only different amounts but also different kinds of motivation”. people vary vary not only in the level of motivation but also in the orientation of that motivation which concerns the underlying attitudes and goals that give rise to action (reasons behind actions). This diversity in level and type of motivation with the existence of different learning contexts and environments necessitates teachers and educators’ awareness about what is more important than defining motivation or identifying its factors. Rather, they need to know motivation models and specific characteristics of each one. In this section, ten models of motivation will be focused on starting from early works of Gardner (1959) till latest work of Dornyei and Hadfield (2014).

2.7.1. Gardner and Lambert Socio-Educational Model (1959,1972)

This model is based on seven other foreign language learning models each of which can be placed into one of two categories. According to Chambers (1999: 17- 19), the first category include models that focus on the linguistic process which address individual differences in second language achievement and with direct attention to the hypothesized processes operating on the individual when confronted with the task of learning or using a particular language form. To this category belong the following models: the monitor model (Krashen, 1978, 1981, 1982), the conscious reinforcement model (Carrol, 1981) and the strategy model (Bialystok, 1978). The second category includes those models that focus on a social process in which social, psychological variables are the centre of attention. This category includes: social psychological model of second language acquisition (Lambert,

1963, 1967, 1974) acculturation model (Schumann, 1978), social context model (Clément, 1982), and the intergroup model (Giles and Byrne, 1982).

In their model, they conclude that learners' attitudes toward the target language and the culture play an essential role in language learning motivation. According to them there are two types of motivation. Within their model, they introduced the concept of instrumental and integrative motivation. The model is perceived to be important as it focuses on four classes of variables, stated by Chambers (1999: 20) as following: the social milieu, individual differences, language acquisition contexts and learning outcomes. However, researchers criticized this model for being too broad and missing the cognitive aspects of learning motivation (Oxford and Shearin, 1994). Further in the 1990s, in response to calls for the adoption of a wider vision of motivation, Tremblay and Gardner extended Gardner social psychological construct of L2 motivation by incorporating into its new elements from expectancy value and goal theories. Their proposed extended model is fairly straightforward in suggesting a language attitudes-motivational behaviour-achievement sequence. About the features of the model, Dornyei (2001 b: 54) explains:

The model offers a synthesis of Gardner's earlier, socially grounded construct and recent cognitive, motivational theories, and demonstrates that additional variables can be incorporated into Gardner's socio- an educational model without damaging its integrity.

The new element is the inclusion of three mediating variables between attitudes and behaviour which are: goal salience (specificity of the learners' goals and the frequency of goal-setting strategies used), valence (denoting an L2 learning related value component), and self-efficacy (comprising anxiety and performance expectancy)

2.7.2. Schumann Acculturation Model (1978, 1986)

Schumann suggests factors which can influence second language acquisition: apart from social and affective factors, there is personality, cognitive, biological, aptitude, personal, input and instructional factors. According to him, acculturation is a cluster social and affective factors. Acculturation is the fact of learners' integration socially and psychologically with the target language community. So, the more the learner acculturates, the better he/she will acquire the second language. He suggests three strategies: first, assimilation, whereby the second language group replaces its values and lifestyle with that of the target language group. Second, preservation, where the group maintains its way of life, rejects that of the other group, and so increases social distance and fails to learn the second language. finally, adaptation, in this case, there are varying degrees of mix or distance (Spolsky 1988: 142-143).

2.7.3. Keller ARCS Model (1983)

Another effective model in the history of motivation is Keller's. Keller (1983) presents an instructional design model for motivation that is based on other theories. His model suggests four components of motivation: attention, relevance, confidence, and satisfaction (Good and Brophy, 1995: 401). The ARCS Model is rooted in some motivational theories and concepts, most notably expectancy-value theory. According to the model, in an instructional situation, learners should be provided with learning task that are engaging and meaningful to the student as well as promoting positive expectations for the achievement of learning objectives. Ruth (1997) describes the power of the model in the following words:

The ARCS Model of Motivational Design is an easy-to-apply, heuristic approach to increasing the motivational appeal of instruction. The ARCS provides a useful framework for both the design and improvement of the motivational quality of a range of informational entities- from classroom instruction to Internet resources- and increases the likelihood that these entities will be used and enjoyed.

The ARCS Model identifies four essential strategy components for motivating instruction: [A]ttention strategies for arousing and sustaining curiosity and interest; [R]elevance strategies that link to learners' needs, interests, and motives; [C]onfidence strategies that help students develop a positive expectation for achievement; and [S]atisfaction strategies that provide extrinsic and intrinsic reinforcement for effort. According to Fernandez (1999), Keller breaks each of the four ARCS components down into three strategy sub-components. Attention encompasses perceptual arousal, inquiry arousal, and variability. He sees the relevance as being: goal orientation, motive matching, and familiarity. Confidence also is divided into learning requirements, success opportunities, personal and responsibility. Finally, he divides satisfaction into intrinsic reinforcement, extrinsic rewards and equity. Four steps were emphasized for successful adherence to this model: analyze the audience and develop a motivational profile, define motivational objectives, design a motivational strategy relevant to the audience and test and modify strategy as necessary; which is the most important feature of the model.

2.7.4. Deci and Ryan Self- Determination Model (1985) (Autonomy)

This approach is built on the relationship between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation and the basic human need for autonomy. According to them, “human motives

can be placed on a continuum between self-determined (intrinsic) and controlled (extrinsic) forms of motivation” (Dornyei, 2001a: 11). Intrinsic motivation is related to behaviours individuals perform to experience pleasure and satisfactions(like the joy of doing a particular activity). Extrinsic motivation refers to performing behaviour for a final goal (i.e. to receive an extrinsic reward such as grades) or to avoid punishment (Dornyei, 2001a: 11). The important point in their theory is that both self-determined and controlled behaviours are motivated or intentional, but they differ in regulatory processes. In early research on extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, the two forms appeared to be antagonistic, and thus extrinsically motivated behaviours were assumed not to be self-determined. Recently, theory and research have suggested that there are different types of extrinsically motivated behaviours representing self-determined versus controlled responding in various ways. Deci and Ryan (Deci and Ryan in Deci et al., 1991: 325-346) suggested four types of extrinsic motivation: external, introjected, identified and integrated forms of regulation based on the concept of internalization as an argument. Thus, this model has integrated both needs and social cognitive constructs on which it is based on three types of needs: competence, autonomy, and relatedness. (Pintrich 2003: 670)

2.7.5. Dornyei Motivation Models

The first model designed by Dornyei was Dornyei Motivational Construct (1990). The motivational construct consisting of: Instrumental motivation subsystems Integrative motivational subsystems, need for achievement, attribution about past failures. In this model, he integrated aspects from three motivation theories social, cognitive and humanistic.

In 1994, Dornyei conceptualized another general framework that consists of three levels: the language level, the learner level, and the learning situation level. The three levels coincide with the three basic constituents of the L2 learning process (the L2, the L2 learner and L2 learning environment). The Language level refers to orientations and motives related to various aspects of the L2 (integrative and instrumental motivational subsystem). The learner level constitutes internal, affective characteristics of the learner related to expectancy. Motivation is influenced at the Learner level by the learner's need for achievement, self-confidence (anxiety, perceived L2 competence, attributions, and self-efficacy). The learning situation level involves a number of intrinsic and extrinsic motives that are: course specific (interest, relevance, expectancy, satisfaction), teacher specific (affiliative motive -please teacher, authority type -controlling vs. autonomy supporting, modelling, task presentation, feedback), and group specific (goal-orientedness, reward system, group cohesiveness, classroom goal structure -- cooperative, competitive, individualistic.) (Dornyei, 1994: 279-280).

Further, based on this framework, Dornyei (1994: 281-282) proposes thirty strategies related to these three levels. Strategies are summarized in the following table

(Table.2):

<p>The Language Level</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. include a sociocultural component 2. develop learners cross-cultural awareness systematically 3. promote student contact with L2 speakers 4. develop learners' instrumental motivation
<p>The Learner Level</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. develop students' self-confidence 6. promote the students' self-efficacy 7. promote the favourable self-perception of competence 8. decrease students' anxiety 9. promote motivation-enhancing attributions 10. encouraging students to set attainable sub-goals

The Learning Situation Level	Cour	11. make the syllabus relevant 12. increase the attractiveness of the course content 13. discuss the choice of the teaching materials with students 14. arouse and sustain curiosity and attention 15. increase students' interest and involvement in the tasks
	Speci	16. match difficulty of tasks with students' abilities 17. increase students' expectancy of task fulfilment 18. facilitate students' satisfaction
	Teach er- Speci fic	19. try to be empathic, congruent and accepting 20. adopt the role of a facilitator 21. promote learner autonomy 22. model student interest in L2 learning 23. introduce tasks in such a way as to stimulate intrinsic motivation and help internalize extrinsic motivation 24. use motivating feedback
	Gro up- Speci fic	25. increase the group's goal-orientedness 26. promote the internalization of classroom norms 27. help maintain internalized classroom norms 28. minimize the detrimental effect of evaluation on intrinsic motivation 29. promote the development of group cohesion and enhance inter-member relations 30. use cooperative learning techniques

Table.2. Strategies within L2 Motivation Construct

Based on many studies, Dornyei (1998) presented a synthesis of 13 different constructs, which included all the ones discussed in his survey article 'motivation in second and foreign language learning. Here is a list of the main motivational dimensions underlying the various constructs (**Table.3**):

1) Affective/integrative dimension

Integrative motive: Clement et al. (1994), Dornyei (1990, 1994a), Gardner (1985), Gardner's AMTB, Julkunen (1989)

Affective motive: Schmidt et al. (1996: MDS) Language attitudes: Laine (1995); Schmidt et al. (1996: FA), Tremblay & Gardner (1995), Williams & Burden (1997)

Intrinsic motive /Attitudes toward L2 learning/Enjoyment/Interest: AMTB, Dornyei (1990, 1994a), Gardner (1985), Julkunen (1989), Schmidt et al. (1996: FA), Schumann (1998), Tremblay & Gardner (1995)*, Williams & Burden (1997)

2) Instrumental/pragmatic dimension AMTB, Dornyei (1990, 1994a), Oxford & Shearin (1994), Schmidt et al. (1996: FA), Schumann (1998), Tremblay & Gardner (1995)*, Williams & Burden (1997)

3) Macro-context-related dimension (multicultural/ intergroup/ethnolinguistic relations) Laine (1995), Tremblay & Gardner (1995)

4) Self-concept-related dimension (generalised/trait-like personality factors)

Self-concept: Laine (1995), Schumann (1998), Williams & Burden (1997)

Confidence /self-efficacy: Clement et al. (1994), Dornyei (1994a), Schumann (1998), Tremblay & Gardner (1995), Williams & Burden (1997)

Anxiety/inhibitions: AMTB, Julkunen (1989), Laine (1995), Oxford & Shearin (1994), Schmidt et al. (1996: FA), Williams & Burden (1997)

Success /failure-related (attributional) factor. Lornye\ (1990, 1994a), Julkunen (1989), Schmidt et al. (1996: FA, MDS), Schumann (1998), Tremblay & Gardner (1995), Williams & Burden (1997)

Expectancy: Oxford & Shearin (1994), Schmidt et al. (1996: MDS)

Need for achievement: Dornyei (1990, 1994a), Oxford & Shearin (1994)

5) Goal-related dimension. Oxford & Shearin (1994), Schmidt et al. (1996: MDS), Schumann (1998), Tremblay & Gardner (1995), Williams & Burden (1997)

6) Educational context-related dimension (learning/ classroom/school environment) Clement et al. (1994), Dornyei (1994a), Julkunen (1989), Laine (1995), Williams & Burden (1997)

7) Significant others-related dimension (parents, family, friends) AMTB, Williams & Burden (1997)

Table 3. Main Motivational Dimensions Underlying 13 L2 Motivation Constructs

(Dornyei, 1998: 129)

In 1998, Dornyei and Otto proposed the action model **as** a reaction to the traditional approaches to motivation that reflected a great deal of disagreement. Based on Heckhausen and Kuhl's action **control theory**, Dornyei and Otto (1998) designed a process model of L2 motivation accounting for the dynamics of motivational change in time and synthesizing many of the most important motivational conceptualizations to date (Dornyei & Otto, 1998: 43). The motivation to think about a process-oriented approach came from the conviction that when motivation is examined in relation to specific learner behaviours and classroom processes, there is a great sort of the lack of construct stability in which learners tend to demonstrate what Dornyei calls 'fluctuating level of commitment' even within a single lesson, and the variation in their motivation over a longer period can be dramatic. So, to capture this variation, they thought to adopt an approach that involves both ups and downs of motivation, that is, the ongoing change of motivation over time (Dornyei, 2003:17). Dornyei (2003: 18) defines the model in the following words:

A process model of L2 motivation breaks down the overall motivational process into several discrete temporal segments organized along the progression that describes how initial wishes and desires are first transformed into goals and then into operationalized intentions, and how these intentions are enacted, leading to the accomplishment of the goal and concluded by the final evaluation of the process.

The main assumption underlying this model is that motivation consists of several distinct phases: first it needs to be generated; second, the generated motivation needs to be actively maintained and protected; Third, motivation retrospection which concerns the learners' retrospective evaluation of how things went (Dornyei 2001a: 21). Despite all

these specific characteristics of the model, Dornyei (2000: 524) clarifies that their “construct does not offer any radically new insights or identify novel motivational factors but rather synthesizes various influential conceptualizations of motivation as in a systematic process-oriented framework”. The model contains two dimensions: motivational influences and action sequences and three phases: pre-actional, actional and post-actional based on Heckhausen and Kuhl’s control theory. Concerning the first dimension which is motivational influences, they include the energy sources and motivational forces that underlie and fuel the behavioural process. The second dimension, action sequences, represents the behavioural process when one’s wishes, hopes, and desires are transformed into goals, then, into intentions leading to action and hopefully to the accomplishment of the goal, after which the process is submitted to final evaluation. As far as phases are concerned, they are described by Dornyei and Otto (1998: 47-51) as following:

- 1) **Pre-actional phase:** refers to **choice motivation**; the individual selects a task or goal based on his/her generated motivation. This level is made up of three sub-phases: goal setting, intention formation and the initiation of intention enactment.
- 2) **Actional phase:** refers to **executive motivation** in which the generated motivation needs to be actively maintained. In this phase, the emphasis shifts from decision making to implementing action. This stage includes three main processes: Implementation of sub-tasks, a continuous appraisal process and action control mechanisms application.
- 3) **Post-actional phase:** refers to the **motivational retrospection**-the period of evaluation when the goal has been attained, or the action has been accomplished. This evaluation is different from the actional stage appraisal. The main process of this stage is: forming causal attributions, establishing standards and strategies and dismissing intention and further planning.

Based on the process-oriented model discussed above, Dornyei (2001a) has chosen to follow a different approach in a new motivational framework which is characterized by two features: first it focuses on the different phases of the process-oriented model; second, it offers an important advantage over other models which is comprehensiveness. The stages are presented in a form of strategies, and each strategy is introduced through sub-strategies in which it ended up with twenty five strategies:

- Creating the basic motivation conditions: including appropriate teacher behaviours, a pleasant classroom atmosphere and appropriate group norms (31-49)
- Generating initial motivation: including enhancing the learners' L2 related values and attributes, increasing the learners' expectancy of success, goal-orientedness, making the teaching materials relevant for the learners and creating realistic learner beliefs. (50-70)
- Maintaining and protecting motivation: including making learning stimulating, presenting tasks in a motivating way, setting specific learner goals, protecting the learners' self-esteem and increasing their self-confidence, positive social image, creating learner autonomy, promoting self-motivating strategies and promoting cooperation among the learners.(71-116)
- Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation: including promoting motivational attributions, providing motivational feedback, increasing learner satisfaction and offering rewards and grades in a motivating manner.(117-134)

This framework is called by the author "motivational teaching practice"; it is the four stages are also in a cyclic relationship.

2.7.6. Crooks and Schmidt Motivation Model (1991)

In their model, they made a connection between learning and motivation identified in four areas: the micro level, the classroom level, the syllabus level and the informal/out of class considerations. The micro level deals with motivational effects on the cognitive processing of second language stimuli. At this level, the authors stress the importance of attention and input so attention given to the input determines the level of motivation is. The classroom level is centred on the concept of interest through classroom techniques, activities, feedback, materials and students' self-perceptions. The syllabus/curriculum level refers to the decision-making about curriculum and the content of syllabus that should be based on learners' needs and interests, not other considerations. The level of motivation is related to the level of their curiosity and enthusiasm about this content. The outside classroom or long term learning refers to the importance of commitment and continuing learning beyond the classroom in which they emphasize the role of informal learning. (Crooks and Schmidt 1991:483-494)

2.7.7. Wen Incorporated Expectancy-Value Theories Model (1997)

Wen (1997: 235-250) conducted a study to investigate the motivational factors of students who are from Asian and Asian- American backgrounds and learn Chinese at the university level in the United States. The results of the study revealed that the initial motivation for students to start learning the Chinese language was their intrinsic interest in Chinese culture and the desire to understand one's own cultural heritage. Students continue studying Chinese through expectations of learning task and effort. Based on the findings, she recommends four motivational factors to enhance students' motivation, expectancy, and self-efficacy in learning. The first factor is the motivation of instrumentality in which learners need some external motivators and rewards. The second is intrinsic motivation

which should be enhanced within the learner is to have goals and desire to learn the L2 language. Then, they are expected to learn strategies and make efforts; teachers should work to foster expectations and work and learning strategies training because the more learners have positive expectations and use learning strategies the more motivation level would be higher. The third motivational factor is passivity toward requirement; this factor presents a characteristic of compliance with requirements and a passive attitude toward the language.

2.7.8. Schunk Model of Motivated Learning (2009)

This model is one of the important models of motivation because of two reasons. The first reason is the fact that it is generic and not intended to reflect any one particular theoretical perspective. It is also cognitive because it views motivation arising from thoughts and beliefs. The second reason is that it portrays three phases related to the learning task: pre-task, during task and post-task. Variables at the pre-task stage are: goals; students enter with various goals (e.g. learn the material, perform well), expectations; expectation may involve capabilities for learning (self-efficacy) and perception of the consequences of learning (outcome expectations), affect; students differ in their affect associated with learning (e.g. they may be excited, anxious), needs; needs also are important in which they may influence all variable mentioned above, and finally social support includes any assistance from others like teachers, peers, parents, friends.

During the task, other variables intervene. These variables are classified by the other into three categories: instructional; including teachers, forms of feedback, materials and equipment, contextual variables including social and environmental resources (e.g. time, temperature, distractions, events) and personal variables including those associated with learning knowledge construction and skill acquisition, self-regulation variables, and

motivational indexes (e.g. choice of activities, effort and persistence). Post-task stage denotes the time when the task is completed and periods of self-reflection when students pause during the task and think about their work. The same variables important before task engagement are critical during self-reflection with the addition of attributions or perceived causes of outcomes. These variables interact to shape learners motivation in which “All these variables in a cyclical fashion, affect future motivation and learning” (Schunk, 2009: 455). Students who have the belief of progressing toward their learning goals and who make positive attributions for success are apt to sustain their self-efficacy for learning, outcome expectations, perceived value, and positive emotional climate. Additionally, factors associated with instruction, such as teacher feedback, provide information about goal progress and outcome expectation. Thus, students who expect to do well and receive positive outcomes from learning are apt to be motivated to continue to learn assuming they believe they are making progress and can continue to do so by using effective learning strategies (Schunk, 2009: 455)

To conclude, after summarizing the main motivation models discussed in the field of psychology and language learning, we arrived at the latest model of language learning motivation by Dornyei and Hadfield (2014) named “L2 self-model of motivation.” This model is unique in two respects. First, unlike other models, it focuses on one aspect which is the L2 self. Second, they introduced the model components in a form of activities; so, the model tends to be purely practical where the teacher can find the practical suggestion about every strategy within it (The model will be discussed later in Chapter.7).

2.8. Foreign Language Task Motivation

“Different tasks affect motivation and learning in different ways “(Julkunen, 2001: 33). According to Julkunen (2001: 33), task motivation refers to the characteristics

of the task or task design which made certain tasks more interesting, more attractive and more motivating than others. Further, task motivation is related to both learners' general motivation and the learners' perception of the task. In this regard, a distinction is made between trait motivation (general motivation) and state motivation (situation specific motivation). Motivation is correlated more to task performances rather than to students' long term achievement; however, "when confronted with a particular task, a learner will be motivated both by generalized, task- independent factors (such as the interest in the subject) and situation- specific factors (the task challenge)". Thus, task motivation is the overlapping of these two motivational sources (Dornyei, 2002: 139).

Julkunen (1989) listed four characteristics of motivating tasks. According to him, task motivation occurs when the learners enjoy performing the task and keep working without perceiving it as an obligation. Task motivation also requires the task to be communication provoking using the target language during the task. To be motivated, students need to have a sense of competition while completing the task. In addition, tasks should sustain curiosity within students; tasks should provide a gap between learners' schemata and the subject knowledge to be learned. (Julkunenin Agnesia, 2010: 5). In a study about autonomy, Ma (2009) confirmed that tasks that elicit students autonomy, competence and relatedness made students perform in different levels of task motivation, persistence and task engagement despite having the similar level of trait motivation (Ma in Agnesia, 2010: 5).

Keller (1994) discussed four determinants of motivation that have an impact on learners' goals, tasks and effort spent in learning. Interest happens when means curiosity is aroused and sustained throughout the task, activity and the course. Relevance is important to promote motivation through satisfying their needs with the task. Expectancy (Confidence) is the locus of control where the learner realizes that he/she has an

opportunity to succeed, ability to control learning and attribute success/failure to effort. Satisfaction happens at the end of the process when the outcomes of learning meet students' expectations (Keller in Julkunen, 2001: 33). To be Realistic, it is impossible to satisfy all criteria mentioned in literature about task motivation but at least some of them which are basic to tasks such task sequence and types of tasks.

Dornyei (2002, 139) suggests that the trait/state dichotomy is acceptable to conceptualize task motivation but is perceived to be weak because of its static nature. Tasks constitute of chains of learners' behaviours that can last for a considerable period and can never be stable. Thus, providing a process-oriented approach that look at the dynamic motivational processes that take place during task completion is more accurate than the simple and stable characteristics for the situation-specific task motivation. Therefore, to study the motivational dimensions of learning behaviours, the best can be done through exploring the motivational basis of student performance on learning tasks. It is necessary to examine the way learners process the various motivational stimuli they encounter and motivational strategies used to be account for the state motivation. (Dornyei and Ushioda, 2011: 96)

Based on the process approach discussed in the action process model (Dornyei and Otto, 1998), Dornyei (2003: 15-16), proposed a dynamic task processing system to explain learners' dynamic motivational basis during the process of performing the task and how task motivation is negotiated and finalized in the learner (Dornyei, 2003: 15). His model consists of three interrelated mechanisms: task execution, appraisal and action control (Figure.5). The model specifies students' continuous monitoring and evaluating how well they did in the task so they can make some modifications if something is wrong or they feel that they are not using the right strategy (Dörnyei and Tseng, 2009: 119).

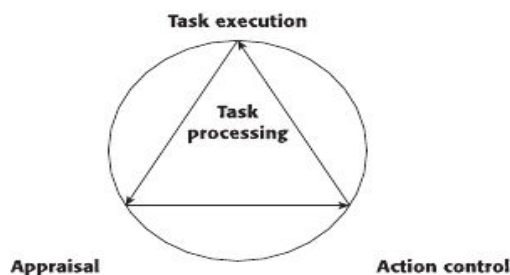


Figure.5. Schematic Representation of the Three Mechanisms Making up the Proposed Task Processing System (Dornyei, 2003: 15)

Task execution happens when the learner engages in a task supportive learning behaviour, guided by the action plan provided by the teacher or drawn up by the student or the task group. Task appraisal refers to the learner’s continuous processing of the multitude of stimuli coming from the environment regarding the progress made toward the outcome, comparing their actual performance and effort in the task with the expected outcome in the case of alternative actions. Action control processes refers to the self-regulatory mechanisms that can be displayed to enhance, scaffold or protect learning-specific action (Dornyei, 2003: 15-16). According to Dornyei (2003: 16), task processing can be seen as the interplay of the three mechanisms: “while learners are engaged in executing a task, they continuously appraise the process, and when the ongoing monitoring reveals that progress is slowing, halting or backsliding, they activate the action control system to save or enhance the action”

Conclusion

Two essential issues must be considered: motivating to learn and learning to motivate. The latter is most important and difficult. As teachers, we should bear in mind that everything we do in the learning/teaching process could be a motivator; so, we should take care of every bit of it. Motivation can be by reward, by the influence of peers, by feedback, by achievement, and by the task. For that, tasks are to be the core subject of the coming chapter.

Chapter Three

Foreign Language Tasks

Introduction

In recent years, a debate has developed over which approaches are more effective for structuring, planning and implementing lessons. The shift from teacher-centered to learner-centered approach urged teachers, practitioners and curriculum designers to shift their emphasis from the focus on language forms to meaning, communication and learners involvement. One of the methods that serve these principles is Task-Based Learning (TBL). This chapter presents an overview of a task-based learning approach (TBL) and foreign language tasks and highlights their advantages over the more traditional approaches.

3.1. Defining Tasks in Foreign Language Learning

Research on tasks defined the concept of the task in two terms: real-world (or target) tasks and pedagogical tasks. Target tasks refer to uses of language in the world beyond the classroom; pedagogical tasks are those that occur in the classroom. In this section, we will focus on both meanings of tasks. One of the first scholars who defined real world tasks is, Long (1985: 89) saying:

A piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward. Thus examples of tasks include painting a fence, dressing a child, filling out a form, buying a pair of shoes, making an airline reservation, borrowing a library book, taking a driving test, typing a letter, weighing a patient, sorting letters, making a hotel

reservation, writing a cheque, finding a street destination and helping someone across a road. In other words, by 'task' is meant the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play and in between. (Long in Nunan, 2004: 1)

This definition has been seen as non-technical and non-linguistic in a way that it describes the sorts of things that the person in the street would say if asked what they were doing. Further, some of the examples provided may not involve language use at all. Finally, individual tasks may be part of a larger sequence of tasks.

Other definitions are concerned with pedagogical tasks when transformed from the real world to the classroom. In this case, tasks are defined in terms of what learners' practice in class rather than in the world outside the classroom with emphasis on the importance of having a non-linguistic outcome. A task is defined as it is an activity or action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language. For example, when students draw a mind map for listening or listening to an instruction to perform a role may be referred to as tasks. Tasks do not always involve the production of language. During tasks, the teacher is required to specify what does task completion mean and how to be successful. Through that, teachers can make their teaching more communicative by using different kinds of tasks because they are designed to achieve an objective for a classroom activity that goes beyond the practice of language for its own sake. (Richards et al. 1986: 289 in Nunan)

Breen (1987: 23) offers another definition of a pedagogical task:

Any structured language learning endeavor which has a particular objective, appropriate content, a specified working procedure, and a range of outcomes for those who undertake the task. 'Task' is

therefore assumed to refer to a range of work plans which have the overall purposes of facilitating language learning – from the simple and brief exercise type to more complex and lengthy activities such as group problem-solving or simulations and decision-making.

This definition is very broad because it shows that anything that can be done by the learner in the classroom is a task. It considers any procedure at all as ‘task-based’ which is not right. However, Wallis (1996) and Bachman and Palmer (1996) define them in a more specific perspective. Wallis (1996) defines tasks as activities where the learner uses the target language for a communicative purpose in order to achieve an outcome (Willis, 1996 in Willis, 2007:12) whereas Bachman and Palmer (1996) define a task as an activity engaging learners in using language for the purpose of achieving a particular goal or outcomes in a particular situation (Bachman and Palmer in Willis, 2007:12). What is remarked in these two definitions is that they highlight either outcomes or goals where the authors show how a task can provide a formal framework for meaningful discussion by providing an explicit outcome or goal.

Based on other writers research, Skehan (1998) defines tasks in five key characteristics which are: meaning is primary, learners are not given other people’s meaning to regurgitate, there is some sort of relationship to comparable real-world activities, task completion has some priority and finally the assessment of the task is in terms of outcome. this is considered in research to be the most complete as there is an emphasis on meaning in which learners should be producing their own meaning, not simply repeating something that they have been told by someone else; it also focused on outcomes suggesting that task completion is priority, and that assessment of the activity

should be seen in a sort of outcome. Further, Skehan necessitates relating tasks to the real world.

Ellis (2003: 16) defines a pedagogical task as a work plan that requires processing language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether propositional content has been conveyed correctly and appropriately. He points out:

To this end, it requires them to give primary attention to meaning and to make use of their own linguistic resources, although the design of the task may predispose them to choose particular forms. A task is intended to result in language use that bears a resemblance, direct or indirect, to the way language is used in the real world. Like other language activities, a task can engage productive or receptive, and oral or written skills and also various cognitive processes. (Ellis, 2003: 16)

Nunan (2007) defines a pedagogical task in more comprehensive terms as a piece of classroom work that requires learners' comprehension, manipulation, production, or interaction in the target language while they focus their attention on grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning but they focus on conveying meaning rather than manipulating form. The task should also be complete so that it can serve alone as a communicative act (Ellis, 2003: 4-5). Thus, Nunan stresses the deployment of grammatical knowledge to express a meaning.

These definitions are different somehow, but they all share the point that pedagogical tasks involve communicative language use in which the focus is on meaning rather than grammatical form which does not mean that the latter is not needed. The type of tasks focused on in our research associated with this definition, i.e. any activity used to achieve communication in any Oral expression session. Lee concludes that a task can be

defined in two ways. First, a task is a classroom activity or exercise that involves (a) students' interaction to attain objectives, (b) interaction structuring and sequencing mechanisms, and (c) a focus on the exchange of meaning. Second, it is a language learning attempt that requires comprehension, manipulation, and language production (Lee 2000:32). Lee also discussed communicative tasks demands on the student: cognitive, linguistic and communicative. It is important to keep a balance when designing a task because they are essential to help judge the difficulty of a task.

3.2. Foreign language Task Principles

Doughty and Long (2003) consider methodological principles as a list of design features that can generally be regarded as being facilitative to second language acquisition (Doughty and Long in Brandl, 2008). Based on Doughty and Long (2003) synthesis, Brandl (2008: 7- 21) gave a summary of eight essential principles to be considered in task-based teaching and communicative teaching as the following:

- Principle 1: Use Tasks as an Organizational Principle
- Principle 2: Promote Learning by Doing
- Principle 3: Input Needs to Be Rich
- Principle 4: Input Needs to Be Meaningful, Comprehensible, and Elaborated
- Principle 5: Promote Cooperative and Collaborative Learning
- Principle 6: Focus on Form
- Principle 7: Provide Error Corrective Feedback
- Principle 8: Recognize and Respect Affective Factors of Learning

In this taxonomy, they emphasize language input which has to be rich using authentic materials and maximizing teachers' use of the target language as well as the focus on the form in teaching different skills and content. Another taxonomy which covered task in depth is Nunan's which includes seven different principles for tasks.

Principle.1. Scaffolding; in this regard lessons and materials should provide supporting frameworks within which the learning takes place. The idea is that learners should not be expected to produce language that has not been introduced either explicitly or implicitly the beginning of the learning process. So, the role of the teacher is to provide a supporting framework within which the learning can take place. Nunan also explained if scaffolding which forms 'the art of task based learning' is removed, that will cause a breakdown in the process and if it is maintained too long, independence and autonomy will not be developed with the learner the independence required for autonomous language use. (Nunan,1997: 35)

Principle.2. Task dependency; task dependency means that learners are led step by step to the point where they are able to carry out the final pedagogical task in the sequence. One of the important principles within the task-dependency framework is the receptive-to-productive principle. In the process, learners should be first exposed to language and given sufficient time for receptive (listening and reading) tasks than in productive (speaking and writing) tasks. Later, learners spend more time in productive work. Then, learners will be able to reproduce and create a language which is another principle within task dependency to develop chains of tasks. (Nunan,1997: 35)

Principle.3. Recycling; according to Nunan, recycling allows learners to encounter target language items in both linguistic and experiential environments. Accordingly, they will see the different functions of a particular item in relation with other items. They will also see

how it functions in relation to different content areas. For example, they will come to see how ‘expressing likes and dislikes’ and ‘yes/no questions with do/does’ function in a range of content areas, from the world of entertainment to the world of food. According to Nunan (1997, 36) “An analytical approach to pedagogy is based on the assumption that learning is not an all-or-nothing process that mastery learning is a misconception, and that learning is piecemeal and inherently unstable”. If learners will not achieve one hundred percent mastery the first time they encounter a particular linguistic item, then that item has to be introduced again over a period of time.

Principle.4. Active learning; learners learn best by doing through actively constructing their own knowledge rather than having it transmitted to them by the teacher. In a language teaching setting, class time should be devoted to opportunities for learners to use the language. These opportunities can be varied such as practising memorized dialogues, role plays, completing a table based on a given input. The key point, however, is that the learning task has to be done by the learner. This means that teachers should minimize their dominance and concentrate only on introducing input, facilitating the task and explaining the steps and objectives (Nunan,1997: 36)

Principle. 5. Integration; one of the specific features of tasks is the integration of linguistic form, communicative function, and semantic meaning instead of teaching the linguistic elements separately. This approach solves the problems of form on behalf of communicating to acquire language and meaning on behalf of accuracy in form. So it is considered as a split between proponents of form-based instruction and proponents of meaning-based instruction. (Nunan,1997 :36)

Principle.6. Reproduction to creation; teachers should encourage the movement from reproductive to creative language use. In reproductive tasks, learners reproduce language models provided by the teacher, the textbook or the tape. These tasks are designed to give

learners mastery of form, meaning and function, and are intended to provide a basis for creative tasks. In creative tasks, learners are recombining familiar elements in novel ways. Nunan adds about this principle that: “This principle can be deployed not only with students who are at intermediate levels and above but also with beginners if the instructional process is carefully sequenced.”(Nunan,1997: 37)

Principle.7. Reflection; learners should be given opportunities to reflect on what they have learned and how well they are doing. Through reflecting, the learner’s focus will be shifted from language content to learning processes and strategies. Nunan argues that learning-how-to-learn does not have a more privileged place in one particular approach to pedagogy than in any other, but the reflective element has a particular affinity with task-based language teaching. TBLT introduces learners to a broad array of pedagogical undertakings, which involve at least one strategy. Reflecting will help learners familiar with task-based activities to solve the confusion about certain tasks so that they can see the rationale for the new approach. (Nunan,1997: 37-38)

3.3.Foreign language Task Components

Task components are elements that make up a task. These are task goals, input data, and learner procedures, and they are supported by teacher and learner roles and the settings in which tasks are undertaken. Drawing on the conceptualizations of Candlin, Wright and others, Nunan (2004), proposes the following to specify a task: goals, input, and procedures which have to be supported by roles and settings.

3.3.1. Goals

Goals are the general intentions behind any learning task. They provide a link between the task and the broader curriculum. Goals can be described in a form of general

learning outcomes (communicative, affective or cognitive) or teacher and learner behavior. Nunan (2004:41) insists that they should be more specific than Halliday's three macro skills, but more general than formal performance objectives. Another point worth noting is that goals may not always be explicitly stated, although they can usually be inferred from the task itself. Also, in some cases, a complex task with several steps and sub-tasks such simulation may have more than one underlying goal. Therefore, the relationship between goals and tasks is not always a simple one-to-one relationship. (Nunan, 2004: 41-46)

3.3.2. Input

Input is the data that learners work within while completing a task in all its forms: spoken, written and visual. Data can be provided by a teacher, a textbook or some other source or it can be generated by learners themselves. According to Nunan (2004: 48) based on Hover (1986), input can come from a wide range of sources, : letters (formal and informal), newspaper extracts, picture stories, Telecom account, driver's licence, missing person's declaration form, social security form, business cards, memo note, photographs, family tree, drawings, shopping lists, invoices, postcards, hotel brochures, passport photos, swap shop cards, street map, menu, magazine quiz, calorie counter, recipe, extract from a play, weather forecast, diary, bus timetable, notice board items, housing request form, star signs, hotel entertainment programme, tennis court booking sheet, extracts from film script, high school yearbook, note to a friend, seminar programme, newspaper reporter's notes, UK travel regulations, curriculum vitae, economic graphs. All materials mentioned are available for all teachers to make use of them according to their curriculum and lesson objectives.

3.3.3. Procedures

After deciding input sources, procedures should be well stated and introduced. Procedures are the steps or what learners will actually do with the input that forms the beginning of the learning task. Procedures have to be analyzed based on some criteria input authenticity, their focus or goal, whether their focus is on accuracy or fluency and finally locus of control whether it has to be by the teacher or learners. One widely cited way of characterizing procedural goals is whether they are basically concerned with skill getting or skill using. In skill getting, learners master phonological, lexical and grammatical forms through memorization and manipulation. In skill using, they apply these skills in communicative interaction (Nunan, 2004: 52-56)

3.3.4. Task Types

Teacher should bear in mind that the aim of task-based teaching is to create opportunities to use language for meaning. Therefore, while doing tasks, learners are not working to practise a language structure or form but make free use of whatever structures they can retain to express their ideas during the process of achieving the task goal. There are different types of tasks which will be discussed later in this chapter.

3.3.5. Teachers and Learners' Roles

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, tasks should be designed to involve learners and provide them with opportunities for learning by doing; therefore, the control of teachers and learners' roles is very important. In task-based language teaching, the teacher can be only a facilitator who is supposed to motivate the learner to invest his energy in task

completion and to support task performance in such a way to enhance interaction in a form of meaning negotiation, comprehending input, producing output and focusing on form, which are believed to be central to language learning. These two actions should be central throughout every teacher's activity: the planning stage, the performance stage, and the post-task assessment stage. When teachers plan the task, they should also assess the task, motivate the learners into meaningful action and enhance language learning through cognitive and interactional processes.

During the performance phase of the task, much of the teacher action will consist of drawing out the most of the task's potential for groups of learners and individual learners respectively. In the post-activity stage, the teacher together with the learners will evaluate to what extent everyone was actually engaged in meaningful activity and whether there are any objective and/or subjective data available that indicate whether the activity was effective in terms of outcomes. The above-mentioned boundaries between planning, performing and assessing are to a great extent artificial. Both planning and evaluating also take place during the performance phase. In addition, the sequence of these three stages should be interpreted in cyclical terms, rather than in strictly linear terms. Post-task assessment will also be the foundation for the new tasks and planning. Further, both teachers and learners will have to take into account and react to a variety of expected and unexpected contextual conditions (Nunan, 2004: 64-69)

To sum up, Willis (1996:40) argues that the teacher is generally a facilitator, always keeping the key conditions for learning in mind by balancing by ensuring that both exposure amount and language use have suitable quality. In this process, most of the emphasis is on learners engagement and work while guided by the teacher to achieve the task outcomes. Thus, the teacher is involved in setting task-up, ensuring that learners understand and get on with them. Learners are independent when doing tasks; however, the

teacher still has overall control and power to intervene if necessary. In general, the teacher is a guide who is supporting students to understand objectives, instructions and who may at the end of each stage sum up what they achieved which can be a real motivation for them.

3.3.6. Setting

All components mentioned above can vary from one context to another, and they can be influenced by the setting. Setting refers to the classroom arrangements implied in the task. It also requires consideration of whether the task is to be carried out wholly or partly outside the classroom. A wide range of configurations can be done in the communicative classroom, although practical considerations such as class size can constrain what is possible in practice. In considering settings for task-based learning, Nunan (2004:71) distinguishes between ‘mode’ and ‘environment’. Learning ‘mode’ refers to whether the learner is operating on an individual or a group basis. Environment refers to where the learning actually takes place. It might be a conventional classroom in a school or language centre, a community class, a workplace setting, a self-access centre, or a multimedia language centre. In the past, the notion of the classroom was that learning would take place inside a conventional classroom. However, recently with emerging of technology, a new setting concept has emerged with the use of virtual classrooms and platforms such as: Google Classroom, Moodle, NiceNet and Google Community.

3.4. Foreign Language Task Features

Task features are task characteristics that make it different from any general educational or learning activity. Samuda and Bygate (2008) started by giving some general features of tasks; then, they explained them in details. This section is devoted to exploring those features. The characteristics are:

- It involves holistic language use.
 - It requires a meaningful target outcome or outcomes
 - necessarily involves some individual and group processes
 - It depends on there being some input material.
 - It is made up of different phases.
 - is important for teachers –and at some point the learners – to know what is being targeted in the language learning purpose
 - The conditions under which it is implemented impact on process and outcome and can be manipulated and variously exploited
 - It can be used for different pedagogic purposes at different stages of learning
- (Samuda and Bygate, 2008: 16)

According to them, the task is holistic in the sense that it requires learners to decide on potential relevant meaning then using language structures to convey it in order to carry out the task. The second feature of any task is outcome; learners need to achieve one or more meaningful outcome. To achieve an outcome, learners are expected to produce accurate language as well as a pragmatically credible response in both verbal and non-verbal representation of information. Further, the task must include an input material. Input material is, an essential element; for instance, when instructions or objects change, there must be a change in procedures, the target outcome, or both (Samuda and Bygate, 2008: 13-14)

Samuda and Bygate (2008:14) also include task process as a task feature. Task process encompasses steps followed to achieve an outcome. This can include the language used to plan and organise the work, to distribute sub-tasks, to monitor progress to identify and share information, to suggest or hypothesise missing information, interpretations or solutions, to evaluate, counter, agree or disagree, and to negotiate an outcome such as a conclusion, solution report or graphic representation. Both the product and the process are

necessary as without a target product, there is no call for the process and without a process learners cannot achieve a product. Deciding upon tasks processes depends on the type of the task, task design and teacher's decision. There are some types of tasks that involve the teacher to target task processes either explicitly or implicitly. Also, there is another type in which processes are shaped by the way the task has been designed. Sometimes task processes are left to the initiative of the learners.

The task also involves a number of different phases which make them differ from analytical activities like drills or exercises that involve the same operations from beginning to end. According to Samuda and Bygate (2008: 14), "From a task as a workplan perspective, task phasing involves breaking down the overall task into a series of interlocking steps to make it more manageable". Phases can be constructed as a sort of an initial search for information about the input material, exchanging opinions and ideas concerning the information and deducing synthesis based on the demands of the task. They add "From a task-in-process perspective, the task is phased by the actual strategies that the learners use at different points in the activity" (Samuda and Bygate, 2008:14). Therefore, to achieve an outcome, learners can start by organisation and planning phase in which they orient themselves to the input material and how to cope with it. The next phase might include pooling, checking and exchanging ideas. Then, learner can reorganise and rework of those ideas. After that, learners can coordinate and consolidate then they try to rehearse and check again. At the end, they can present the outcome.

According to the same authors, phasing is an element of the work plan and process and may be accomplished differently in each. The important point is that the different phases of a task can serve different functions, and thus may give rise to different types of exchange and different types of talk. This means that generalizations about generic features of 'task interaction' or 'task talk' may be of limited value without reference to the

phase of the task in which they occur. Pedagogically, it is important for teachers to know what aspects of the language are being targeted, whether in terms of product or processes since without this knowledge or awareness, they cannot prepare and brief the students or provide relevant feedback. Accordingly, it is necessary to know the scope of a particular task with different kinds of students in different contexts to be able to develop the design and the use of a repertoire of tasks. Language development is complex: it involves a number of distinct though related processes such as social interaction, perception, ideational comprehension, motor control, contextual mapping and strategic control. Hence, there are multiple ways in which a task can be exploited to contribute to the development and a number of ways in which they can be researched (Samuda and Bygate, 2008: 15)

Samuda and Bygate (2008: 15) conclude with conditions. Conditions are the external factors that may affect task processing such as time pressure, group dynamics and kind of support before, during and after task. ‘Conditions’ can also refer to the atmosphere in the class, the attitudes of the learners and their level of proficiency, teacher and students work in the task and task work contribution to learning. Tasks are also characterized by different uses of a task. A task can fulfill a number of aims. For example, it can be used to raise awareness of a language area which learners need to get familiar with, to encourage learners to use prior knowledge for communication and to give them the opportunity to handle a particular area reflect for a future task.

3.5. Foreign Language Task Types

The typologies introduced in the literature focus mainly on tasks for developing oral language skills. In this section, a few taxonomies are going to be discussed to show the shift of emphasis through the history of language teaching and the difference between

those taxonomies. One of the earliest curricular applications of TBLT to appear in the literature was the Bangalore project by Prabhu. In this project, three task types are used: information gap, reasoning gap, and opinion gap. Information-gap activities refer to the activities that involve transferring of input material from one person to another ; it can be also from one structure to another, or from one place to another. This kind requires information decoding or encoding using the target language such as pair work in which each learner has a part of the total information and attempts to communicate it verbally to the other. The activity demands also the selection of relevant information criteria of completeness and correctness in making the transfer.

The second suggested type is reasoning-gap activity. This type involves extracting some new information from given information using strategies such as inference, deduction, practical reasoning, or making connections. An example of this type is deciding what course of action is best among a list (easiest, cheapest or quickest) for a given objective and particular within constraints. Thus, this type of activity requires comprehension where learners convey information in a form an information-gap activity; however, the information to be conveyed has not identical with that initially comprehended involving little reasoning to connect the two.

The third type is opinion-gap activity which refers to activities that involve expressing and articulating a personal preference, feeling, or attitude about a given situation. An example of this type is story completion or taking part in the discussion of a social issue. This activity sometimes require using factual information as well as arguments to justify one's opinion. The special feature of this type is that outcomes can not be assessed at the end as right or wrong, and an no expectation to have the same outcome from different learners or in different conditions. (Prabhu in Nunan, 2004:57)

At about the same time, Pattison (1987) suggested another taxonomy. He set out seven task and activity types as following: questions and answers, matching activities, communication strategies, pictures and pictures stories, puzzles, and problems and discussions and decisions. First, questions and answers, these activities are based on creating an information gap so that learners can get exposed to a list of language items then given opportunity to make a personal and secret choice. The aim is to encourage learners to discover their classmates' secret choice. Generally, this kind of activity can be used to practice any language structure, function or notion in a form of a wholly scripted or wholly improvised. However, during the task, if the teacher gives some choices to learners concerning what they can say, and if he/she explains the aim clearly, their participation will be effective and thorough than when they are exposed to dialogue repetition in pairs (Nunan, 2004: 57).

Second, he introduced matching activities; activities refers to activities where the role of the learner is to identify items that match other items in another list or guessing missing items. In this activity, learners will use other strategies to make connections such as guessing, predicting, and inferring meaning from context. Third, Communication strategies; in these activities, learners are given chance to practice communication strategies such as message reformulation, message reduction, use of fillers, borrowing or inventing words, using gesture, asking for feedback and appeal for help. Fourth, pictures and picture stories pictures can be used in many communication activities (e.g. spot the difference, memory test, and sequencing pictures to tell a story). Pictures can be used as a good reference for visual learners who like to receive. Fifth, puzzles and problems there are many different types of puzzles and problems. In these activities, learners are required to make guesses, use their prior knowledge and personal experience, imagination and test their powers of logical reasoning. Finally, discussions and decisions; in these activities, the

learners get an opportunity to make a decision by collecting, sharing and negotiating information (Nunan, 2004: 58).

More recently, Richards (2001: 162) has proposed a typology of pedagogical tasks including jigsaw tasks, information gap tasks, problem-solving tasks, decision-making tasks and opinion exchange tasks. Jigsaw tasks refer to those tasks that involve forming a whole through linking different pieces of information like linking different parts of a story or guessing a missing part of a conversation about a particular topic. Information-gap tasks are tasks in which students have some pieces of information and a complementary set of that information. They must negotiate and find out what the other party's information is in order to complete an activity. In problem-solving tasks, students are required to solve a problem using a set of given information. There is generally a single possibility of the outcome. Decision-making tasks refer to the activities where students are supposed to select a solution to a problem among a number of possible outcomes, through negotiation and discussion. Finally, opinion exchange tasks where learners engage in discussion and exchange of ideas. They do not need to reach an agreement.

All of these typologies are based on an analysis of communicative language use. An alternative method of classifying tasks is to group them according to the strategies underpinning them. The following scheme by (Nunan, 1999) proposes five different strategy types: cognitive, interpersonal, linguistic, affective and creative. First, cognitive tasks; they include:

- **Classifying:** putting things that are similar together in groups (e.g., Study a list of names and classify them into male and female)
- **Predicting:** predicting what is to come in the learning process (e.g., Look at the unit title and objectives and predict what will be learned)

- **Looking for patterns and regularities** (e.g. Studying a conversation and discover the rule for forming the simple past tense)
- **Taking notes:** Writing down the important information in a text in your own words
- **Concept mapping:** Showing the main ideas in a text in the form of a map
- **Inferencing:** Using what you know to learn something new
- **Discriminating:** Distinguishing between the main idea and supporting information
- **Diagramming:** Using information from a text to label a diagram (Nunan, 1999 in Nunan 2004: 59)

The second type in this taxonomy is interpersonal tasks including cooperating: sharing ideas and learning with other students (e.g., Work in small groups to read a text and complete a table) and role playing: pretending to be somebody else and using the language for the situation you are in (e.g., You are a reporter. Use the information from the reading to interview the writer). The third type is linguistic tasks that include:

- **Conversational patterns** using expressions to start conversations and keep them going (e.g., Match formulaic expressions to situations)
- **Practicing:** doing controlled exercises to improve knowledge and skills (Listen to a conversation, and practice it with a partner)
- **Using context:** Using the surrounding context to guess the meaning of an unknown word, phrase, or concept
- **Summarizing:** picking out and presenting the major points in a text in summary form
- **Selective listening:** Listening for key information without trying to understand every word (e.g., Listen to a conversation and identify the number of speakers)
- **Skimming:** Reading quickly to get a general idea of a text (Nunan, 1999 in Nunan, 2004: 60).

Then, Nunan (2004: 61) introduced affective tasks which refer to learners' metacognition such as personalizing: learners share their own opinions, feelings and ideas about a subject. (e.g. Reading a letter from a friend in need and give advice), self-evaluating: thinking about how well you did on a learning task, and rating yourself on a scale and reflecting: thinking about ways you learn best. The last type in this typology is creative tasks like brainstorming: thinking of as many new words and ideas as one can (eg. Working in a group and thinking of as many occupations as you can)

Those discussed taxonomies focus on different aspects of language as well as different objectives. Whatever the task type is, it is important for the teacher to plan the task using a particular framework or sequence and explain it to students right at the beginning otherwise the task will not achieve its aims and will lose its effectiveness. Additionally, learners' level should be taken into account and the conditions that surround them as well.

3.6. Foreign Language Task Sequence

Success of the task is mainly based on the way it is structured or designed. When considering how to structure a task, Lee (2000: 35-36) suggests four questions to ask for task design:

- 1) What information is supposed to be extracted from the interaction by the learners?
- 2) What are the relevant subcomponents of the topic?
- 3) What tasks can the learners carry out to explore the subcomponents? (e.g., create lists, fill in charts, etc.)
- 4) What linguistic support do the learners need?

Supporting the same idea and after conducting research about them in task design, Lambert and Angler (2007: 27-43) stress the importance of two factors for tasks to be successful. The two factors are information distribution and goal orientation. In this section, a focus will be on two reliable frameworks for task sequence: Willis framework and Nunan framework.

3.6.1. Willis Framework for Tasks

Doing a language task involves achieving an outcome through some processes to reach a final product in a written or an oral form. Activities of this kind include collecting a list of factors, comparing two pictures, maps or texts, or designing a brochure. According to Willis (1996: 38), tasks can be presented and used following a three-part framework: “pre-task,” “task cycle” and “language focus”. Willis has carefully designed these components to create four conditions for language acquisition and provide sufficient learning opportunities for different types of learners.

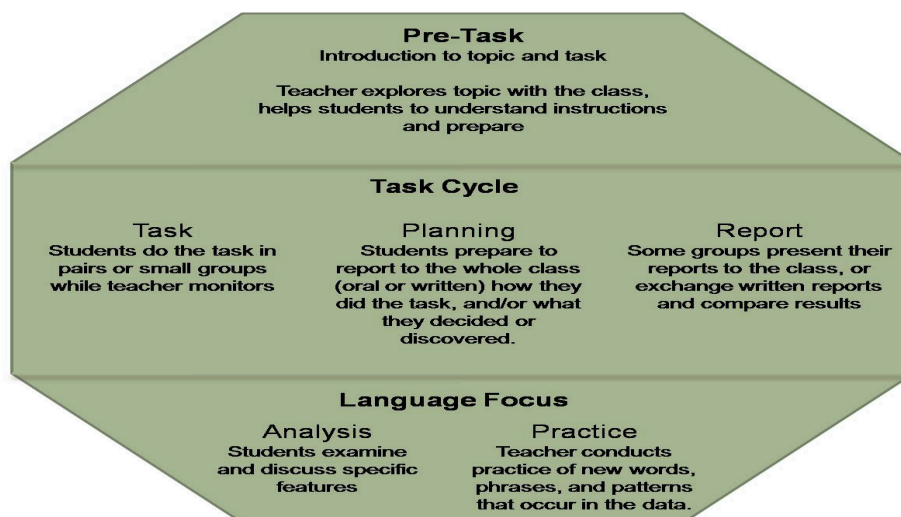


Figure.6. Willis Framework for TBT (1996: 86)

- 1) **Pre-task phase: introducing topic and task:** during this stage, first teachers are supposed to introduce the topic, useful vocabulary items, task instructions. Then, They try to help learners to understand and prepare it. Learners may see the teacher performing some parts of the task or give students an opportunity to hear or watch a recording of others doing a similar task, or simply read instructions or information to prepare the task. (Willis, 1996: 42- 51)
- 2) **Task cycle** represents task, planning and report. First of all, task; after being exposed to the task and instructions, learners start the task individually, in pairs or small groups as requested by the teacher. Teacher's role in this stage is a monitor and motivator from a distance without any kind of correction or feedback. Student are given an opportunity to express and experiment as there is no teacher's involvement and mistakes do not matter. Then, the planning stage; where students present a report to the whole class either orally or in writing about the way they did the task, what they decided or discovered. Since the report stage is public, students will naturally want to be accurate, so the teacher stands by to give language advice (Willis, 1996: 52- 57).

Finally the **report stage**; some groups present their reports to the class, or exchange written reports, and compare results. The teacher in this stage can give comments on the content of the reports. After this stage, learners may hear a recording of others doing a similar task and compare how they all did it. They may also read a text similar in some way to the one they have written themselves, or related to the topic to the task they have done (Willis, 1996: 52- 57).

- 3) **Language focus**; this stage includes analysis of the language aspect and its practice. First Students consult and discuss specific features of the language used in the task. They can check new vocabulary words, phrases, and patterns. They can also be given syntactic structures used in the task to practice both during and after the analysis

phase. The students can have an other opportunity to use those patterns and structures in a simialr task or the same with a different group or student.

According to Willis, the pre-task phase is devoted to introducing the topic as well as topic-related words and phrases to the class. The task cycle is the phase where learners can use the language they already know in order to do the task. While planning their reports of the task, they tend to improve that language guided by the teacher. The teacher can give comments and help when it is needed at any period of task cycle. Besides, there should be enough language input, or in other words exposure to the language. Based on the information they have got from the input, they can relate it to their own tasks. Therefore, the task cycle offers learners a holistic experience of language in use. The last phase in the framework, language focus which is a chance to study some of the specific features that occur naturally in the language used for the task cycle. Meanwhile, the learners could have already worked with the language and processed it for meaning and they can focus on the specific language forms that carry that meaning. This final phase, which includes analysis and practice components, fulfills the fourth desirable extra condition for learning (the explicit study of language form) (Willis, 1996: 59- 61)

3.6.2. Nunan Framework for Tasks

Instructional sequences around tasks, according to Nunan (2004), can be developed through six steps: Schema building, Controlled practice, authentic listening practice, focus on linguistic elements, providing free practice and introducing the pedagogical task.

1) Step 1. Schema building; the first step is to develop a number of schema-building exercises that can help to introduce the topic, set the context for the task, and introduce some of the key vocabulary and expressions that the students will need in order to

complete the task. For example, students may be given a number of materials to identify keywords, abbreviations, or match information with pictures in a form of newspaper advertisements, a list of keywords and a series of photos of families, couples and single people.

2) Step 2. Controlled practice; the next step is to provide students with controlled practice of vocabulary, structures and functions. To achieve this, learners can be exposed to a brief conversation between two people discussing one of the topics studied in step 1. They could be asked to listen to and read the conversation, and then practice it in pairs. In this way, early in the instructional cycle, they would get to see, hear and practice the target language for the unit of work. This type of controlled practice extends the scaffolded learning that was initiated in step 1. They could then be asked to practice variations on this conversation model using other advertisements in step 1 as cues. Finally, they could be asked to cover up the conversational model and practice again, using only the cues from step 1, and without the requirement that they follow the conversational model word for word. In the final part of the step, they are also beginning to develop a degree of communicative flexibility.

3) Step 3. Authentic listening practice; this step involves learners' intensive listening practice. The listening text could involve a number of native speakers discussing the given topic in step 1, and the task for the learner would be to match the conversations with the information from step 1. This step would expose them to the authentic or simulated conversation, which could incorporate but extend the language from the model conversation in step 2.

4) Step 4. Focus on linguistic elements; the students then begin to take part in a sequence of exercises in which the focus is on one or more linguistic elements. They might

listen again to the conversations from step 3 and note the intonation contours for different question types. They could then use cue words to write questions and answers. So, the difference between a traditional activity and a task is that this language focus work would probably occur as step 1. In the task-based procedure, it occurs relatively late in the instructional sequence. Before analysing elements of the linguistic system, they have seen, heard and spoken the target language within a communicative context.

5) Step 5. Provide free practice; so far, students have been involved in what is called by Nunan: 'reproductive' language work; in other words, they have been working within the constraints of language models provided by the teacher and the materials. At this point, it is time for the students to engage in freer practice, where they move beyond simple manipulation. For example, working in pairs, they could take part in an information gap role play performing information given in previous steps. In this process, they will create their own meanings and, at times, their own language and over time, it will approximate more and more closely to native speaker norms as learners 'grow' into the language.

6) Step 6. Introduce the pedagogical task; the final step in the instruction sequence is the introduction of the pedagogical task itself. In this case, a small group task in which the participants study the same information but with further work and analysis. One way of doing this is showing the students the final task in the sequence and ask them if they can do it. Consequently, Students find it highly motivating to work through the sequence, arrive at step six and find that they are able to complete the task.

3.7. Foreign Language Tasks and Motivation

Research in the field of educational psychology proved that motivation is also influenced by the approach of teaching and the type of activities. McCombs and Pope (1994: 29) discuss some issues related to this in a form of principles saying:

- Students are motivated by learning situations and activities that challenge to become personally and actively involved in their own learning, and allow them personal choice and control matched to their capabilities and to the task requirements.
- Students' motivation is enhanced if they perceive that learning tasks (a) directly or indirectly relate to personal needs, interests, and goals and (b) are appropriate difficulty levels so that they can accomplish them successfully.

Thus, teaching must be a process that entices students to take control of their own learning, but also provides levels of control that are appropriate to each student's ability to accomplish specific learning tasks. Task-based language learning is believed to be motivating because those principles are there. Furthermore, TBLT provides some conditions for language learning which are identified by Willis (1996:) as:

- Exposure: to a rich but comprehensible input of real spoken and written language in use
- Use: use of the language to do things (i.e. exchange meanings)
- Motivation: to listen, read, speak and write the language (i.e. to process and use the exposure)
- Instruction: instruction in language (i.e. chances to focus on form)

On one hand, learners get exposure to the language patterns, structures at the pre-task stage, and a chance to activate their schemata. The task cycle also gives learners speaking and writing exposure with opportunities to collaborate and learn from each other. Further, the task cycle offers students occasions to use whatever language they have, both in private and public. In private, meaning is the focus and mistakes, hesitations,

and approximate renderings do not matter. In public, there is a built-in desire to strive for accuracy of form and meaning, so as not to lose face.

On the other hand, motivation is provided mainly by the need to achieve the objectives of the task and to make a report. Success in doing the task can increase longer term motivation as learners can gain more confidence and feeling of autonomy. Also, listening to fluent speakers doing the task can have a positive impact too as while doing the task, learners can discover gaps in their own language, and will pay attention to the way fluent speakers express themselves. Learners can also benefit from a focus on form two phases in the framework in which learners will be very careful about language form during the planning stage. Further, to achieve accuracy, learners will try to make clear reports and check what they are not sure about. Language analysis activities also provide an opportunity to focus on form through consciousness-raising processes. Learners notice and reflect on language features, recycle the task language, go back to the text or recording and search for the new items, and practice pronouncing useful phrases.

Task-Based Language Teaching addresses some of the ways students are changing. It is believed to be compatible with a learner-centred educational philosophy but also allows for teacher input and direction. Further, it caters to the development of communicative fluency while not neglecting accuracy. It can be used alongside a more traditional approach. As a part of the motivation, during a task, teachers have good chances to train learners to use learning strategies as well as management strategies which keep them motivated and working on the task. Further, tasks are an opportunity to know about different learning styles and problems that students have which will reduce learners' anxiety and promote motivation. Teachers may discover many types of students during tasks; Walters and Frei (2007) agree on some of them as being: students who are slow to complete tasks, students who want constant help, students who constantly finish early,

students who are unmotivated, students who blurt out answers and students who talk to others during task time. So, the task itself is a space to make a situation and needs analysis of our learners.

Further, many studies also proved that task repetition plays an important role in the structure and control of oral English, in improving the speaking ability and in language accuracy and fluency in general. One of the studies conducted by Bygate (2001: 29) in which he argues that there are two ways in which repetition might have an effect on performance. First, the experience of a particular communication task on one occasion can help learners to carry out the same task on a subsequent occasion where the first task will be considered as a reference. Second, work on a particular type of communication task helps learners to deal with new versions of that task type. Another study was by Bei (2013) who concluded that task repetition appears to improve fluency significantly while learners also gain a benefit in achieving accuracy. Repeating a speaking task, on the other hand, had little influence on complexity; the third time, in general, is the optimal time for the general performance where accuracy is the best, fluency is the second best and complexity does not change much; the participants had correct self-perception towards their own performances. The interview showed that they were aware of the best turn in their speaking, which they believed was a result of practice in the previous speaking.

Conclusion

Despite their difficulty in terms of planning and linking form to communication, tasks are proved to be motivating, and interaction is provoking if applied in an appropriate way with careful planning and teacher's control. However, tasks need attention and discussion to reach what fits the curriculum and learners' needs and interests. Tasks should

be designed using a known framework based on the classroom environment and circumstances (i.e. class size, classroom space, time allocated); but they are also challenging and complex in many ways; so they require much awareness and motivation as well as much attention and effort from this teacher. Tasks by nature need motivation all along the different stages not only at the beginning, and this is what led us to decide to study the relationship between tasks and affective strategies which are the core content of the coming chapter.

Chapter Four

Research Methodology

Introduction

Most of the research done in the field of motivation was based on quantitative data exploring learners' motivation using motivation batteries and questionnaires. Recently, a new wave of change started to shift emphasis to teachers' use of motivational strategies in their daily classroom practice. However, data was collected through questionnaires relying on general qualities of teachers as abstract concepts rather than quality indicators which are real measures of the teaching process. A teacher may perceive himself or herself as missing one quality whereas when indicators are given, he/she feels that they are practicing them in class. This complexity of motivation necessitates conducting a mixed-method research and depending on different kinds of data revealed by different types of tools. This chapter aims to introduce three research elements. First, it gives an overview of the method selected and the reasons behind that choice. Second, the three tools of data collection will be explained in details. Third, it sheds light on the pilot study and its results. Finally, it provides an explanation of research procedures used in this study.

4.1. Research Approach and Method

In this research, a mixed method approach is adopted due to the nature of the issue and the characteristics of this approach. Among those features that made this kind of research specific and worth conducting, many definitions were given in the literature to discuss that particular nature of the paradigm but they all stress one common definition and

purpose which is a methodology that focuses on research questions that call for real-life contextual understanding, multilevel perspectives and cultural influences which employ rigorous quantitative and qualitative research using multiple methods and/or tools. To confirm that, Trochim puts:

Any kind of polarized debate has become less than productive. And it obscures the fact that qualitative and quantitative data are intimately related to each other. All quantitative data is based on qualitative judgments, and all qualitative data can be described and manipulated numerically (Trochim in Lieber and Weisner, 2012)

From this quotation, one can infer that the two research paradigms are interrelated, and each one may complete the other; also, one can infer that the essential goal of mixed method research study a given research question from different angles. It is also referred to as mixed methodology, multiple methodology research. Mixed method research is a methodology that entails collecting, analyzing and integrating quantitative and qualitative for a comprehensive understanding of the research problem in which it provides the in-depth contextualized insights of qualitative research and the more efficient predictive power of quantitative research (Lieber and Weisner 2012).

For all the reasons mentioned above, this approach is selected to gain a deep understanding and corroboration as well as offsetting the weaknesses inherent in using one of them. Researchers in the field of methodology confirmed that though there are four mixed method designs which are: sequential explanatory, sequential exploratory, concurrent nested and concurrent triangulation, the latter is considered as one of the most advantageous characteristics which are the use of several means to examine the phenomenon. Accordingly, to investigate teachers' awareness, knowledge and practice, both approaches are needed. The design chosen in this study is **concurrent triangulation**,

where one phase is followed to conduct both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis separately yet concurrently (Foodrisk research centre). In this case, the findings are integrated during the interpretation phase of the study where results from both types of research are given equal value.

4.2. Sample of the Study

The sample represents the whole population of Oral expression teachers at three Algerian universities (Biskra, Constantine, and Oum Elbouaghi). The reason behind this choice of these three universities is time feasibility and some contact constraints as facilities are available in the department of English at the three of them. The total population number was 30 teachers as recorded by the heads of departments in the academic year 2010/2011 (10 at Biskra University, 3 at Oum Elbouaghi University and 17 at Constantine University). Three universities were selected because the population of Oral expression teachers at one university is usually small and would not give enough reliable data and responses.

4.3. Research Tools

To achieve the purposes of the research mixed method and answer the research questions, three data collection tools were used. The essential aim of this research is to explore two different domains related to the participant teachers, and each tool is served for both. The domains concerned are:

- Teachers' metacognition: including awareness and knowledge of affective strategies and self-evaluation of their practice in the classroom. (Referred to also as Teachers' cognition which would be explained later in this section)

- Teachers' practice in the module of Oral expression, particularly in teaching Foreign Language Oral tasks.

Many people think that metacognition is essential only for learners, but it is also believed to be basic in any profession as it is thinking about thinking and preparing for cognition. Starting by teachers' metacognition, the reason why it is focused on in teachers' motivation can be inferred from its definitions. In general, it is defined as "Thinking about thinking" where teachers should not think only but also think about their ways of thinking which can be a crucial component to shape their decisions, planning and practice. For example, Dr. Chew focused on the awareness side of metacognition and defined it in many of his lectures online in the following words "A person's awareness of his or her own level of knowledge and thought processes. (Chew videos on Samford university site). The awareness which is the ability to perceive, to feel, or to be conscious of events, objects, thoughts, emotions, or sensory patterns which are all very essential in the teaching/learning process. Being aware is not enough for a teacher to be successful but they need to be able to assess their abilities to reflect on and change when needed.

To confirm that, Martinez (2006:1) added "Metacognition is the monitoring and control of thought" which means the ability to reflect on one's own performance (National research council). In sum, metacognition is related to every stage of the teaching/learning process, and it is the main factor that may energize a teacher and keep him/her going on and keeping the change, trying to motivate learners despite all kinds of problems and obstacles. Wilson (2014) summarizes the idea in this short phrase defining metacognition as "the gift that keeps giving."

What is referred to as metacognition by the mentioned researchers is also defined as teachers' cognition in many studies and publication mainly those of Borg, who says:

“teachers’ cognitions is concerned with understanding what teachers think, know and believe. Its primary concern, therefore, lies with the unobservable dimension of teachers’ mental lives” (Borg 2009:1). Borg in a recent personal contact with him confirmed that saying:” Metacognition is thinking about thinking, and I think you can use this term to describe teachers' reflections on their knowledge, beliefs and awareness. Self-evaluation is also metacognition because it requires explicit thinking about learning.” (Borg 2015 through a personal email)

Many studies about teachers’ cognition proved that there is a strong relationship between teachers’ cognition and classroom practice. In one of their studies, Borg and Phipps (2007) explain this relationship in the following points:

- teachers’ cognition can be powerfully influenced by their own experiences as learners;
- these cognitions influence what and how teachers learn during teacher education;
- they act as a filter through which teachers interpret new information and experience;
- they may outweigh the effects of teacher education in influencing what teachers do in the classroom;
- they can be deep rooted and resistant to change;
- they can exert a persistent long- term influence on teachers’ instructional practices;
- they are at the same time, not always reflected in what teachers do in the classroom;
- they interact directionally with experience (beliefs influence practices but practices can also lead to changes in beliefs)

Through this study, we wanted to explore this hidden and unobservable dimension and to see how much it influences teachers’ practices, though, as mentioned above sometimes, teachers’ beliefs might not be reflected in their practices where in some cases, teachers’ knowledge and beliefs are not rich but their practice is effective and on the other

hand, sometimes beliefs are highly positive, but practice is very poor. In this research, some questions would be raised, and some insights would be shed light on.

Concerning the second dimension which is teachers' practice, some indicators of motivation and effective instruction would be considered with reference to the Oral Expression module in general and foreign language Oral tasks in particular. The study of tasks necessitates exploring and discussing all issues related to task including lesson plans, materials, task planning, types of activities and different teacher' roles. Thus, to answer research questions, there should be a comprehensive insight of the whole process of the oral expression teaching.

4.3.1. The Pilot Study

To pilot the study, a survey was designed and administered to ten teachers of Oral expression at the department of English during the academic year 2009/2010. The aim of the questionnaire was to explore teachers' knowledge and awareness of affective strategies in teaching Oral expression in general. Through the questionnaire, teachers were asked to show their knowledge, awareness and practice in the module of Oral Expression with a focus on general motivation not on particular strategies. The questionnaire was divided into 4 parts: general information about their qualifications and training. The second section was devoted to general questions about teachers' motivation and factors affecting it. The third was designed to reveal general answers about teachers' knowledge and awareness of motivational strategies. The fourth section was devoted to questions about teachers' approach in teaching foreign language oral tasks and strategies used to motivate learners.

Teachers' responses gave us a new insight to the questionnaire where many aspects had to be revised. The pilot study served its main role though a small scale

preliminary study; it helped to evaluate feasibility, time, tool validity and reliability. Concerning time, it was given at the beginning of the year where many teachers' claimed that it was better to receive it right at the end of the academic year to be able to give an overview of what had been done during the year (i.e. to give an overview of the activities they conducted in Oral classes as some of them were teaching for first time and some said we are intending to change the strategy). The sample size was not sufficient and reliable where many questions were not answered at all, so no feedback was given.

Concerning validity and reliability of the questionnaire, answers to open-ended questions that were normally designed to collect qualitative data were not given much importance from participants where responses were either short or vague. As far as motivational strategies were concerned, the open-ended question did not reveal any results as teachers' were not familiar with strategies names and models of motivation. In general, they perceived themselves to be motivating but when asked about strategies and models they did not show any response. Any teacher is motivating in one way or other, but not any teacher is aware and knowledgeable about pedagogy and education.

The pilot study gave an idea to rethink about the type of questions as well research tools. Many questions were reformulated to closed-ended questions particularly those related to affective strategies and factors that affect motivation. It was also confirmed that though designed to collect qualitative and quantitative data, the questionnaire is not reliable and sufficient enough to achieve the purpose of this research. Therefore, a decision was made to conduct classroom observation to explore some aspects that we could not explore through the questionnaire as well a checklist for teachers' self-evaluation that contains all strategies in a sort of precise indicators, not vague, abstract ideas. So, motivation was split into dimensions, and the latter was split into indicators to make sure teachers may understand which aspect of teaching was meant in every item.

After having conducted the questionnaire and identified some problems encountered in the conduct of the study, a few unstructured interviews were held with some experts in the field. The aim was to discuss some of the conditions and factors that affect teachers' knowledge, awareness and practice of affective strategies in teaching foreign language Oral tasks as well as compare them to the international standards and norms. The interviews were used as a tool to explain and discuss that aspects of motivation and other teacher qualities are difficult to research, and they should be transformed into indicators. The first interview was with Zoltan Dornyei, a professor at Nottingham University and the founder of the latest practical framework of motivational strategies. The interview was about motivational strategies, how to apply them in a course, and how to evaluate teachers' practice of motivational strategies.

The second interview was with John Kongsvick, an EFL/ESL trainer and the director of TESOL trainers in the USA. This interview was about task-based language teaching and how to design tasks, how to shift from normal activities to tasks and what are relevant frameworks and how to motivate learners through tasks. Finally, a discussion was made with some teachers in charge of Oral expression coordination to reveal some facts about types of activities, syllabus and materials they are using.

4.3.2. Teachers' Questionnaire

In this section, the following elements will be discussed: the aim of the questionnaire, description and data analysis procedures.

4.3.2.1. The Aim of the Questionnaire

The aim of the questionnaire was to explore teachers' knowledge and awareness of affective strategies as well as some of their beliefs and points in their practice that we may

not get from observation and the self-evaluation checklist. The questionnaire is designed and structured to **collect objective as well as subjective data**; that is, data about the inner states of respondents, such as their attitudes, beliefs, values and behaviours that may not be reached by interviews or observation.

4.3.2.2. Description of the Questionnaire

This questionnaire includes 30 questions (see Appendix One), that vary between open-ended and closed questions. Based on research questions and hypothesis, this questionnaire is divided into four sections. First, teachers' general information which include questions about the experience of teaching at university, experience of Oral expression teaching, qualifications and certificates and teacher's profile. This section is meant to explore prerequisites of effective teaching discussed in chapter 1. Secondly, teachers' awareness and knowledge of affective strategies, including questions about models of motivation and the factors that may affect learners' motivation to see whether participants possess the second part of prerequisites or not which is knowledge and whether they work on their development or not to raise their cognition. Thirdly, teachers' motivation to teach; this section is designed to explore teachers' motivation and the main factors that influence it as it plays an essential role in learners' motivation and their work.

Finally, teachers' practice in Oral Expression course including two domains. The first domain is teachers' practice of affective strategies in teaching foreign language oral tasks where they were given sets of strategies and asked to provide strategies. These questions were based on models discussed in chapter 2, mainly on Dornyei (2001) framework of motivational strategies. The second domain was devoted to tasks where participants were asked about task planning, types of tasks and some factors related to

them. Participants were met face to face and given the questionnaire where in some cases they were even supported to understand some concepts and the aim of some questions like the case of the University of Constantine. The period of administering the questionnaire was from June to the end of July 2011.

4.3.2.3. Procedures of Questionnaire Analysis

As the aim of the study is only exploring the teaching situation, we believed that thematic analysis approach is appropriate for this study. Thematic analysis is defined by Boyatzis (1998) as:

A method for identifying, analyzing and reporting patterns (themes) within data. It minimally organizes and describes your data set in (rich) detail. However, it also often goes further than this and interprets various aspects of the research topic. The range of different possible thematic analyses will further be highlighted in relation to a number of decisions regarding it as a method. (Boyatzis in Braun and Clarks, 2006: 6)

This approach is commonly used in the qualitative analysis because it is a simple, less time-consuming and flexible approach. Through using thematic analysis, answers can be presented in a form of further descriptions and discussions helping to move from a data general reading towards discovering patterns and developing themes. For closed- ended questions such as questions about factors affecting teachers motivation and changes, teachers' practice of affective strategies (Questions 13, 18, 23 A, 23 B, 28 and 29), SPSS was used to quantify data (See SPSS procedures and reasons in section 3.4, below)

4.3.3. Classroom Observation

Like any other research tool, observation is used for particular purposes, described thoroughly for clarity, and analysed as a process of steps. This section is, thus, devoted to classroom observation aims, descriptions, and procedures of analysis.

4.3.3.1. Aim of Observation

The use of observational research provides a number of advantages relative to other types of research. The essential reason to conduct observation is to be able to study events and behaviours within their natural context and as they unfold. Further, through observation, the researcher may discover new behaviours or attitudes which are not expected and cannot be explored through other research tools.

Furthermore, observation gives an opportunity to study complex behaviours (verbal and non-verbal) such as classroom interaction, teachers' praise, teachers' attitudes and reactions towards students' behaviour. One of the leaders of classroom observation Danielson (2012, p 32-37) explains in the following words that: "classroom observation can foster teacher learning- if observation systems include crucial components and observers know what to look for." Therefore, it might give a chance to compare teachers' beliefs to their practice and infer problems from the context as well as explore conditions and problems that may hinder the work of any teacher. Teacher observation is effective if done within norms. It plays a great role to in teacher development; Danielson (2010: 35-39) summarized its benefits in these points:

- to ensure teacher quality
- to promote professional development
- finding time for professional conversations

4.3.3.2. Description of the Observation

Classroom observation was conducted using video recording with the absence of researcher believing that would reduce participants worry and researcher's subjectivity. However, only half of the sample was convinced to receive it. Observation is thought to be distracting even for experienced people. The centre for teaching and learning at the University of Minnesota describes the process perception as "a topic that stirs strong sentiments in both parties" (Centre for Learning and Teaching University of Minnesota). Many faculty members express concerns about the time observation requires and about feeling reluctant to undermine the teachers' efforts by invading their classrooms. Sometimes, teachers can feel vulnerable and fear to have their efforts criticized. They can also have worry about losing credibility with their students, colleagues and heads. However, despite all these negative feelings, it is quite remarkable that so many teachers who have been observed by a faculty member consider the experience as a major factor in their development and improvement as a teacher.

A neutral participant (agent), someone who has no relation to the research was requested to record sessions of respondents. However, due to observation limitation as a tool, the majority of participants refused to be observed in any way. Only ten participants, who represent 33.33% of the sample, responded to our request but only for one session of Oral Expression. Five teachers accepted to be observed but not recorded. So, the total was 50% of the sample dealt with in this study. The observation was accomplished to be used only as a supporting research tool to explain some qualitative data and give examples from live classrooms.

4.3.3.3. Observation Analysis Procedures

An observation grid was used to analyse the data obtained from the observation; it was basically designed on different frameworks of motivational strategies as well as as classroom observation, course evaluation and teachers' evaluation. Examples of those grids are:

- Motivational Orientation of Language Teaching (MOLT) Observation Scheme: (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei 2009)
- The framework for teaching evaluation instrument 2013 by Charlotte Danielson
- Rise evaluation and development system Indiana department of education
- North Carolina Teacher evaluation process 2012
- TLE Observation and Evaluation rubric 2012/2013, TULSA public schools
- Rating a teacher observation tool 2011, the new teacher project
- 5D teacher evaluation rubric, college of education, university of Washington 2012
- teacher evaluation rubrics by Kim Marshall 2009

The observation grid was designed to fit research questions and hypothesis. Therefore, the criteria (dimensions) were selected based on Dörnyei's framework of motivational strategies in the foreign language classroom (2001). The dimensions are the language level, the learner level, and the learning situation level including teachers' specific, course specific (here Tasks are emphasised) and classroom specific. In Dörnyei's model, the levels are related to both teachers and learners, but in this grid, the focus is only on the teachers' attitude toward these aspects or components of the language learning process with four scales (so not used for the same purpose and with same indicators and strategies). Here is a sample of the observation grid used.

Dimensions		Indicators	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent
			1	2	3	4
The Language Level		Language Used is Clear and simple				
		Language Used is Accurate				
		Language Used is Consistent				
The Learner Level		Teachers' Caring				
		Teachers' Fairness and Respect				
		Interaction and Communication with students				
		Engaging Students in Tasks				
		Monitoring Students Success				
		Being Available and Helping Learners to Solve Learning problems				
The Learning Situation Level	Teacher-Specific	Teachers' Motivation and Enthusiasm				
		Dedication to teaching				
		Team teaching and Collaboration				
		Continuing to learn about learning				
	Course-Specific (TASK)	Task Objectives				
		Task Planning				
		Task Variation				
		Skills Integration				
		Task Clarity				
		Teacher Task Orientation				
		Task Monitoring				
		Content and Expectations				
		Teachers' Feedback				
	Classroom-Specific (Environment)	Classroom Organization				
		Time Management				
		Pair and Group Work				
		Discipline of Students				
		Integrating Materials and Technology				

Table.5. Observation Grid

The language level is devoted to exploring teachers' use of language as in the Algerian context, the main language model or speaker is the teacher; so, if teachers do not control their pronunciation and use of language that would be an obstacle to perform well in Oral Expression course and tasks either by getting bored or following the wrong model. The more the language is clear, simple and accurate, the more students will be motivated and enthusiastic as well as convinced.

At the learner level, the intention is not to explore learners' motivation or attitudes and behaviours but the teachers' behaviour and attitudes as the latter are the core of the study and the research aim. One cannot decide about teachers' attitudes in one session, but some indicators were used to reveal the answers such as teachers' caring, teachers' control over activities, interaction, and communication with students.

At the learning situation level, three dimensions were focused on. The first dimension is the teacher specific which encloses teachers' enthusiasm and motivation that reflect his/her dedication to teaching, though one session is not a reliable measure; so as far as this aspect is concerned, the reference will be other tools, not the observation sessions. The second dimension is course-specific; here the focus is not on Foreign Language Oral tasks though all components of the lesson must be mentioned and taken into consideration as they are all interrelated. This aspect embodies task objectives, task planning, task clarity, and task variety. The last dimension is classroom-specific: it is the atmosphere which plays an essential role to set the basic motivational conditions for any learning to take place. This domain comprises some motivational indicators or factors that may affect learners' motivation and task performance which are classroom organization, time management, group dynamics and materials integrated to support the course.

4.3.4. Teachers' Self-Evaluation Checklist

One essential element of developing as a teacher is taking the time every so often to evaluate one's own practices which are basic in any education process. The latter starts by thinking then planning and ends with planning, therefore, for the sake of the learning cycle to proceed in a logical way, self-evaluation must be conducted to think about one's own practice, improvement and change as the art of teaching requires constant energy, practice, and progress.

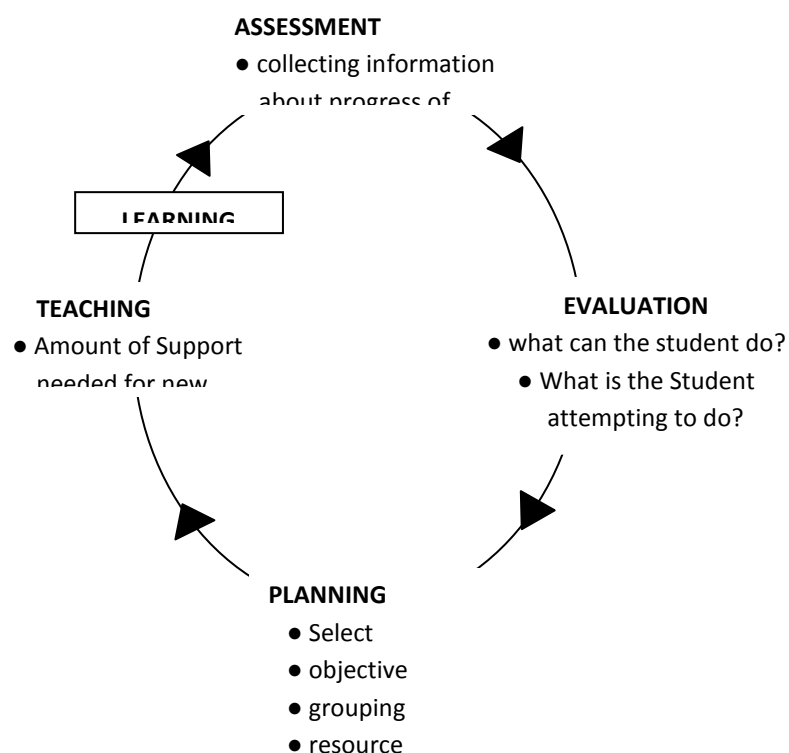


Figure.7.The Teaching and Learning Cycle:

A Key Construct of the Learning Network. Sánchez(2008)

4.3.4.1.The Aim of the Checklist

The aim of this self-evaluation checklist is to explore a part of teachers' metacognition which is the appraisal of their knowledge and practice. Some questions are

repeated, but they are requested to assess their practice and give the frequency of having some qualities. The checklist was not designed only to collect some quantitative data but to raise participants' awareness of the different components of the course as well as the importance of assessment. Many participants declared after having filled in the checklist that it was a good reminder and guide, and some asked to send them an electronic copy when the work is accomplished.

4.3.4.2. Description of the Checklist

The checklist includes all aspects of the course with reference to teachers' appraisal of affective strategies in teaching foreign language oral tasks. So, all factors, strategies, and techniques were used as indicators of teachers' quality and classified into four domains namely: teachers' personal and professional qualities, classroom management and organization, implementing instruction and monitoring students' success.

4.3.4.2.1. Teachers' Personal and Professional Qualities

This domain is devoted to teachers' qualities and attitudes toward students and teaching which are:

- teachers' caring
- teachers' fairness and equal opportunities
- teachers' interaction and communication with learners
- teachers' motivation and enthusiasm
- teachers' dedication and reflection
- team teaching and collaboration
- continuing to learn about learning

4.3.4.2.2. Classroom Organization and Management

This domain embodies teachers' preparation and readiness to set the basic motivational conditions without which the course and tasks will not proceed in an appropriate way. It comprises factors that affect teachers' practice and learners' motivation, namely: classroom management and organization, the discipline of students, the importance of instruction, time allocation, teachers' expectations, instruction plans, clarity and teachers' task orientation

4.3.4.2.3. Implementing Instruction

This domain is devoted to the process of the course delivery which is as follows: instructional strategies, content, complexity, questioning, setting independent study tasks, lesson plans, helping students to value group work, preparing materials and engaging students

4.3.4.4. Monitoring Students' Success

Monitoring refers to teacher control and checking during the process and activities. Teachers are supposed to control the pace and run activities smoothly and efficiently. The teacher should control students' actions, talks and time. In communicative activities, controlling can be inappropriate. If the teacher rigidly controls all language to be used by the students, they cannot have the opportunity to learn the language properly and the audio lingual method has been severely criticized for this reason. Teachers should keep the students alert. Therefore, teacher control in this study refers to the appropriate degree of control as control can differ from one task to another. It is important to focus on feedback; so control is for the sake of feedback not grading or punishment. This domain includes: homework and monitoring, contacting students and students' success.

4.3.4.3.Procedures of Analysis

As the SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) is one of the appropriate means to analyze questionnaires especially in the case of close-ended questions like Likert Scale questions. It is used in this study to analyze the checklist since the data is quantitative. In this research, the mean and standard deviation are used. The choice of SPSS was not random but due to the Effectiveness of SPSS as a tool represented in many features. Sarma (2010: 256) summarized the main features in the following words:

It is a comprehensive integrated system (...). SPSS has all major analytical tools for handling a large volume of data as well as to perform complicated multivariate analyses. We can also write custom-oriented statistical procedures using SPSS language and syntax. The help features of SPSS are very useful to the user in understanding the utility of various statistical tools. The SPSS output is very conveniently arranged in the form of tables so that they can be copied and posted in Ms. Word or Ms. Excel for documentation. We can also export the output to distant clients by internet communications.

Therefore, the SPSS gathers characteristics of different statistical tools. First, data management; SPSS makes data analysis quicker because the program knows the location of the cases and variables. Second, SPSS offers a great range of methods, graphs, and charts. SPSS also comes with different techniques of screening and cleaning the information to prepare for further analysis.. Third, SPSS is designed to ensure the separation of the output and data itself in which all results can be saved in other files separately. Sometimes, is hard for the researcher to decide what tool could work better for analysis and what kind of procedures should be followed that is why the SPSS is suitable in case one is not sure about the appropriate strategy and the input remains as saved data or

package which can be used in different ways. So, the researcher can try different tests and tools until finding the appropriate one to get the intended output.

4.4. Conclusion

Based on the aim of this research and to understand the results, the mixed method approach was believed to be the appropriate. The study was conducted using three tools; each tool served one or more angle of the study and together used for concurrent analysis. The questionnaire was made up closed and open ended questions to explore teachers' knowledge, beliefs and practice of affective strategies in teaching foreign language oral tasks. Then, classroom observation was conducted to shed light on some observable aspects in teachers' practice at three levels: the language level, the learner level and the learning situation level including teacher- specific, course- specific and learning situation-specific. The procedure used to report data from observation was through an observation grid with indicators and a five scale rubric. Finally, the checklist aimed to know teachers' perception about their quality. The latter was classified into sub qualities and each sub quality was represented by quality indicators which are referred to as strategies in the study. Checklist analysis was based on a scale relying mainly on mean and standard deviation.

Chapter Five

Exploring Teacher's Knowledge and Practices

Introduction

Two basic purposes drove the collection of the data and the subsequent data analysis. The first purpose was to explore teachers' knowledge about affective and motivation strategies and their awareness and practice of affective strategies in teaching foreign language Oral tasks which were dealt with in a form of quality indicators. The second purpose was to see whether the task-based design has been used or not in their practice by conducting an observation. Hence, the results of the data analysis are presented as they were collected, through questionnaires and observation grid; they are then processed in response to the problems discussed in the introduction of this thesis.

5.1. Teachers' Questionnaire Analysis

The questionnaire was handed to thirty teachers of Oral Expression at the three concerned Universities at the end of the academic year 2010/2011. It was given to participants directly and many requested to explain some items and some quality indicators; therefore, for the majority of participants, we sat together for more than 30 minutes. All participants returned the questionnaire but some of them did not answer all questions. The questionnaire includes five sections: general information, teachers' awareness and knowledge of affective strategies, teachers' motivation to teach, teachers' practice in oral expression courses and teachers' practice of affective strategies.

5.1.1. General Information

The general information about the participants is devoted to exploring prerequisites of good teaching such as qualification, specialty, and experience.

Q1. What is your Qualification?

Degree	Licence	Master	Magister	PHD	Total
Number	7	8	15	0	30
Percentage	23.33%	26.66%	50.00%	0.00%	100%

Table.4. Teachers' Qualification

The table shows that all participants hold a licence, master or magister where no one among the Oral Expression teachers is a Ph.D. That reveals that even in these three Algerian universities many teachers hold Ph.D. but because of work and departments' constraints, they refuse or are not appointed to teach some graduate subjects such as Oral Expression, Grammar, and Written Expression.

Q2. What is your Teachers' Specialization

Specialization	TEFL and applied linguistics	Applied languages and S of language	Linguistics and translation	Civilization	Total
Number	19	9	1	1	30
Percentage	63.33	30	3.33	3.33	100

Table.5. Teachers' Specialization

The results show that the majority of participants are doing Magister in TEFL and applied linguistics or MA in applied languages and science of language whereas only one in linguistics and translation and one in civilization. These numbers indicate that the majority of those participants are in the domain of English teaching what implicates they know a lot about teaching and learning and are expected to be best suitable for their positions as Oral Expression teachers.

Q3. How Many Years of Experience Do You Have in Teaching English

Years	1-5	5-10	More than 10	Total
Number	14	12	4	30
Percentage	46.66	40.00	13.33	100

Table.6. Experience in Teaching English

The majority of the participants have from one to five years or from five to ten years experience where only four have more than ten years' experience. Being a beginner in the profession makes us think about many aspects and constraints. As far their Experience in Teaching at University is concerned, the results show that all participants' experience was at university, so the results of the previous question remain the same.

Q4. How Many Years of Experience Do You Have in Teaching at University ?

Years	1-5	5-10	More than 10
Number	14	12	4
Percentage	46.66	40.00	13.33

Table.7. Experience in teaching at University

The results show that all participants' experience was at university, so the results of the previous question are repeated here.

Q5. How Many Years of Experience Do You Have in Oral Expression Teaching?

Years	1-5	6-10	More than 10
Number	25	4	1
Percentage	83.33	13.33	3.33

Table.8. Experience in Teaching Oral Expression

The results confirm that the majority of the participants are new teachers representing 83.33 whereas only 4 worked over 6 years and only one teacher has more than 10 years' experience.

5.1.2. Teachers' Awareness and Knowledge

This section covers aspects of teachers' knowledge and awareness of affective strategies, motivation, motivational models and teaching approaches and methods

Q6: Do You Follow a Particular Approach in Teaching Oral Expression Course?

	Yes	No
Number	13	17
Percentage	43.33	56.66

Table.9. Oral expression teaching Approach

It is noteworthy here that more than 50% of respondents claimed that they do not follow any particular approach. The reasons may be lack of teacher training and knowledge about how to implement the teaching/ learning process.

Q7. If yes which one and why?

Participants who said yes, declared that they are following these approaches considering some strategies as approaches and methods where as some are techniques, some are strategies and others are no more than a teaching objective related to one aspect of language or other. The ones mentioned are:

- communicative language teaching because it gives the learner the chance to interact and discuss in almost real English settings
- the communicative method
- focus on pronunciation
- communicative approach because the aim of oral expression is communication
- I always warm up my students at first to prepare them psychologically to take knowledge
- The communicative approach, it is the last one and the best one to develop learner's communicative competence.
- Cooperative learning method because it enhances all students To be involved in spite of all the teaching difficulties such as class size, time..etc.
- Task-based approach because it considers oral skills as sociolinguistic skills and tasks as their units of analysis.
- I actually use the direct method because it helps the learners to balance between the grammatical and communicative abilities in their learning.
- Communicative approach because it is the appropriate one to enhance students 'communicative abilities.

Researchers such as Borg (2006) stressed the importance of teachers' knowledge assuming that an expert understanding of the subject alone is insufficient to be able to

teach successfully. Further, researchers in the field of education identified several components of knowledge to be necessary for effective teaching. These components according to Shulman and Wilson (1986), Shulman and Richert (1987) are:

- subject matter knowledge
- general pedagogical knowledge
- pedagogical content knowledge
- curriculum knowledge
- knowledge of educational aims and objectives
- knowledge of learners
- knowledge of learning (Nashia, 2006)

Comparatively, some participants' responses show that certain types of knowledge are missing, and a gap is there; most of the teachers focus only on subject knowledge assuming that practice and effectiveness will develop automatically through time and experience.

Q8. In your view, learning motivation is:

Among participants, only 8 responded to that question. Answers included effort, desire, ability and hard work which imply that there is certain awareness concerning the factors that affect motivation, but the focus was only on either external or internal motivation whereas motivation is multifaceted. For example, when participants emphasized that motivation was everything done by the teacher or when they said motivation was the internal desire and energy to learn, their answers were as follows:

- A very important aspect
- are all the possible ways that the teacher uses to bring out their capacities and the ability to oblige them to speak without hesitation

- a process that includes two sides, intrinsic motivation which plays a great role in FL learning and extrinsic one which can boost the learners' self-confidence.
- the ability to acquire knowledge easily and be interested in everything related to learning
- working hard to achieve a high level of performance
- The degree to which students invest attention and effort to learn the target language.
- it is a psychological characteristic that pushes the student to learn or to act to achieve a goal
- it is the internal desire to learn; it is the energy that makes the learner overcome all the constraints

Q9. According to you, the main sources of motivation are (mention 4 of them)

Concerning sources of motivation, same can be said about that question; only 8 eight responded to it giving different and mixed answers which are not really related to motivation sources but to some factors and strategies that might be used to prompt motivation such as respecting students, encouraging group work and verbal praise. That question was one of the questions to test participants' knowledge of some aspects related to the learner, but unfortunately answers show great sort of confusion between the different notions related to motivation. Responses were quoted as following:

- respect students' opinions, promote speaking, encourage group work
- the teachers' technique, the module itself extra grades
- intrinsic, extrinsic, teachers' approach
- intrinsic, future job, peer opinion
- verbal praise extra grades, teachers' techniques
- personality , the learning conditions, the aims of learning/teaching methods

- the atmosphere of work, teachers' techniques
- success, teachers' reward, love of the subject

Q10. According to your experience in teaching English, what are factors that affect learners' motivation (Mention at least 4)

Twenty participants responded to that question whereas ten of them did not mention anything. The majority of them focused on the teacher (e.g. teacher's correction, attitude, methods), on the learner (e.g. self-confidence, personality, ability), and on the learning environment (e.g. healthy classroom atmosphere and materials). The mentioned factors were:

- lack of respect for their opinions and efforts
- the teachers' attitudes, the atmosphere of the classroom, the topics discussed
- Self-confidence, self-efficacy, the interest in the module and the lesson, learners' experience with the teacher and the setting
- learners' personality, teachers' feedback, classroom atmosphere
- teachers' correction, students' inner motivation, the syllabus
- teachers' methods and attitudes towards learners
- ability, age, aims, and objectives
- friends,
- teachers' motivation through grades and materials
- prior experience, lack of teachers' feedback
- nature of topics, teachers' way of teaching
- the teacher, the environment
- teaching materials, teaching methods, teachers' feedback
- the personality of the teacher and his awareness

- teacher behaviour, good teacher-student rapport, healthy classroom atmosphere
- the teacher, materials, the classroom management
- extrinsic factors : teacher abilities, skills, institution systems, peers, intrinsic factors :the learners’ personality, attitudes, and desire
- lack of materials, large classes and sessions timing, lack of teachers’ qualification, learners’ personal life
- psychological factors : personality, anxiety, fear and social factors : home, environment, peers, and friends
- sufficient practice, difficult tasks, teachers’ knowledge

Q11. Do you follow a particular model of motivation in your teaching practice?

	Yes	No
Number	6	24
Percentage %	20.00	80.00

Table.10. the Followed Model of Motivation

As we can see, 80% of participants answered negatively, probably, for various reasons; one of them is the lack of training where participants are not given sufficient background knowledge about teaching, pedagogy and education on one hand. On the other hand, there is no appraisal or observation system to evaluate teachers’ practice in the classroom or to evaluate their perception of things, leading consequently to a lack of interest in some basics of the profession.

Q12. If yes which one and why?

Teachers who responded positively to the previous question mentioned examples which are not models of motivation but some strategies that could be used like:

- by praising and encouraging them, discussing their personal problems, creating a healthy atmosphere
- extrinsic motivation
- praise and reward
- types of tasks according to needs
- materials
- Gardner's socio-educational model
- create a relaxed atmosphere

From the question of specialty, we notice that the majority of participants are doing TEFL and applied linguistics, and this domain comprises all aspects of language and language learning, though, as teachers, we are all supposed to have basic knowledge of psychology and pedagogy.

5.1.3. Teachers' Motivation to Teach

In this section, the aim is to explore teacher enthusiasm and motivation for teaching as well as their satisfaction. On the one hand, teachers cannot motivate students if they are not motivated; on the other hand, teacher's motivation is one of the main personal attributes that controls other components of teacher quality.

Q13. What Is Your Overall Level of Satisfaction With Your Job As A Teacher?

	Very dissatisfied	Somewhat dissatisfied	Somewhat satisfied	Very satisfied
Number	6	3	14	4
Percentage	20.00	10.00	46.66	13.33

Table.11. Teachers' Level of Satisfaction

In answering this question, only 13.33% showed they are very satisfied while 30% between very dissatisfied and somewhat dissatisfied. This result could be considered as very negative because job satisfaction is basic in the pyramid of teachers' needs and if they do not feel job security, no change or improvement can be expected from them. Research has consistently shown that significant differences existed between the scores of students taught by teachers with high job satisfaction and of those taught by teachers with low satisfaction (Brumback 1986). Brumback also found a strong relationship between teachers' job recognition and students' academic performance.

Q14. If you have the opportunity to start a new career, would you choose to become a teacher?

Answers	Yes	No
Number	17	13
Percentage	56.66	43.33

Table 12. Choice to Become a Teacher

As shown above, nearly half (43.33%) of the sample are not motivated to be teachers though the majority of them are just new teachers or Ph.D. students who are still part-time

teachers at the beginning of their career. So the question here is if they are de-motivated at the beginning of their career what would happen later after 10 or 15 years of teaching?

Q15. Generally Speaking, Do You Think That the Teachers with Whom You Work Are Motivated?

	Yes	No
Number	11	19
Percentage	36.66	63.33

Table.13. Colleagues Motivation

Colleagues' perception of things plays an essential role in shaping our thinking, feelings and motivation. If the atmosphere is motivating and people are motivated, one can feel motivated and influenced by them. Unfortunately, 63.33 % of participants declared that their colleagues are not motivated. That will absolutely lead to one result which is a de-motivating milieu.

Q16. How Many Teachers You Know Or Work With Would You Classify As Unmotivated?

	1-2	3-4	5-6	7-8	9-10	More than 10
Number	8	8	2	2	3	7
Percentage	26.66	26.66	6.66	6.66	10.00	23.33

Table.14. Number of Un-motivated Colleagues

We assume that if a teacher knows only one colleague who is unmotivated, he/she will be affected. To that question, participants, answers revealed that 23.33% know more than 10

teachers who are unmotivated, (26.66+26.66%) know at least one or two who lack motivation; so, there is a negative influence in one way or other. Motivation is an important part of everyone's work life. Without motivation, teachers can never aspire to grow in their workplace or in their career. They cannot put the blame on the system or organization either. Motivation must come from within them, and they must spread it to everyone around them. That is the key to a happy workplace and a successful and effective teaching.

Q17. The following statements relate to factors that may affect your personal motivation as a teacher, please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement by circling the appropriate option. Fill in the table with the appropriate number

Factors affecting teachers' motivation may vary from one teacher to another, but there are always common reasons that lead to motivation or de-motivation. Participants were asked to rate 24 statement related to different factors (see Table 12, below). These factors were selected because we believe that what happens to people during the work day has profound effect both on the individual's life and on the society, and thus these events cannot be ignored if the quality of life in a society is to be high(Lawler in Tin et al., 1996)

Research proved that teachers' motivation level determines their performance, their learners' motivation and their school outcomes. Institutions liveliness comes from the motivation of their employees though their ability may play a crucial role in shaping their work performance as their motivation. Motivated and committed teachers can be a determining factor in the success of their schools and institutions. Therefore, it is important to explore some of the factors that affect their motivation. In this question, factors can be classified into three categories to see which category has more influence on participants. In

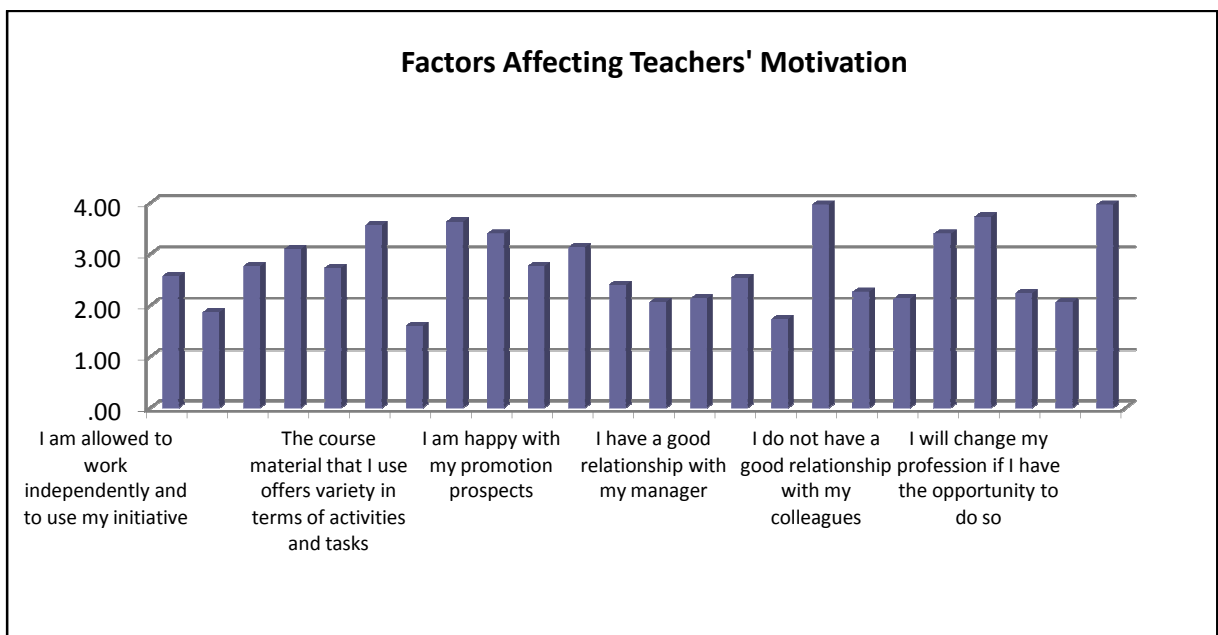
The first category, there are all factors related to the teacher such as independent work, work enjoyment, job satisfaction and reflection. The second category includes all factors related to the learner like having a good relationship with learners and learners' success and achievement. Within the third category, all that is related to the learning situation level are concerned including the department policy, the curriculum, the head's relationship and salary. If teachers are following new methods in teaching, then, they are expected to focus much on the two first categories with a concentration on the learner in the first place. However, factors that affect any job may vary from a place to another and from a person to another.

Strongly disagree--1, disagree --2, neutral--3, agree--4, strongly agree—5

Factors Affecting Motivation	Std.	
	Mean	Deviation
I am allowed to work independently and to use my initiative	2.57	1.194
I would like rules and procedures at work to be clearer	1.87	1.042
I will change my current employer if I have the opportunity to do so	2.77	.971
My workload is very manageable	3.10	1.029
The course material that I use offers variety in terms of activities and tasks	2.73	1.202
I am happy with the professional development opportunities offered in my job	3.57	1.073
I would like my work to be more enjoyable	1.60	1.037
My working hours are too long	3.63	1.217
I am happy with my promotion prospects	3.40	1.037
I am fully satisfied with my current job	2.77	1.478
My students' language learning success/achievement motivates me to carry on teaching	3.13	1.502
I am fully satisfied with my profession as a teacher	2.40	1.380
I have a good relationship with my manager	2.07	.785
I would like my job to be more challenging	2.13	1.137
I have a job in which I can perform to the best of my ability	2.53	1.074

I have a good relationship with my students	1.73	.785
I do not have a good relationship with my colleagues	3.97	1.351
I would like to have greater job security	2.27	1.230
I would like more involvement in the process of setting my students' learning goals	2.13	.819
I am satisfied with my fringe benefits	3.40	.968
I will change my profession if I have the opportunity to do so	3.73	1.311
I know my teaching is effective in helping my students to learn English	2.23	.971
I would like to receive more feedback about my teaching from my manager	2.07	1.112
I am satisfied with my current salary	3.97	1.299

Table.15. Factors Affecting Motivation



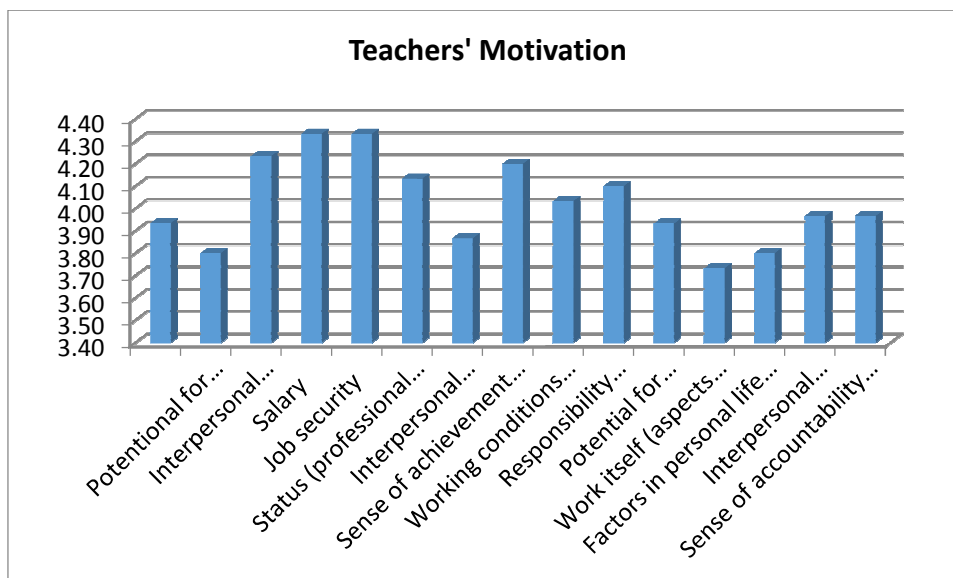
Responses shown on Table 12 reveal that the importance is given to salary with 3.97 as a mean, then, another opportunity to change profession 3.73, being happy with fringe benefits and promotion prospects with 3.40 which show great dissatisfaction and demotivation within participants. Despite all circumstances, the mission of a teacher needs enthusiasm and love without which they would not reach any goal. Concerning learners

related factors, they received less importance where the majority of participants did not give importance to the relationship with learners 1.73, the work enjoyment 1.60 and clear department policy and procedures 1.87. Some other factors which are really essential for an effective and affective learning to take place are responded to negatively. Participants did not show much interest in teacher development, teaching profession satisfaction, feedback, and self-evaluation.

Q18. On the following 6-point scale, indicate the degree to which each of the following serve as a motivating factor or un-motivating factor for teachers

Motivating or un-motivating factor for teachers	Mean	Std. Deviation
Recognition , receiving praise from the administration, head, dean, students	3.93	1.34
Potential for professional growth (possibility to improve one’s skills)	3.80	1.24
Interpersonal relationships with colleagues (interaction with other teachers)	4.23	.82
Salary	4.33	1.12
Job security	4.33	1.18
Status (professional status of teaching)	4.13	1.28
Interpersonal relationship with administration	3.87	1.07
Sense of achievement (experiencing success)	4.20	1.24
Working conditions (building conditions, amount of work, facilities available)	4.03	1.38
Responsibility (authority, autonomy, and responsibility for own work)	4.10	.99
Potential for advancement (e.g., possibility of assuming different positions in the profession)	3.93	.98
Work itself (aspects associated with the tasks of teaching)	3.73	1.17
Factors in personal life (effects of teaching on one’s personal life)	3.80	.92
Interpersonal relationships with students	3.97	.96
Sense of accountability (e.g., being held directly responsible for student learning)	3.97	1.00

Table.16. Teacher’s Motivation



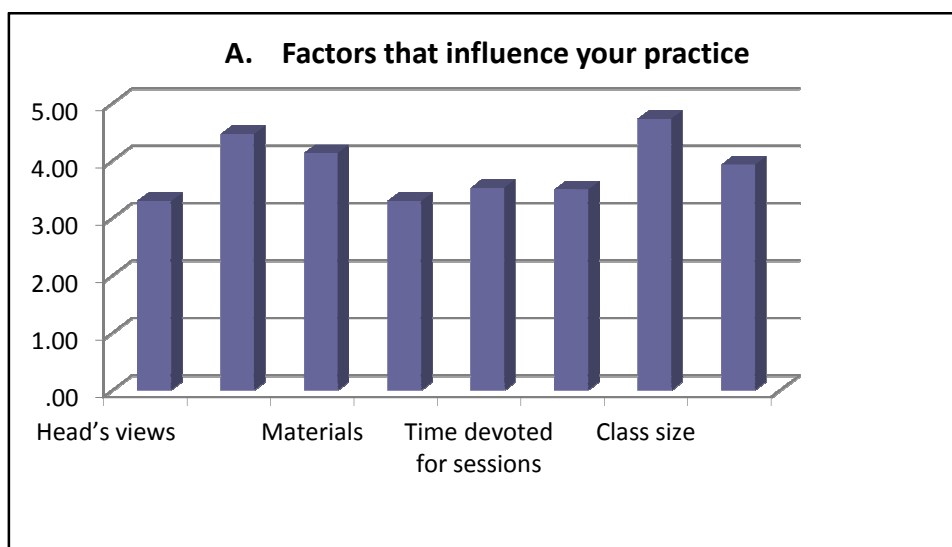
In this question, participants were asked to rate motivating factors on a 6 point scale starting from the highly motivating to the highly un-motivating. Responses show that salary which was in previous question the first factor to affect motivation now it is also the first motivating factor for the majority of participants (4.33). Job security also received big interest with same mean 4.33. In addition to these two aspects, participants perceived interpersonal relationships with colleagues as a motivating factor in their teaching practice (4.23). These answers imply that salary, compensation, and colleagues have considerable influence on participants more than learners or their professional well-being. Unfortunately, less importance is drawn to a good relationship with the administration (3.87), effects of teaching on personal life (3.80), potential for professional growth (3.80), potential for advancement (3.93) and the work itself with all aspects related to teaching (3.73). So, teachers are seeking their motivation and satisfaction from outside the teaching profession; their answers imply that they do not enjoy what they are doing, and there is no sense of commitment to their profession and their learners because the majority focused on financial aspects and compensation rather than on learners or the job commitment

Q19. In the Following Question, Rate the Factors that Influence your Teaching Practice of Foreign Language Oral Tasks

A. Factors that influence your practice

A. Factors that influence your practice	Mean	Std. Deviation
Head's views	3.30	1.24
Students' level	4.47	.68
Materials	4.13	1.14
Colleagues' views	3.30	1.09
Time devoted for sessions	3.53	1.01
Syllabus	3.50	1.28
Class size	4.73	.45
My own beliefs	3.93	1.44

Table.17. Factors Affecting Teacher's Practice



Results indicate that among the eight proposed factors, four ones received much emphasis.

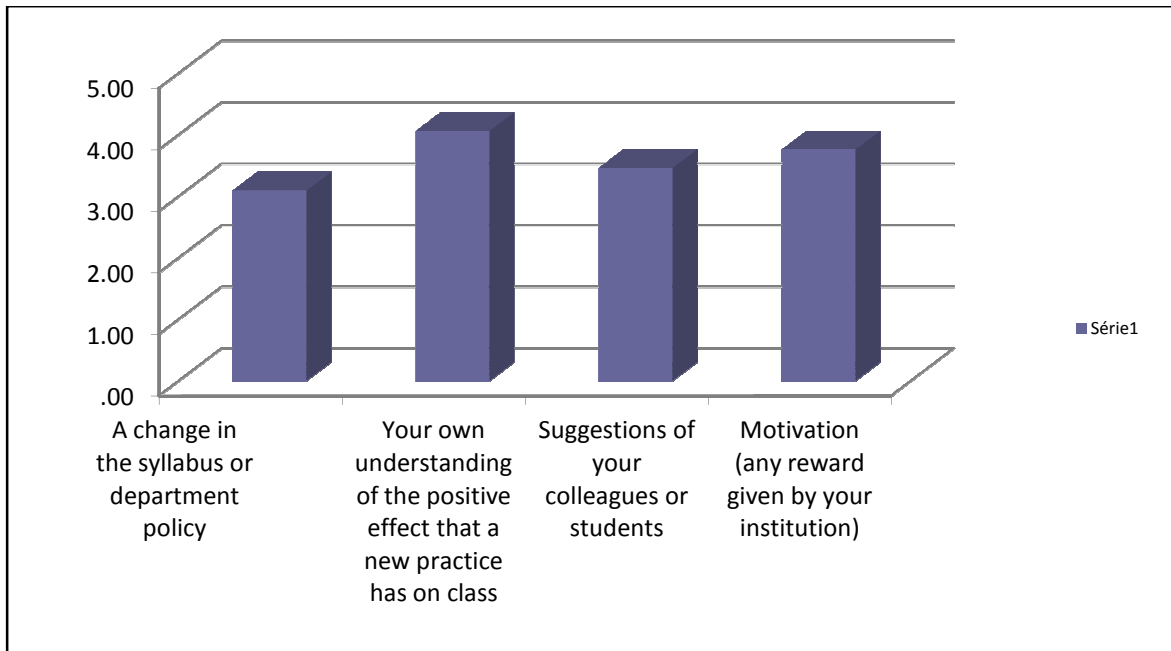
The first is the class size (4.73 mean), then students' level (4.47), then materials (4.13)

which are a reality that no one can deny in three universities concerned and in Algeria as a whole where the educational policy became a quantity based not a quality one. All participants claimed they did not have problems with subjects or syllabus but with class size, the number of students which is not manageable at all. Content modules may be taught in large classes, but it could never be with language modules which need interaction, correction, and feedback, a variation of activities and teachers' control. In classrooms observed, there is no even space for the teacher to walk between tables and rows. To solve this problem of motivation, Smorra (2003) discussed some of the ways to sustain teachers' motivation including building a positive school culture that supports learning and teaching, provide differentiated professional development opportunities and encouraging teachers' innovation (Smorra in Scherer)

B. What might lead you to change your teaching practice?

What might lead you to change your teaching practice?	Mean	Std. Deviation
A change in the syllabus or department policy	3.10	1.47
Your own understanding of the positive effect that a new practice has on class	4.07	1.36
Suggestions of your colleagues or students	3.47	.82
Motivation (any reward given by your institution)	3.77	1.01

Table.18. Factors leading to change in Practice



Concerning the factors that may lead to practice, participants stressed two of them which are own understanding and motivation by the institution. Teachers are expected to motivate learners, but one should ask the question whether they are motivated or not? Full-time teachers claim about the class size and learners' level where they could not manage the situation while part-time teachers claim about all conditions in which they are given basic modules but not enough rights at the Algerian university (low compensation) which does not fit the level of their work and effort which is true. A magister, a master or Ph.D. student with very low salary, much duties to handle and a thesis to finish but at the same time teaching one of the most difficult modules like Oral expression or Written expression. So, whom should we blame?

Q20. In your opinion, ways of improving teaching practice may include (tick the appropriate answer (s))

	Cooperation between teachers	Quality of resources	Quantity of resources	Smaller class size	In – service training	Clear department policy	More time for reading
Number	26	25	12	24	17	19	17
Order	1	2	6	3	5	4	5
percentage	86.66	83.33	40	80	56.66	63.33	56.66

Table.19. Ways to Improve Teaching

The answers show that great emphasis is put on cooperation (86.66%), quality of resources (83.33%), smaller class size (80%) and clear department policy; however, less importance given to in- service training and more time for reading and finally the quality of resources. It is well noticed that first place is given to the quality of resources on behalf of class size and teacher training which are more important to develop one’s teaching awareness, knowledge, and practice. The responses show big focus on teachers’ cognition regardless of their metacognition that comprises awareness, planning and self-evaluation which are the only means to think or rethink about the education cycle and whether the practice should be rethought about, improved or kept as it is. In reality, the majority of teachers blame institutions for a large number of students, lack of materials and the workload and no one mentions resources quality or department policy.

5.1.4. Teachers' Practice In Oral Expression Courses

This section is devoted to explore teachers' perceptions and practice in teaching Oral tasks; it includes questions related to class size, sources of difficulty, task planning, examples of tasks, and changes that happened in their practice.

Q21. What is the Size of the Class You Are Teaching?

Among our respondents, 7 said between 25 and 40 and 21 said between 45 and 72. Their answers show that large classes became a real group or class division practice in our educational system at all levels. This factor prevented many teachers from implementing new techniques and varying activities, especially when teaching language subjects such as oral expression, written expression, and grammar. Large classes create challenges of different sorts. Rhalmi (2013) in an article about large classes, cite some of those problems as being:

- One of the main difficulties that a teacher may experience while teaching a large class is the tremendous effort that she or he will have to make. With an outnumbered class there is always something to be done.
- With a large class, it is difficult to get a satisfactory knowledge of student's needs. Intimacy with students and remembering names might be a problem.
- As a consequence of a large number of students, the noise level is inevitably high which adds to the stress teachers may experience.
- Organizing, planning, and presenting lessons may constitute another challenge for teachers in such classes as students abilities might differ considerably.
- There is another difficulty related to the learning process. In fact, engaging learners actively in the learning process may not be easy in a crowded class.

- It is hard to imagine how a large class would benefit from school resources such as computers, books, references..., etc
- With a crowded classroom, teachers might find it difficult in measuring effectiveness.
- A large class gives reluctant students a place to hide.

Other researchers discussed other challenges which are:

- **Intimacy:** Remembering student's names can take a while. Teachers may feel that they do not get to know their students as well as they would like to.
- **Anxiety:** Some teachers feel anxious being so outnumbered by the students. In addition, some students are afraid to ask questions or participate in a large class.
- **The student needs:** Meeting individual needs can be difficult or impossible when class size is very large.
- **Marking:** Grading assignments and tests can be very time-consuming, and your pay will generally be the same for a smaller class.
- **Distractions:** There are more distractions for teachers in large classes, such as latecomers and people chatting while you are teaching.
- **Preparation:** Making photocopies for a large class can be very time-consuming. Other teachers may be bothered by how much time you spend using the photocopier.
- **Noise level:** Large classes can become out of hand when students are working in pairs or groups. At times, you may feel more like a disciplinarian than a teacher.
- **Monitoring students:** Teachers may find it difficult to keep students on task as they monitor pair and group work.
- **Space:** There is limited space in a classroom for energetic activities such as role-playing.

- **Textbooks and resources:** There may not be enough textbooks or computers available for all students.

Thus, according to the results provided by our respondents, all of these problems and challenges can be classified into four main categories. First, teachers cannot have a chance to interact with all students and give them a chance to participate. Second, classroom space in most of the cases does not allow the teacher to move or have control over activities. Third, there is neither opportunity to apply some classroom management techniques such as group dynamics nor possibility of using materials because every activity would be time-consuming. Finally, students' evaluation becomes complicated and not fair enough as the teacher cannot think about his/her students' level, their needs, and improvement and cannot give them feedback on assignments and works in most of the cases.

Q22. What are Sources of Difficulty that you have in Teaching Oral Expression?

Sources	Number	Percentage	Order
Many topics to cover in order to deal with the curriculum	3	10	8
The large number of students per class	25	83.33	1
Students' cultural background	19	63.33	3
Students' level	23	76.66	2
Lack of time	8	26.6	6
Lack of resources	15	45	5
Lack of teachers' knowledge	7	23.33	7
Lack of motivation	16	53.33	4

Table.20. Sources of Difficulty in Teaching Oral Expression

The results show that 83.33% selected the large number, 76.66% selected students' level, and 63.33% chose students' cultural background. Only 23.33% stressed the lack of teachers' knowledge. Here, there is a sort of contradiction; in the question about sources of motivation, the number of students was not given much importance whereas in this question, 83.33% of participants declared that class size is a source of difficulty in teaching oral expression. That is obvious and reasons are mentioned in previous question discussion. The second source of difficulty is students' level. We all know that students are oriented to study English without any diagnostic language test; they are oriented on the basis of secondary school certificate (baccalaureate) general grade that does not really reflect their level. In this case, teachers encounter problems with multilevel classes find themselves confused between the syllabus, which is normally designed to upper intermediate or at least intermediate levels, and students' level which may be less than elementary. This confusion caused great sort of deficiency in the system, like boredom and anxiety as well as an injustice to students with a good level.

Q23. How Do You Proceed to Plan for Foreign Language Oral Tasks?

Only 3 teachers responded to this question; their answers were as follows:

- I personally try to divide the task into two parts : one to provide students with necessary vocabulary related to the topic discussed and another to be as role play in which students take part in using what is learnt before
- I follow some steps : I set up my goals and objectives, I select appropriate techniques and activities, I provide activities for variety and individual differences, I try to use as many audiovisuals as I can, I try to invite students to participate using variety of ways
- In a listening session, I use pre-listening, while listening and post-listening and in speaking session it should be related to the first one as students will have a certain

background gained from listening phases such as vocabulary. In this phase, students try to speak and perform correct and well-polished oral production.

From answers to previous questions such as Q8, 9, 10, 11 that was expected because the majority showed a lack of knowledge and pedagogy and declared the absence of particular approach followed in teaching oral expression. The three teachers, who answered that question, gave an example of activity they conducted not the way they plan for a task. The literature is rich with frameworks on how to design tasks, tasks types, demands, and structure. For example communicative task demands are Linguistic complexity (vocabulary, grammar, textual/genre conventions), Communicative stress (face-threatening topic or task; the number of people involved; relationships of those involved) and Cognitive demands (familiarity with the topic; memory requirements; processing demands). Moreover, When considering how to structure a task, Lee (2000: 35-36) suggests that designers ask themselves these four questions:

- What information is supposed to be extracted from the interaction by the learners?
- What are the relevant subcomponents of the topic?
- What tasks can the learners carry out to explore the subcomponents? (e.g., create lists, fill in charts, etc.)
- What linguistic support do the learners need?

Q24. Please state an example of an FL Oral Activity that you Have Recently Done in Class, which you Think Best Exemplifies your Approach to the Teaching of Oral Language (also state your aims)

Only 19 teachers responded to that question giving only names of activities without any further explanation. Three of them mentioned role play; four of them spoke about performing and storytelling whereas the others were distributed between discussing a

topic, describing a person or something, and listening activities such as listening to songs. These results show to what extent Oral expression is not given much importance in the Algerian university because of many reasons. The first and most important reason is that the experienced, and specialized teachers are busy and loaded with teaching content modules at higher level, specifically the master level. So, first and second-year students are in most of the cases given to part-time and new teachers; this may be a wrong decision made by the institution. Another reason is that those part-time teachers are not exposed to a detailed syllabus and lesson plans with clear objectives, materials needed, types of activities and integration of skills. Thus, every teacher is doing what he/she likes, knows or perceives as appropriate. Many teachers choose one activity at the expense of the others, because of either class size or load of work, or that was the only activity, they learned from their teaching / learning experience. So, there is no integration of skills or focus on the three language competencies. The respondents' answers are displayed below:

T 1: -public speaking - performing as actors, leaders, and journalists

T 2: -role plays: to reduce students' stress

T 3: -discussion on a certain topic; they will be able to manage themselves and take risks to interact and use the foreign language

T 4: - Role plays

T 5: - describing activities

T 6: - listening activities (English and American songs)

T7: - role plays (learning vocabulary and self-confidence)

T 8: - working in pairs; they discuss, read and share

T 9: -word association activities to enrich vocabulary

T10: - discussion

T11: - story-telling: reading using reading strategies then self-talks

T12: crosswords puzzle; invite students to cooperate

T13: listening songs to motivate them especially when they are about social issues

T14: discussion

T15: -Pictures including different characters, they were asked to describe them to each other. They were supposed to use tenses properly. Finally, they were asked to describe famous figures to be guessed by others. They were supposed to use tenses correctly and use new vocabulary in communicating with their classmates.

T16: -Drama like activity: to write a short scene from a famous drama and perform it in front of the class. The aim is to practice the language using linguistic and paralinguistic features.

T 17: -Performing a monologue, helping students to overcome their shyness and anxiety as well as practice acting skills and improve their pronunciation and vocabulary. The lesson started with an introduction to theatre, acting, monologues. It was modeled by the teacher; then handouts were given to students including a long monologue and tips on how to perform it. Plus, short videos were displayed followed by a discussion, to be followed by a performance of their own coming session.

T 18: -story-telling; a story was divided into parts and given to students to perform.

T 19: -reading a novel, summarizing it ; then telling it to classmates

Q26. Briefly, describe one or two of your most important beliefs about teaching Oral tasks that guide you in your day to day teaching (e.g., communication strategies play an important role in language learning)

Participants are asked about beliefs that underline their actions and practice because teachers' beliefs are essential indicators of learning outcomes and learners' achievements in tasks which are explained in the following figure:



Figure.8. Retrieved from Mindsets Site, 2011

Only 13 participants expressed some of their beliefs as follows:

***T1:** The teacher must be very fluent, friendly, cool, social, not too old and interested in students' concerns. The topics discussed and materials used must be up to date.*

***T2:** The ability to argue is an important feature to discuss and give different aspects of an issue.; critical thinking is essential ; Self-confidence plays an important role in oral skills*

Teacher 3.

***T3:** Topics discussed must be up to date, and students must be interested in them so that they can participate.*

***T4:** Following CLT, I believe teachers are supposed to choose activities that help students feel comfortable, confident and able to communicate using the target language.*

T5: I believe that discussion allows students to speak and express themselves, on the other hand, this task develops the student's fluency and accuracy which are the basic elements in FLL.

T 6: As a teacher of OE, I have to be cool, social and friendly with my students in order to provide the good mood for study. In addition to that, topics to be discussed must be new and attractive.

T 7: less teacher talk plus teaching communication strategies

T 8: motivation plays an important role in developing students' oral performance ; Teachers' feedback to enable the learners to know their weaknesses and correcting them ; Authentic materials to have a clear insight into how native speakers perform the target language.

T 9: Cooperative learning encourages collaboration, cooperation, and independence.

T 10: Audio aids help better develop listening skills if compared to video aids ; group discussion motivates learners to speak and participate

T 11: The use of different materials plays an important role in teaching oral tasks.

T 12: Interaction to increase motivation and reduce anxiety ; Class participation needs to be compulsory to all students.

T 13: oral tasks should be planned according to students' interests to keep them ; Motivated.

We notice that all beliefs mentioned here are centered on the teacher, types of activities and materials. Successful and effective teaching is related to many aspects which are classified by Dorneyi (2001) into three levels: the language level, the learner level, and the learning situation level (including teacher, course and setting). The respondents' statements

displayed above imply that language competencies and the learners are not really focused on while the learning setting is totally forgotten.

Participants were asked about beliefs as the latter are believed to be one of the main factors that affect teachers' practice. Though beliefs are defined in diverse ways, a common definition is shared by many researchers such as Koballa and Crawly (1985) who consider that beliefs are the information that a person accepts to be true. Beliefs also are defined as the categories of teachers' thought processes that include teachers' knowledge, planning practice, and decision-making (Kostopoulou 2005). From this definition, we can deduce that to explore teachers' thinking, decisions and ways of reasoning, one of the best strategies is to ask them to express their beliefs about what they are doing in the profession.

Q27. Think about Your First Year(s) of Teaching and Compare what You did Then with What You Do Now; What are Some of the Important Ways Your Approach to Teaching Oral Expression

<u>Time</u>	<u>Then</u>	<u>Now</u>
1	I follow the same techniques, and there is no relation between my students and me	I use variety of activities, and I have good listening to my students
2	Focus on the bright students I am the only source for tasks	Focus on all class Students are encouraged to suggest their own topics and tasks
3	Giving students rules of language use then practice	Teaching rules through communication and examples
4	Giving information	- keeping a teaching journal - checking students' level - developing fluency and accuracy
5	Only oral presentations and most of the time	Variety of tasks and less teacher talk

	teachers' talk	
6	No group works	Group work and variety of activities
7	Direct correction and no accuracy activities	- Avoiding direct correction - use both accuracy and fluency activities
8	Work alone without any kind of planning	- Collaboration with colleagues - Specific plans within specific goals and strategies.
9	- No interaction - No learners' motivation - No lesson plans	- Interaction - motivation - lesson plans
10	- Teacher centred approach - Stick to particular activities - Teacher is the main source - Only individual performances	- learner-centeredness - varying activities - using authentic materials - cooperative learning
11	Focus on accuracy and correction of students mistakes	Encouraging fluency and peer correction

Table.21. Improvement in teacher's Practice

As it can be noticed, only 11 participants answered that question and really illustrated a change in their practice explaining a shift from a teacher centered to a learner centered approach or from one activity to a variety of activities. We can then say that participants stress some aspects of effective teaching such as lesson plans, interaction, materials, evaluation, correction..., etc.

Q28. What are the sources of the changes you identified above? Mention 3 most important of the following options (1, 2,3) and explain your response in the space provided

Sources	Feedback from colleagues	Feedback from students	Through trial and error	Keeping a teaching journal	Attending in-service courses	Attending seminars and conference	Self-discovery
Number	12	13	17	4	3	5	22
Percentage	40	43.33	56.66	13.33	10	16.66	73.33

Table.22. Source of Change in Teachers' Practice

The majority of 22 participants said that their change is due to self-discovery, 17 of them said through trial and error, 13 chose feedback from students and 12 said feedback from colleagues. The remaining were divided between attending conferences and keeping a teaching journal and only 3 mentioned in-service courses which are very rare in Algeria.

Explain: the majority of teachers did not explain the change and those who did; they did not explain it properly but gave just general ideas and repeated what that had been stated in the previous question.

5.1.5. Teachers' Practice of Affective Strategies

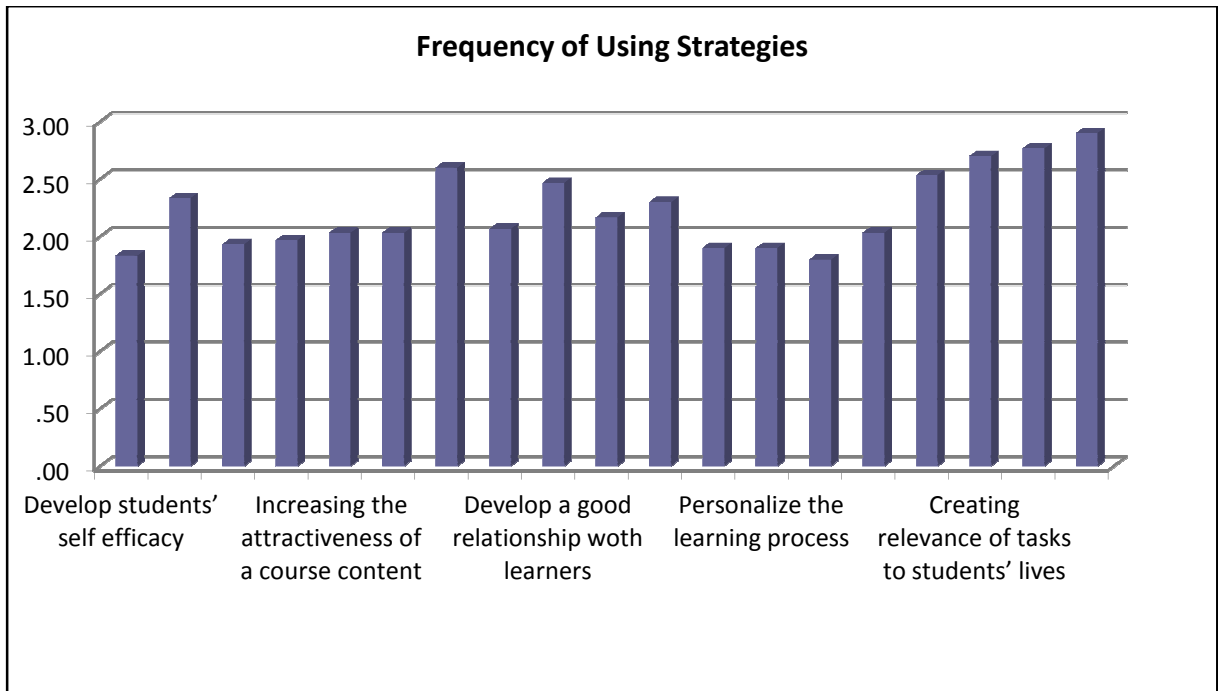
The aim of this section is to explore teachers' own statements about their own practice of affective strategies. It encompasses two questions which are based on many

studies previously mentioned in the literature, mainly Dornyei's framework of motivational strategies and the teacher motivation and motivational strategy questionnaire on Survey monkey website.

Q29. How Often You Use these Strategies in Teaching FL Oral Tasks (Put a Tick and Give Examples When Needed)

Frequency of Strategy Use in Teaching FL Oral Tasks	Mean	Std. Deviation
Develop students' self efficacy	1.83	.592
Decrease their anxiety	2.33	.547
Promoting motivation-enhancing attributions	1.93	.640
Encouraging students to set attainable sub-goals	1.97	.556
Increasing the attractiveness of a course content	2.03	.669
Set a personal example with your own behaviour	2.03	.615
Create a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom	2.60	.621
Present FL tasks properly	2.07	.640
Develop a good relationship with learners	2.47	.681
Increase the learners' linguistic self-confidence	2.17	.531
Make the FL tasks interesting	2.30	.596
Promote learners' autonomy	1.90	.607
Personalize the learning process	1.90	.548
Increase learners' goal-orientedness	1.80	.664
Familiarize learners with the target language culture	2.03	.615
Arousing interest attention in the topic or task	2.53	.629
Creating relevance of tasks to students' lives	2.70	.651
Developing an expectancy of success and feeling of being in control/confidence	2.77	.728
Producing satisfaction in the outcome through intrinsic/ extrinsic rewards	2.90	.712

Table.23. Frequency of Using General Motivational Strategies



Q30. Please, Indicate How Often You Use the Following Motivational Strategies in Your Class, by Putting a Tick in the Appropriate Option.

Frequency of Using Motivational Strategies	Std.	
	Mean	Deviation
I give my students opportunities to experience success in their learning	3.43	.77
I give clear instructions for tasks by modeling	3.17	.83
I set class rules myself rather than allowing my students to do so	3.03	1.03
I explain the importance of class rules to my students	3.47	.86
I encourage my students to give suggestions for improving the course	3.13	.94
I share my personal interests with my students	3.13	.90
I use activities that familiarise students with the target culture	3.03	.89
I encourage my students to use English outside the classroom	3.43	.97
I teach my student's self-learning strategies	3.07	1.08
I try to establish a good rapport with my students	3.67	.55
I investigate my students learning needs	3.23	.86
I show my students that I care about them as people	3.63	.76

I am careful to avoid embarrassing my students when giving feedback	3.53	.68
I encourage my students to set specific learning goals for themselves	3.33	.80
I use activities which allow my students to work in groups	3.00	1.05
I highlight and review class learning goals with my students	2.93	1.08
I create a supportive classroom environment, so my students feel encouraged to take risks	3.50	.78
I ask my students what they like about the course/ learning process	3.03	.85
I encourage students to be realistic about their language learning goals	3.17	.91
I make sure tasks are challenging but doable for my students	3.30	.75
I make myself available to my students outside class time	2.80	.96
I invite former/senior students to share their learning experiences	2.07	.98
I use humour in my classroom	3.07	.78
I give immediate feedback to my students	3.10	.80
I reward my students when they succeed	3.07	.87
I start all my lessons with the same presentation technique	2.50	.86
I use tasks that are well below my students' ability	2.67	.92
I help my students to get to know each other	2.93	.74
I show my students how much they have progressed or learnt	2.90	.71
I explain why a task is meaningful or relevant	3.13	.73
I use tasks that allow my students to interact with each other	3.33	.80
I encourage my students to assess themselves	2.73	.94
I teach my students how to use self-motivating strategies	2.67	.92
I remind my students of the benefits of learning English	3.00	.91
I use a short opening activity to relax and help my students to focus	2.93	.78
I tell my students that they can learn if they make the necessary effort	3.53	.78
I tell my students that communicating meaning effectively is more important than grammatical accuracy	3.00	1.02
I use authentic tasks (to prepare my students for real life situations)	3.17	.87
I encourage my students to teach each other	3.03	.85

I make tasks attractive by using games and competitions	2.77	1.04
I match tasks to my students' needs/ interests rather than exam requirements	2.87	1.11
I remind students that mistakes are a natural part of learning	3.37	1.13
I offer a variety of tasks to my students	3.27	1.11

Table.24. Frequency of Using Specific Motivational Strategies



Answers of the previous questions related to awareness and knowledge must have an impact on participants' responses to this question. The table shows that much focus is put on some of the personal attributes like good rapport with students and avoiding embarrassing them with 3.6 and 3.53 respectively, on classroom rule and norms with 3.47, and on encouraging students to use English outside classroom and giving them opportunities to experience success with 3.43. However, the table shows that less importance is given to explaining goals of lessons and activities which are excellent stimuli to start with. Moreover, less emphasis is put on matching tasks to students' interests and needs which is not appropriate at all for learner-centered learning or communicative instruction. Self-evaluation and some strategy training are also not given much importance although they represent the core of any teaching/learning process.

5.2. Observation of Teachers' Practice of Task Completion and Affective Strategies

The observation was conducted with only 15 teachers as the remaining did not accept to be observed. It was conducted in during the middle of the academic year 2010/2011. Ten participants from Mohamed Khider University were observed using a neutral observer (other agent) to record the session. It was intended to reduce teachers' and students anxiety from being observed by a colleague. Five teachers were observed in class without recording because of time and the unavailability of another person to record sessions.

5.2.1. The Language Level

This section includes criteria about the language used by the Oral Expression teachers as they are supposed to be the main sources and models for learners. Three criteria are emphasized: language clarity and simplicity, accuracy and consistency.

5.2.1.1. Language Used is Clear and simple

Language use	Frequency	Percent
Fair	1	6,7
Good	10	66,7
Excellent	4	26,7

Table.25. Language Clarity and Simplicity

Results on the table show that the observed teachers' language is simple and clear in what indicates that teachers in the Algerian university do not encounter a problem of language, and the majority of them are good despite the lack of training and the authentic context.

5.2.1.2. Language Used is Accurate

Language accuracy	Frequency	Percentage
Fair	7	46.66
Good	4	26.66
Excellent	4	26.66

Table.26. Language Accuracy

When language used is accurate, teachers could be good models for their students especially in modules that involve speaking. Language accuracy normally comprises the three competencies: grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. Here, four participants were excellent in terms of the three of them whereas 4 were good enough, showing mastery of strategic competence using compensation and communicative strategies when they face a language problem especially in vocabulary and pronunciation.

5.2.1.3. Language Used is Consistent

	Frequency	Percent
Fair	6	40
Good	5	33.33
Excellent	4	26.66

Table.27. Language Consistency

Language consistency is a very important element in the language classroom and the curriculum in itself; however, many teachers do not control that and use a variety of accents ranging from American to British and sometimes using different patterns which are neither American nor British. When they are asked, the majority say we follow the RP (Received Pronunciation).

5.2.2. The Learner Level

This section is devoted to criteria related to teacher-learner relationships. It includes: teachers' caring, respect, communication and monitoring. In this section, there is a focus on the affective aspects in class and practice.

5.2.2.1. Teachers' Caring

	Frequency	Percent
Poor	2	13,3
Fair	2	13,3
Good	9	60,0
Excellent	2	13,3

Table.28. Teacher's Caring

The affective aspect of the teacher is very important; for some students, it is more important than the learning purpose or task itself. Teachers' caring is a prerequisite for any learning activity but it is more called for in Oral Expression courses and tasks as they demand much more contact with learners. Teachers' caring can be shown through calling names, listening to students, and being available when called by students or asked questions; the results of the observation reveal that only 4 teachers were passive, but we cannot say they were not caring because it could be due to their particular state of mind on that day or because of other circumstances. All other teachers confirmed that they were caring and interested in their students.

5.2.2.2. Teachers' Fairness and Respect

Fairness and respect	Frequency	Percent
Fair	3	20,0
Good	10	66,7
Excellent	2	13,3

Table.29. Teacher's Fairness and Respect

Teachers' respect and fairness were clear in the way participants behaved with their students and the way they perceived students' behaviour. It was also clear in students' opportunities to participate or perform tasks. The majority of participants seemed to give equal chances to students during tasks only those teachers, who deal with free discussion activities, usually work with a few students who participate and interact in any step during the task.

5.2.2.3. Interaction and Communication with Students

	Frequency	Percent
Fair	6	40,0
Good	5	33,3
Excellent	4	26,7

Table.30. Interaction and Communication with Students

Communication is not only turn- taking; however, it can be in many forms such as checking understanding, appeal for help, message confirmation, and negotiation of meaning. To achieve that, less teachers' talk is needed. Unfortunately, the observed teachers showed a great deal of communication, but there was always exaggeration in their talk and explanation on behalf of students' talk. The six participants who showed fair interaction kept either talking alone or exchanging knowledge and talk with a few students while other students were totally passive. Teachers need to be aware that interaction is an elicitation of student participation and initiative provoke interpersonal communication skills. Interaction is the exchange of information between the teacher and the students or among the students. Whatever its form is quiet or noisy, dynamic and alert, in large or small classes, it makes students deeply involved in activities that draw on their creativity (Jeyasala 2014: 165).

So, teachers should demonstrate these qualities for learners to help them overcome their inhibitions and fear of embarrassment which would be a good chance of practice for learners. Teachers should also bear in mind the fact that in an interactive classroom, comprehension and production retrieve their normal relationship as an interactive duo. To achieve this Rivers (1985) says:" we need an ambiance and relations among individuals

that promote a desire for interaction”. So, teachers need to make each class session a unique experience and each sequence with a class a variation on the basic chemistry. Thus, the teacher needs to remember that interaction can be two-way, three-way, four-way, but never one way when they dominate the classroom.

5.2.2.4. Engaging Students in Tasks

	Frequency	Percent
Fair	4	26,7
Good	11	73,3

Table.31.Engaging Students in Tasks

During observation sessions, teachers who were dealing with a variety of tasks succeeded in involving all students through different tasks using different group dynamics whereas those who used only teachers’ talk or free discussion kept working with a few students while others did not show any effort.

5.2.2.5. Monitoring Students’ Success

	Frequency	Percent
Fair	11	73,3
Good	4	26,7

Table.32. Monitoring Students Success

Despite some of the positive aspects mentioned in previous items, teachers’ control and monitoring were like absent. When dealing with group or pair work, the majority of teachers were not controlling students’ work or progress, and they did not give feedback at the end.

5.2.2.6. Teachers' Motivation and Enthusiasm

	Frequency	Percent
Fair	7	46,7
Good	6	40,0
Excellent	2	13,3

Table.33. Teachers' Motivation and Enthusiasm

Teachers, who are not motivated, never expect their students to be motivated. So, teachers need to show their enthusiasm explicitly; they can talk about their love of the subject, their love for their students and their dedication to teaching. The more the teacher is enthusiastic, the more students get influenced by him or her and see them as models even their teaching practice is not really satisfactory or good enough. 46.7 of participants looked like bored and not interested as if the job or the module is imposed upon them. Teachers' interaction and communication are much related to their motivation; someone who is not motivated can never achieve what he/she is there for and cannot promote communication and interaction as both demand inner motive and feelings.

5.2.3. The Learning Situation Level

This section encompasses criteria that reflect participants understanding of task design and teaching (i.e. organizing and implementing instruction). It covers task objectives, planning, variation, skills and materials.

5.2.3.1.Task Objectives

	Frequency	Percent
Poor	10	66,7
Fair	5	33,3

Table.34. Task Objectives

Unfortunately, during observation sessions, no one was aware of that, and all participants did not explain objectives clearly and those who explained instructions did not really give clear explanations of specific objectives for tasks. In any learning process, communicating objectives is essential. It is not sufficient to set objectives for one's own rather express them correctly and share them with students. So, students must know and understand precisely what is expected from them. Research in the field of education is rich with an explanation, discussions, and criteria on how to set objectives and make them work. All researchers emphasize the importance of following the SMART objectives model. Nowadays, many teachers and educators have shifted their thinking to another model found by Josette le Blanc which is called SMILE. The model is defined in the picture bellow:

- **S**implify - What is the smallest action you can take right now to achieve your goal? This small action will be the goal you focus on now.
- **M**easure - What will you be able to do, see, hear, and/or feel in order to know you have achieved your small goal?
- **I**ntegrate - Make sure this small goal fits into your regular schedule. Can you do this on a normal day?
- **L**ean in & let go - Something may get in your way. Look at it (lean in), so you can adapt your goal or keep going (let it go).
- **E**njoy - Once you have achieved the small goal, enjoy the moment! What would enjoying the moment look like to you?

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From LeBalnc Webinar at iTDi Summer Course. August 2015

The uniqueness of this model that makes it different from the SMART one lies in two aspects. The first is “Lean in and let go” indicating the importance of reflection after articulating objectives. LeBlanc classified the stages into two: objectives creation and actualization and she recommend reflecting, rethinking and revising objectives. The second special aspect is the fact of enjoying the final result of achievement. She invites teachers to enjoy and share that with their students through praise, celebrating or whatever they may do to motivate themselves to work and achieve more. So, here, as teachers, we should not think only about the task but also task accomplishment and enjoyment and how to protect motivation after the task achievement.

5.2.3.2. Task Planning

	Frequency	Percent
Poor	10	66,7
Fair	5	33,3

Table.35. Task Planning

The same argument can be said about this aspect where all participants did not discuss the planning of any task. Tasks were given and prepared in a random way; 66.7% showed the poor perception, while 33.3 % gave general instruction about the task without any reference to task steps or time which is devoted to each step.

5.2.3.3. Task Variation

	Frequency	Percent
Poor	7	46,7
Fair	5	33,3
Good	3	20,0

Table.36. Task Variation

The table shows that only 20% of participants seemed to vary tasks during the one observed session whereas others spent the whole session 1h130 in one activity which is very boring in case the task is not chunked into smaller parts or activities.

5.2.3.4. Skills Integration in Tasks

	Frequency	Percent
Poor	9	60,0
Fair	4	26,7
Good	2	13,3

Table.37. Skills Integration in Tasks

The results indicate that teachers' emphasis is directed only to tasks of speaking whereas receptive skills are neglected. 60% of participants show no integration of other skills whereas 26.7% show little focus on reading some pieces of work associated with speaking activities where the aim was to achieve speaking not reading. Many teachers and students, when asked about Oral Expression, start talking about speaking without any reference to other skills and competencies. In fact, producing language in orally involves a language reservoir which is normally gained from receptive skills that form the basis of the communicative language pyramid.

5.2.3.5. Task Clarity

	Frequency	Percent
Fair	2	13,3
Good	13	86,7

Table.38.Task Clarity

There are five key behaviours which are considered essential for effective teaching. These key behaviours are lesson clarity, instructional variety, teacher task orientation, and engagement in the learning process and student success rate (Borich, 2010; Scheuerman, 2013). As far as task clarity is concerned, 86.7% were positive but not in task planning as mentioned before but about task content.

5.2.3.6. Teacher Task Orientation

	Frequency	Percent
Poor	10	60,0
Fair	4	26,7
Good	2	13,3

Table.39. Teacher Task Orientation

The majority of participants showed poor appraisal of task orientation and did not pay any attention to planning and time management of tasks. That obviously is due to the lack of clear objectives from the beginning of the task or course. Teacher task orientation involves **to the knowledge of planning and delivering instruction and of evaluating learning**. However, without sufficient pedagogical or teaching knowledge, teachers are obliged to teach by instinct and are doomed to trial-and-error approaches. Teacher task orientation is

a behaviour that refers to the classroom time a teacher devotes to teaching an academic subject. Borich (2010:10) states, “The more time allocated to teaching a specific topic, the greater the opportunity students have to learn.” Therefore, it is essential from a teacher to ask him/herself these questions about time devoted for task, questioning, encouraging students to ask, preparing tasks and assessing learners’ performances. Here we always go back to SMART objectives; if smart objectives set at the beginning of each task, all these questions would be answered and problems of planning and time management would be solved.

5.2.3.7. Task Monitoring

	Frequency	Percent
Poor	7	46,7
Fair	3	20,0
Good	3	20,0
Excellent	2	13,3

Table.40. Task Monitoring

As mentioned before, monitoring is one of the metacognitive strategies teachers’ can use to guarantee success or task achievement. Monitoring plays a great role in reducing students’ anxiety and gives the teacher the opportunity to hear how the students are coping with the activity and to make notes about pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar points that are causing difficulty as well as being acquainted with their needs. During observation, only a few of them were controlling and monitoring students and that due to many hindering factors such as the type of the classroom, classroom patterns and the number of students per class. For example, at the branch of English at Mohamed Khider University, a number of students reached 50 to 60 per group where sometimes no space

between tables and there is no way to arrange different sitting patterns or organize group work. Though 66.7% of participants were passive concerning that, they cannot be blamed for because of the status of English class at the Algerian University.

5.2.3.8. Content and Expectations

	Frequency	Percent
Poor	7	46,7
Fair	4	26,7
Good	4	26,7

Table.41. Content and Expectations

In recent years, teachers became very pessimistic about the situation because of varied factors at the Algerian University. Among the main reasons is the number of students oriented to departments of English and their language level. Only 26.7% expressed their expectations clearly whereas the remaining were neutral and confused in which they seemed not sure about students' achievement and worked on the task. Many studies in the literature proved that teachers' expectations influence to high degree students' achievements and school effectiveness but also their expectations are affected by school policy and students' level. Expectations can affect and shape the learning experience very powerfully as well as they result in enhanced performance, even though their measured abilities are equal (Schilling and Schilling in Miller 2001).

Among studies that investigated that issue, a survey study was conducted in China and the study by Zheng Li (2011) who tended to show that teacher's expectations match student success She says "if a teacher held high expectations for one class, they appeared to hold similar expectations for other classes, and the results were the same for

teachers who held low expectations. This shows teacher expectations are pervasive.” Li proved that is good for students who had a high expectation teacher as they were provided with more frequent, challenging and rewarding learning opportunities and and their relationship with their teacher was friendly. Accordingly, students with high expectation teachers were more likely to participate in learning and achieved higher than students with low expectation teachers. Low expectation teachers lacked positive relationships with their students. They just believed the students couldn't achieve well. So, the students do not rely much on their teachers, and they do not show much acceptance of their teachers; rather, they rely more on their peers and classmates.

5.2.3.9. Teachers’ Feedback in Tasks

	Frequency	Percent
Poor	4	26,7
Fair	8	53,3
Good	3	20,0

Table.42. Teachers’ Feedback in Tasks

The results show that only 26, 7% were poor in giving feedback during tasks whereas more than half of the participants showed fair feedback and 20% good one. But during observation or while observing recorded sessions, only three teachers had some interaction with students trying to correct their syntax or pronunciation mistakes. None of the participating teachers explained his/her feedback in a way that motivates the learner currently on the future.

Rydahl defines Oral Feedback as “a method used openly, and with the responsibility to express one’s views with the aim of promoting more appropriate actions in the future, in relation to a goal and vision” (Rydahl 2005: 3-4). Research in the field of education indicates some characteristics and criteria that teachers should use to give feedback. Sadler (2010: 536), emphasizes that feedback should help the students understand more about the learning goal, own achievement status, and ways to bridge the gap between their current status and the desired status. Feedback should, therefore enhance self-regulation. Brookhart (2008: 2) adds some characteristics of feedback are:

- the power of feedback lies in its double-barrelled approach, addressing both cognitive and motivational factors at the same time
- Good feedback contains information that a student can use, which means that the student has to be able to hear and understand it.
- Good feedback should be a part of a classroom assessment environment.

So, for a constructive feedback to take place, teachers should be aware of conditions and strategies which are: choosing feedback strategies (timing, amount, mode, and audience), choosing feedback content (focus, comparison, function, and valence) Here, we will not discuss all these points but only focus on knowing what types of feedback teachers can give and what feedback should be given to students in oral tasks. Hattie and Timperley (2007: 86-87) distinguish four levels of feedback: feedback about the task, feedback about the processing of the task, feedback about self-regulation, and feedback about the self as a person.

5.2.3.10. Classroom Management and Organization

	Frequency	Percent
Poor	4	26,7
Fair	6	40,0
Good	5	33,3

Table.43. Classroom Organization

The majority of classrooms were not organized, and one cannot blame teachers for that because of the number of students per class and the type of classrooms. For instance, classrooms of Biskra University were established for classes of maximum 30 students while now the minimum is 30 to reach even 60 per class. With some classes, it is impossible to arrange group work, round tables or find space to control students during tasks.

5.2.3.11. Time Management

	Frequency	Percent
Fair	4	26,7
Good	10	66,7
Excellent	1	6,7

Table.44. Time Management

As shown in previous tables and discussion, time management, teacher's task orientation and objectives are all related, and the absence of one absolutely would lead to a deficiency in the others. If as said before, objectives are not well elaborated, and decisions are not set in the task planning stage, time management will not take place.

5.2.3.12. Pair and Group Work

	Frequency	Percent
Fair	6	40,0
Good	9	60,0

Table.45. Pair and Group Work

Despite the challenging nature of classrooms and the number of students, the majority of teachers were trying to vary group dynamics and base their tasks on group work and pair work. The atmosphere at the University of Biskra and Constantine were not really motivating and instructions and groups' organization were really a hard job to deal with. In a class of 40 students, it is time and energy consuming if you arrange groups of 4 to 5 students, and it would have no meaning if you divide them into 4 or 5 groups of ten students per group. Thus, there is no compromise to be followed.

5.2.3.13. Discipline of Students

	Frequency	Percent
Fair	3	20,0
Good	7	46,7
Excellent	5	33,3

Table.46. Discipline of Students

The majority of teachers showed a great deal in the discipline of students. All observed teachers' behaviour and attitude towards unexpected and annoying behaviours were positive and intelligent. This indicates that the personal qualities of teachers are positive.

5.2.3.14. Integrating Materials and Technology

	Frequency	Percent
Poor	15	100,0

Table.47. Integrating Materials and Technology

During observed session, no participant used materials though it is known that a variety of materials are used by teachers as a personal effort to provide some materials even time and circumstances are not encouraging them to do so. For a positive classroom environment, learners' needs should be met and to achieve that, researchers discussed the following domains: emotional safety, fun, self- confidence, belonging and freedom (Ridley and Walther, 1995)

Conclusion

Findings from this study provided detailed statistics about teachers' practice in Oral expression. Every domain was discussed with reference to the new research findings in teaching English as a foreign language. Results reveal that the participants had positive attitudes towards the affective side of teaching as well as they possessed many personal attributes that made each one of them a good teacher as a person. However, at the level of some other qualities, such as knowledge, management and monitoring, the study highlighted a sort of deficiency which was due to different factors. In contrast with what was said in literature about teachers' effectiveness which can be measured through learners' outcomes, in this case of this study, the interpretation of results revealed different sorts of problems that intervened in students' success and potential as well as teachers' management and monitoring. Most of those factors are related to either higher education policy or department's policies. To make a compromise, the next chapter, will be devoted to teachers' self-evaluation of their own knowledge and practices.

Chapter Six

Teacher's Self-Evaluation Checklist

Introduction

Teacher self-assessment and evaluation allow teachers to make improvement plans in their performance. The more teachers improve, the more their students benefit. The Teacher's self-evaluation checklist is based on Stronge's framework of qualities of effective/good teachers. It deals with teachers' qualities which are classified into sub-qualities and each sub quality is divided into quality indicators which are the strategies teachers use during teaching. Teachers' self-evaluation is given paramount importance in order to determine teachers' awareness of their own practices. It covers teachers' personal and professional qualities, classroom organization and management, implementing instruction and monitoring students' success and potential.

6.1. Teachers' Personal and Professional Qualities

This section is devoted to two main qualities which are personal qualities (including teachers' caring, respect, interaction, communication and motivation) and professional qualities that focus on the teachers' development (including team teaching, dedication to teaching, continuing to learn about teaching and reflecting)

6.1.1. Teachers' Caring

Caring	Mean	Std. Deviation	%		
			Never	Rarely	Often
I exhibit active listening	2.37	.85	23.3	16.7	60
I show concern for students' emotional and physical well-being	2.53	.77	16.7	33.3	70
I display interest in students' lives outside university	2.03	.80	30	36.7	33.3
I create a supportive and warm classroom climate	2.70	.70	13.3	3.3	83.3

Table.48. Teachers' Caring

The results show, on this table, that much importance is given to creating a supportive atmosphere with a mean of 2.70 which determines the concern for students' emotional and physical well-being but less emphasis on active listening and interest in students' lives; this was also noticed during classroom observation (see Chapter 5, section 5.2.2.). It is undeniable that large classes in the Algerian universities require much workload from the teachers who may not be able to show caring to every individual and go beyond the classroom only in rare situations represented in 33.3% here.

6.1.2. Teachers' Fairness and Equal Opportunities

Fairness and Equal Opportunities	Mean	Std. Deviation	%		
			Never	Rarely	Often
I respond to misbehaviour on an individual level	2.33	.71	13.3	40	46.7
I prevent situations in which a student loses peer	2.33	.71	13.3	40	46.7

respect					
I treat students equally	2.67	.76	16.7	00	83.3
I create situations for all students to succeed	2.67	.71	13.3	6.7	80
I show respect to all students	2.70	.70	13.3	3.3	83.3
I check that I am not treating learners differently in sessions or tasks	2.53	.78	16.7	13.3	70
I make effort to pronounce the names of my students	2.53	.78	16.7	13.3	70
I do not use jokes or anecdotes which could be interpreted as oppressive to any group	2.37	.89	26.7	10	63.3
I seek feedback from learners to probe any feelings they have regarding being treated unequally in any respect	2.27	.91	30	13.3	56.7
I do not relate grading to personal behaviour or conflicts with students	2.30	.88	26.7	16.7	56.7

Table.49. Teachers' Fairness and Respect

The aspect of teachers' fairness is hard to be measure though some indicators might be useful to give an idea about it. It is noticed in the table that much importance is given to showing respect to all students and creating situations for all of them to learn and succeed. Less importance is shown to responding to misbehaviour individually and preventing situations where students may lose peer-respect (never 13.33, and rarely 40%).

6.1.3. Teachers' Interaction and Communication

Teachers' Interaction and Communication	Mean	Std. Deviation	%		
			Never	Rarely	Often
I maintain professional role while being friendly	2.57	.73	13.3	16.7	70
I give students responsibility	2.37	.72	13.3	36.7	50
I know students' interests both in and out of university	2.10	.71	20	50	30
I value what students say	2.60	.72	13.3	13.3	73.3
I interact in a fun, playful manner; jokes when appropriate	2.53	.78	16.7	13.3	70
I ensure that learners are aware of the times and places of which I am available for individual consultation	2.40	.81	20	20	60
I reply quickly to their request when I receive messages from learners (in paper or email)	2.13	.94	36.7	13.3	50
I encourage learners to use emails to interact with me directly	1.90	.99	53.3	3.3	43.3

Table.50. Teachers' Interaction and Communication

The results shown on table reveal focus on some factors at the expense of others. Participants gave more roles to valuing what students say and being friendly with them while maintaining professional roles. Some more interaction enhancing factors are little neglected here such as responding to students' requests immediately and encouraging learners to use emails to interact directly with them to avoid problems when their availability is difficult to ensure. Another means of interaction is giving students

responsibility in sharing class work and decisions which can promote their motivation and competition. This aspect of responsibility as a self- esteem is not given much importance; 13.33% said never, and 36.7 % said rarely.

6.1.4. Teachers' Motivation and Enthusiasm

Teachers' Motivation and Enthusiasm	Mean	Std. Deviation	%		
			Never	Rarely	Often
I maintain high quality work	2.43	.86	23.3	10	66.7
I return students' work in a timely manner	2.37	.76	16.7	30	53.3
I provide students with meaningful feedback	2.43	.90	26.7	3.3	70
I show joy for the content material	2.57	.77	16.7	10	73.3
I take pleasure in teaching	2.63	.76	16.7	3.3	80
I demonstrate involvement in learning activities outside the classroom	1.97	.67	23.3	56.7	20

Table.51. Teachers' Motivation and Enthusiasm

Without teachers' motivation, it is believed that nothing would be motivating, and no one could be motivated. Teachers' perceptions and beliefs about their own motivation are very important in shaping their decisions and practice as well as in influencing their students' motivation and perceptions. Students do not need only teachers who are friendly and caring but much more teachers who are professional in doing their job. Motivation can be demonstrated in work quality, time management, meaningful feedback and showing involvement and enjoyment in teaching. Least emphasis is given here to demonstrating involvement in learning activities outside the classroom which is sometimes more motivating than classroom work which is very limited in purpose, time, and result; 23.33%

replied with never and 56.7 with rarely. As far as feedback is concerned, about half of the participants (50.3 %) declared that they do not return students' work in a timely manner which may reduce the quality and the value of the work and assignments given.

6.1.5. Teachers' Dedication to Teaching and Reflection

Teachers' Dedication to teaching and Reflection	Mean	Std. Deviation	%		
			Never	Rarely	Often
I possess a positive attitude toward life and teaching	2.60	.77	16.7	6.7	76.7
I spend time outside university to prepare	2.30	.84	23.3	23.3	53.3
I participate in university activities	1.83	.83	43.3	30	26.7
I accept responsibility for student outcomes	2.27	.78	20	33.3	46.7
I seek professional development	2.40	.89	26.7	6.7	66.7
I find, implement and share new instructional strategies	2.30	.79	20	30	50
I know areas of personal strengths and weaknesses	2.33	.76	16.7	33.3	50
I use reflection to improve teaching	2.40	.86	23.3	13.3	63.3
I set high expectations for personal classroom performance	2.33	.80	20	26.7	53.3
I demonstrate high efficacy	2.33	.84	23.3	20	56.7

Table.52. Teachers' Dedication to Teaching and Reflection

It can be noticed, from participants' answers, that there is a sort of contradiction between “a focus on professional development and using reflections to improve teaching” and “less

emphasis on the components of both of them like finding and implementing new instructional strategies, preparation and participating in university activities”. For instance, more than 50% declared that they either never (20%) accept the responsibility or they rarely (33.3%) do so.

6.1.6. Team Teaching

Team Teaching activities	Mean	Std. Deviation	%		
			Never	Rarely	Often
I co-produce teaching and learning materials as much as possible to produce co-ownership of materials	1.90	.84	40	30	30
I organize team sessions to exchange ideas, responsibilities and get support	1.90	.88	43.3	23.3	33.3
I keep each other informed of what we are doing and how it is going	2.10	.88	33.3	23.3	43.3
I am punctual when attending meetings and ensure that I have prepared properly for them	2.37	.89	26.7	10	63.3
I keep my colleagues briefed about what I am currently working on	2.20	.81	23.3	33.3	43.3
I make available to colleagues my teaching materials, including handouts, exercises, and online data	2.33	.84	23.3	20	56.7
I provide an environment in which new colleagues felt supported and welcomed and made it easy for them to ask questions	2.67	.71	13.3	6.7	80
I provide written briefings on key issues for new colleagues covering both formal and informal matters	1.83	.83	43.3	30	26.7
I encourage and invite them to attend my session	1.97	.76	30	43.3	26.7
I attend all the meetings and make reports to be aware of every new issue	2.13	.94	36.7	13.3	50

I maintain a professional stance when others are being petty, bureaucratic or conflicting	2.43	.77	16.7	23.3	60
I have appropriate strategies which enable me to handle other people's unprofessional behaviour such as temper tantrums, personal aggression	2.23	.86	26.7	23.3	50
I manage to avoid temptation to use improper channels such as gossiping, bitchiness when faced with difficult colleagues	2.43	.86	23.3	10	66.7
I endeavour to perceive difficulties in terms of actions or situations rather than in terms of people	2.57	.77	16.7	10	73.3
I try to find out the circumstances which may lead to people behaving in a difficult way and to understand their point of view even when I cannot agree with it	2.60	.62	6.7	26.7	66.7
I distinguish carefully between conflicts of ideas and conflicts of personality	2.73	.58	6.7	13.3	80
I value others' opinions and respect their right to hold them even when diametrically opposed to my own views	2.73	.64	10	6.7	83.3

Table.53. Team Teaching

In this section, team teaching is classified into three main domains. The first domain is collaboration and working together where teachers exchange materials, feedback and knowledge through regular meetings and fixed calendar. The second domain is monitoring and mentoring new colleagues; taking that responsibility is not always welcomed in the Algerian community but as teachers and professionals we are supposed to seek friendly discussions and feedback. The third domain is being an active participation in meetings; here, teachers should not attend for the sake of attendance because of administrative constraints, but they should attend to discuss students' problems, department policy and

suggest solutions to some issues raised by students and colleagues. At the first level, participants showed negative responses toward co-production of materials to produce co-ownership in which 40% said never and 30 % replied by rarely which implicates that there is a great lack of teamwork and teachers collaboration. Organizing team sessions to exchange ideas, responsibilities and getting support is also given much importance where it is one of the keys to successful professional development where teachers can think, check and reflect on what they are doing in the process (43% never, 23.3% rarely).

Concerning the second level, the two main motivating factors for a new colleague are negatively dealt with; here, participants confirm they do not provide written briefings on key issues covering formal and informal matters to guide them. Moreover, they did not give much importance to the way they should mentor new colleagues. This is not yet part of the Algerian university system where there is no peer observation, team teaching or inviting new colleagues to attend sessions; mentoring is sometimes only through sharing the syllabus. At the third level, teachers should know how to manage others temper, attitudes and know how to deal with them; they should also be active participants. To these aspects, 50% said they do not have appropriate strategies that enable them to handle other people's unprofessional behaviour such as temper tantrums which is very common in the Algerian society. Besides, about 50% also confirmed that they never or rarely manage to avoid temptation when dealing with difficult colleagues. Contrary to what has been said before, participants show positive attitudes, with 80% and 83.3%, respectively choosing 'often' toward creating a supporting atmosphere for new colleagues, valuing others' opinions and distinguishing between ideas conflicts and personality ones.

6.1.7. Continuing to Learn about Learning

Continuing to Learn	Mean	Std. Deviation	%		
			Never	Rarely	Often
I keep myself up to date with new developments in teaching and learning	2.40	.81	20	20	60
I regularly read articles, papers, and books about the processes and practices of teaching and learning in higher education	2.20	.76	20	40	40
I belong to a professional network for the development of teaching and learning in my subject area	1.53	.78	63.3	20	16.7
I attend conferences and staff development workshops about teaching, learning, and assessment	1.93	.83	36.7	33.3	30
I contribute actively to conferences and workshops about teaching and learning	1.63	.81	56.7	23.3	20
I write articles for publication in my area	1.47	.73	66.7	20	13.3
I actively follow the published research literature in at least one of the disciplines I teach regularly	1.93	.83	36.7	33.3	30
I contribute to the design of the curriculum for those subjects where I have detailed insight to update the curriculum	1.87	.94	50	13.3	36.7
I share my knowledge and activities with my learners to raise their awareness	2.43	.73	13.3	30	56.7

I attend sessions of teachers in the English speaking countries to know new techniques and materials	1.23	.57	83.3	10	6.7
I contact professionals and experts in my area of interest to get more experience and insight	1.93	.83	36.7	33.3	30

Table.54. Continuing to Learn about Learning

Continuing to learn is a necessary personal and professional quality which is very crucial to achieve because of different either personal or institutional factors. Most teachers try to work to achieve that quality by following new findings in the field through reading and researching; however, this is not sufficient for one's self-development and change. Theoretical knowledge is sometimes far away from practice and sometimes cannot be understood out of its real context. Thus, to maintain one's professional development and continue to learn, we need reading, belonging to professional networks, attending research and academic events and being in contact with professionals in the field. However, the participants responded negatively to all these aspects: 83% never had chance to attend a native speaker's session or class; 63% do not belong to any network or association; 56.7% never contributed in teaching/ learning events; 66.7% never wrote about teaching and learning which is necessary for research and development; and, 50% of them also never contributed to curriculum and syllabus design. The only domain in which they responded positively is sharing knowledge with their learners, which is essential to discuss and evaluate one's own understanding and practice.

6.2. Classroom Management and Organization

This section covers all quality indicators related to classroom management, organization, time allocation, discipline of students, expectations, lesson plans task orientation and clarity.

6.2.1. Management and Organization

Management and Organization	Mean	Std. Deviation	%		
			Never	Rarely	Often
I use consistent and proactive discipline	2.40	.77	16.7	26.7	56.7
I establish routines for all daily tasks and needs	2.07	.83	30	33.3	36.7
I orchestrate smooth transitions and continuity of classroom momentum	2.20	.85	26.7	26.7	46.7
I balance variety and challenge in students' activities	2.53	.78	16.7	13.3	70
I am aware of all activities in the classroom	2.73	.69	13.3	00	86.7
I anticipate potential problems	2.33	.76	16.7	13.3	50
I use space, proximity or movement around the classroom for nearness to trouble spots and to encourage attention	2.50	.82	20	10	70
I handle routine tasks promptly, efficiently and consistently	2.27	.87	26.7	20	53.3
I prepare materials in advance and has them ready to use	2.53	.78	16.7	13.3	70
I organize classroom space efficiently	2.30	.84	23.3	23.3	53.3

Table.55. Management and Organization

It is taken for granted that many classroom management components in the Algerian university are not at the hand of the teacher. For instance, with small space classrooms and groups / classes of 45 to 60 students, classroom management and organisation is a challenging task to be achieved. At Biskra University, for example, students have classes of language where there is no space in the classroom for teachers' control, teachers' contact with students or varied group dynamics. An example of that is when I teach study skills in classes of 45 to 50 students; I choose activities that fit large classes, but the type of space does not allow us to manage things. Moreover, the large number makes the task time consuming because sometimes task instructions should be explained to every group in isolation. More challenging endeavour in these conditions is that control, evaluation, and feedback would be very hard to accomplish.

In this question, participants responded positively to what is under their control like activities and materials; however, they did not answer what concerns classroom atmosphere, discipline, and problems. Answers lead to the conclusion that teachers are good at controlling what they do, but there are things which are out of their ability and control like department policy issues: space, the number of students, type of the classroom, sitting patterns and materials. The types of classrooms at Biskra University, for instance, are not appropriate at all for group work or workshops.

6.2.2. Discipline of Students

Discipline of Students	Mean	Std. Deviation	%		
			Never	Rarely	Often
I interpret and respond to inappropriate behaviour promptly	2.50	.78	16.7	16.7	66.7
I implement rules for behaviour fairly and	2.50	.78	16.7	16.7	66.7

consistently					
I reinforce and reiterate expectations for positive behaviour	2.50	.78	16.7	16.7	66.7
I use appropriate disciplinary measures	2.43	.77	16.7	23.3	60

Table.56. Discipline of Students

In this table, it seems that all indicators are given same value (2.50) as a mean, and 66.7% said often. Usually, discipline is not a problem because teachers follow university rules and norms and in most of the cases, they solve problems peacefully unless it is harming. 16.7% said never, and the same number said rarely, what was not expected as an answer from a teacher. The answers might be because many of them are part-time teachers, so they do not bother themselves thinking about such problems and in most of the cases, they forward them to the head of the department.

6.2.3. Importance of Instruction

Importance of Instruction	Mean	Std. Deviation	%		
			Never	Rarely	Often
I focus classroom time on teaching and learning	2.63	.76	16.7	3.3	80
I link instruction to students real life situations	2.53	.77	16.7	13.3	70

Table.57. Importance of Instruction

The problem at the level of the Algerian university is the lack of providing a detailed syllabus with objectives, focus, time management, and materials. So, for the majority of teachers, the most important task is to cover the syllabus, not the way or how to achieve that goal. The results show that 16.7 % said they never focus classroom time on teaching

and learning; 16.7 % declared they never link instruction into students' real life situations, and 13.3 % said rarely.

These results provide the answer to the question why some students graduate while they cannot even hold a simple conversation or describe fluently simple daily life situations. For many teachers, the Oral Expression module is easy because they consider it as discussion activities where students are asked to discuss sophisticated issues such as politics, arts and sciences while they neglect the basic elements of communicative competence, grammatical competence including vocabulary, pronunciation and syntax, and strategic competence involving communication strategies either to compensate or avoid in case of communication problems.

6.2.4. Time Allocation

Time Allocation	Mean	Std. Deviation	%		
			Never	Rarely	Often
I follow a consistent schedule and maintains procedures and routines	2.40	.77	16.7	26.7	56.7
I handle administrative tasks quickly and efficiently	2.40	.81	20	20	60
I prepare materials in advance	2.60	.77	16.7	6.7	76.7
I maintain momentum within and across lessons	2.23	.77	20	36.7	43.3
I limit disruptions and interruptions	2.33	.80	20	26.7	53.3

Table.58. Time Allocation

In higher education teaching, the focus should not be only on knowledge but also on pedagogy which is more important than the content itself in terms of students' motivation, autonomy and outcomes. In this respect, the components of time management and distribution in a lesson plan should be decided and respected from the beginning.

The first surprising response, as shown on the table above, was that 16.7% said they never follow a consistent schedule and 26.7% said they “rarely” do so. Moreover, more than 20% declared that they do not prepare materials in advance while the module or Oral Expression is most challenging and demanding in terms of preparation because it involves integrating skills and varying activities. More than half of participants did not use momentum within and across lessons which may cause boredom and de-motivation.

6.2.5. Teachers' Expectations

Teachers' Expectations	Mean	Std. Deviation	%		
			Never	Rarely	Often
I set clearly articulated high expectations for self and students	2.53	.78	16.7	13.3	70
I orient the classroom experience toward improvement and growth	2.53	.82	20	6.7	73.3
I stress student responsibility and accountability	2.60	.77	16.7	6.7	76.7

Table.59. Teachers' Expectations

Teachers' expectation is proved to play a great role in learners' outcomes (see Chapter 5, Section 5.2.3.8- observation analysis). Here, it seems that answers have the same value and tendency, but there are some unexpected ones. For example, 16.7% never set clearly high

expectations, 20% never orient the classroom experience toward improvement and growth, and 16.7% said they never stress students' responsibility and accountability. These results show how abnormal and contradictory can be the aim of a few EFL teachers who are supposed to enhance learners' proficiency development.

6.2.6. Instructional Plans

Planning Lessons	Mean	Std. Deviation	%		
			Never	Rarely	Often
I carefully link learning objectives and activities	2.57	.77	16.7	10	73.3
I organize content for effective presentation	2.67	.71	13.3	6.7	80
I explore student understanding by asking questions	2.67	.71	13.3	6.7	80
I consider students attention span and learning styles when designing lessons	2.47	.73	13.3	26.7	60

Table.60. Instructional Plans

It can be noticed here that more importance is given to content and final step of the process which is students' understanding rather than carefully designing the lesson plan and writing objectives. Considering students' needs and levels with caring about their attention span is given the least importance. Furthermore, 16.7 % said they never link objectives and activities, 13.3% said they never organize content for effective presentation, never explore students' understanding as well as never consider students' attention span and learning styles. So for this small group of participants, they neither consider the lesson plan structure nor the content which implies that the stage of planning and management is

totally neglected. Despite the limited scale of percentage, this result shows a huge gap that exists between teachers' practice and teacher requirements to fit the new demands and constraints of language learning and teaching.

6.2.7. Clarity

Clarity	Mean	Std. Deviation	%		
			Never	Rarely	Often
I inform learners of lesson objectives like describing what behaviours will be tested or required on future assignments as a result of the lesson	2.37	.72	13.3	36.7	50
I provide learners with an advance organizer such as placing lesson in perspective of past and or future lessons	2.30	.79	20	30	50
I check for task relevant prior learning at the beginning of the lesson, e.g. determines level of understanding of prerequisite facts or concepts and teach if necessary	2.10	.88	33.3	23.3	43.3
I give directives slowly and distinctly like repeating directives when needed and dividing them into smaller pieces	2.37	.85	23.3	16.7	60
I know ability levels and teach at, or slightly above, learners' current level of understanding	2.43	.77	16.7	23.3	60
I use examples, illustrations and demonstrations to explain and clarify like using visuals to help	2.43	.82	20	16.7	63.3

interpret and reinforce main points					
I provide review or summary at the end of each lesson	2.30	.84	23.3	23.3	50

Table.61. Clarity

Clarity is interrelated with objectives, lesson plans, and time management; so, any problem in one of these will affect the others in one way or other. As a major characteristic of lesson plans, if clarity is neglected there must be a negative attitude toward it. However, there might be some positive responses related to task or activities clarity. Concerning clarity indicators, participants showed more interest in knowing students' level of ability and trying to clarify using exemplification and visuals. However, 33.3% declared they never check task relevant prior learning at beginning, 23.3% showed they never give instructions slowly; never provide review or summary at the end of a lesson, 20% never provide students with advance organizers, 20% also never use examples and illustrations. For all items, the percentage of "Rarely" is between 16.7% and 36.7% which are valid scales to determine the level of clarity. For example, 36.7% said rarely, and 13.3% said "never" when asked about informing students of lesson objectives like 'describing behaviours and what is supposed to be achieved to make students aware of what is going on', 'how it is going to be achieved and measured', and 'the time needed for that'.

6.2.8. Teacher Task Orientation

Teacher Task Orientation	Mean	Std. Deviation	%		
			Never	Rarely	Often
I develop unit and lesson plans that reflect the most relevant features of the curriculum guide or	2.30	.79	20	30	50

adapted text					
I handle administrative and other interruptions efficiently like visitors, announcements, or exams by anticipating and pre-organizing some tasks and deferring others to not -instructional time	1.63	.81	56.7	23.3	20
I stop or prevent misbehaviour with a minimum of class disruption	2.47	.78	16.7	20	63.3
I select the most appropriate instructional model for the objectives being taught like using direct instruction for knowledge and comprehension objectives and indirect instruction for inquiry and problem-solving objectives	2.30	.79	20	30	50
I build to unit outcomes with clearly definable events as in a form of a weekly or monthly review, feedback and testing sessions	1.93	.74	30	46.7	23.3

Table.62. Teacher Task Orientation

Teacher task orientation is a key behaviour that refers to “how much time the teacher devotes to the task of teaching or doing any other activity”. The more time is dedicated to the task of teaching a specific topic, the greater is the opportunity students may have to learn. According to the results on table 59 above, it is noticed that more focus is put on ‘stopping misbehaviour and avoiding class disruption’, then on ‘developing relevant lesson plans and units and choosing the appropriate model that fits lesson objectives’. Less importance is given to ‘handling other extra interruptions and organizing a schedule for reviewing, evaluation and feedback’ which is very important in any teacher’s work.

Though for the stressed elements, 20% said they never do, and 56.7% said they never handle extra work, task, and visitors which are a necessary part of the study process. An oriented teacher is believed to manage time and knows how to prepare students for exams, for administrative circumstances by making up sessions, making the exams fit the content, and the content fits the exams. Moreover, 30% declared they never manage sessions for feedback or evaluation.

6.3. Implementing Instruction

In this section, we intended to introduce teachers' real practice in Oral Expression teaching. It covers instructional strategies, content, plans, complexity, questioning and setting independent study tasks

6.3.1. Instructional Strategies

Instructional Strategies	Mean	Std. Deviation	%		
			Never	Rarely	Often
I employ different techniques and instructional strategies such as hands-on learning	2.30	.84	23.3	23.3	53.3
I stress meaningful conceptualization , emphasizing the students' own knowledge of the world	2.27	.83	23.3	26.7	50
I suit instruction to students' achievement levels and needs	2.53	.82	20	6.7	73.3
I use a variety of grouping strategies	2.30	.79	20	30	50

Table.63. Instructional Strategies

After having discussed the pre-task stage and some psychological factors then planning and management; now, it is time to discuss some issues related to cognition (during task process). Before describing the “what”, a transition should be made from the mentioned elements to the process by discussing the “how” to do. In fact, everything mentioned in the learning process is a strategy (if we go back to the definition of learning strategies) but by the word strategy here we mean the general tendency of a task or a lesson. Strategies mentioned here are some principles of a communicative task which are different techniques like “hand on learning” which means “learning by doing,” stressing conceptualization (simplifying), suiting instruction to students’ needs and level and finally group dynamics. In implementing instruction, logically, all these strategies should be given same value and interest. However, this table shows a little difference on the subject.

The results show that more importance is given to making the tasks fit students’ level and need (73.3% said often) which reveals much awareness about learners’ centred instruction; the latter is focused on learners’ need, interests and level of ability; this may be considered as a very positive point if supported by other components of the teaching process. Nevertheless, there are some negative attitudes; 23.3% said they never employ different techniques and never stress meaningful conceptualizations while 20% declared they never suit instruction to students’ needs and level of achievement and never vary grouping strategies.

6.3.2. Content

Content	Mean	Std. Deviation	%		
			Never	Rarely	Often
I set overall high expectations for improvement and growth in the classroom	2.33	.84	23.3	20	56.7

I give clear examples and offer guided practice	2.60	.72	13.3	13.3	73.3
I stress students' responsibility and accountability in meeting expectations	2.60	.77	16.7	6.7	76.7
I teach metacognitive strategies to support reflection on learning progress	2.20	.76	20	40	40

Table.64. Content

Content is represented in expectations, examples, students' responsibility and metacognitive strategies. The latter is given less importance (2.20) as mean where many people think that learning strategies should not be considered as a part of the content. Metacognitive strategies have to be involved in any activity or subject to make students able to plan, manage and evaluate their own learning. On the one hand, 20% said they never teach metacognitive strategies, and 40% said they "rarely" do so. Setting overall high expectations did not also receive great importance as 23.3 % said they 'never' and 20% said they 'rarely' perform it. On the other hand, higher and almost same value is given to 'giving clear examples and guided practice' and 'stressing students' responsibility in meeting expectations'. It is remarkable here that there is a sort of contradiction where high expectations are neglected and students' responsibility to meet expectations is focused on; in fact if we want students to be responsible, we need to set high expectation. Thus, what is obvious here is achieve low results because most of participants are unmotivated, and they do not expect high achievements and outcomes from their students. It is also well stated that participants focus on the process of "in task" more that preparing for it or its conditions (pre-task) and that was evident in answers to all questions not only this one.

6.3.3. Complexity

Complexity	Mean	Std. Deviation	%		
			Never	Rarely	Often
I am concerned with having students learn and demonstrate understanding of meaning rather than memorization	2.33	.84	23.3	20	56.7
I hold reading as a priority	2.47	.73	13.3	26.7	60
I emphasize higher order thinking skills in learning	2.33	.80	20	26.7	53.3

Table.65. Complexity

Here, Complexity is determined according to three major criteria: students' understanding, prioritizing reading, and enhancing higher order thinking skills in learning. Approximately, all indicators are given same value; only, 'reading' gets much emphasis as a good sign of awareness in dealing with tasks and subject complexity. However, 13.3% said they never hold reading as a priority, and 26.7% said they rarely do so. As far as the other two indicators are concerned, 23.3% said they are 'never' concerned with checking learners' understanding, and 20% add "rarely"; altogether, these results are too negative for a teacher who is supposed to teach towards communication. Similarly for 'higher order thinking', about half of the participants responded negatively either never 20% or rarely 26.7%.

6.3.4. Questioning

Questioning	Mean	Std. Deviation	%		
			Never	Rarely	Often
I ask questions that reflect the type of content	2.30	.88	26.7	16.7	56.7

and the objectives of the lesson					
I vary question type to maintain interest and momentum	2.53	.78	16.7	13.3	70
I prepare questions in advance	2.37	.81	20	23.3	56.7
I use wait time during questioning	2.47	.82	20	13.3	66.7
I vary instructional strategies , types of assignments and activities	2.40	.81	20	20	60
I lead, direct and pace students' activities	2.60	.77	16.7	6.7	76.7

Table.66. Questioning

Questioning is related to reviewing understanding, giving feedback, checking understanding and students' evaluation. It should not be random but well prepared in terms of objectives, clarity, and time. The table shows that much focus is given to leading, directing and pacing activities then varying questions types to maintain interest and varying types of assignments. What is noticed on this table is that despite the close value given to all items, still there are confusing responses such as 26.7 % saying they never ask questions that reflect the type of content and objectives; so one may ask what kind of questions were asked? 20% declared they never prepare questions in advance, never use wait time during questioning and never vary instructional strategies and types of assignments and activities, and 16.7% responded with never varying question types, nor they lead and direct activities.

6.3.5. Setting Independent Study Tasks

Setting Independent Study Tasks	Mean	Std. Deviation	%		
			Never	Rarely	Often
I make it clear to learners how much time they should reasonably spend on my subject outside class contact hours	2.30	.84	23.3	23.3	53.3
I give clear links between independent study tasks I set and the intended learning objectives	2.33	.84	23.3	20	56.7
I give instructions for the task in writing	2.10	.80	26.7	36.7	36.7
I clarify how much each assignment will count in the overall scheme of assessed work	2.23	.86	26.7	23.3	50
I ensure that learners get feedback for the task rapidly and regularly	2.40	.81	20	20	60

Table.67. Setting Independent Study Tasks

Independent study tasks are meant to enhance students' autonomy and involvement. Though they are independent, they also need to be controlled and guided. The table shows that much importance is put on rapid and regular feedback though 40% said either they never or rarely ensure that. The second role went to objectives and making a link with tasks, though, 53% responded they never or rarely do so. Then, time management outside class gets 53.3% saying often and the remaining either said never or rarely (23.3%, and 23.3% respectively). Only 50% declared they often explain how much each assignment will count in the overall scheme of assessed work.

The least mentioned indicator is giving instructions of tasks in writing; only 36.7% answered with often which is a serious problem in this case where classes are large and multilevel; so, in most of the cases students do not even understand task sequence or task

aim and they remain confused till they submit something which is totally far from the requirement, or they do not do it at all claiming they have not understood the task.

6.3.6. Lesson plans

Lesson plans	Mean	Std. Deviation	%		
			Never	Rarely	Often
I already prepare my lesson plans for oral expression module	2.47	.82	20	13.3	66.7
I use attention- gaining devices like beginning with a challenging question or visuals or example	2.50	.86	23.3	3.3	73.3
I show enthusiasm and animation through variation in eye contact, voice and gestures like changing pitch and volume and moving about during transitions to a new activity	2.43	.82	20	16.7	63.3
I vary mode of presentation	2.57	.77	16.7	10	73.3
I use a mix of rewards and reinforces like extra credit, verbal praise and independent study weekly or monthly	2.40	.77	16.7	26.7	56.7
I incorporate students' ideas or participation in some aspects of the instruction like using indirect instruction or divergent questioning	2.37	.85	23.3	16.7	60
I use variety of types of questions divergent, convergent and probes to clarify, to solicit and to redirect	2.40	.77	16.7	26.7	56.7

I use attention- gaining devices like beginning with a challenging question or visuals or example	2.37	.89	26.7	10	63.3
I design oral tasks that are based only on speaking	2.40	.86	23.3	13.3	63.3
I design oral tasks that are based on listening and speaking	2.37	.85	23.3	16.7	60
I design tasks integrating the four skills	2.17	.87	30	23.3	46.7
I rely more on whole group discussion	2.53	.73	13.3	20	66.7
I rely most on projects on oral presentation prepared by students	2.20	.76	20	40	40

Table.68. Lesson plans

Lesson plans are the pillars of any course; well- designed lesson plans can determine types of tasks, task sequence, time needed for each step and materials that might be used within the task. It is clear here that all big numbers went to “often” on the scale ranging from 63.3% to 73.3% though there is a great deal of neglect with ‘never’ and ‘rarely’. Much importance is given to varying mode of presentation which was not available at all in classroom observation conducted with some of the participants. Then, stress is put on attention-gaining devices. Less importance is given to preparing lesson plans which are normally the starting point of any course process. 20% declared they never prepare lesson plans, 13.3% said “rarely” which confirms the lack of knowledge about pedagogy discussed in many previous items. 36.7% responded passively to showing enthusiasm and using paralinguistic features of language which is very important to make the transition from one step of a task to another as well as it helps to maintain interaction and reduce task

boredom and monotony. Using paralinguistic features are also essential as strategies to compensate in case of communication problems and difficulty.

6.3.7. Helping Students to Value Group Work

Helping Students to Value Group Work	Mean	Std. Deviation	%		
			Never	Rarely	Often
I demonstrate to learners the benefits of group work	2.43	.82	20	16.7	63.3
I help learners work in groups to feel a sense of ownership of the operation of the group and talk to them about my personal experience with group work	2.40	.81	20	20	60
I ensure that the criteria for assessment are clear, explicit and understood by everyone	2.50	.78	16.7	16.7	66.7
I provide opportunity for learners to formulate the criteria which they will later use in peer assessment	2.10	.84	30	30	40
I demonstrate to learners the value of peer assessing as a deep learning device	2.13	.82	26.7	33.3	40
I give learners practice at devising assessment criteria	2.00	.79	30	40	30
I use peer assessment in a variety of tasks	2.10	.80	26.7	36.7	36.7
I give students samples of rubrics to assess speaking performance	2.10	.80	26.7	36.7	36.7

I count peer assessment in the overall assessment of learners during the whole semester	2.03	.85	33.3	30	36.7
I count individual performances and effort not the final product of the task or group work	2.43	.86	23.3	10	66.7

Table.69. Helping Students to Value Group Work

Concerning group work, teachers should not only manage groups but also helps students and train them to value it and use it even in independent study tasks. The table shows that participants emphasized ensuring students' understanding of assessment criteria (with 2.50 as mean) and counting individual performances and efforts rather than the final product of the task or the group work. Then, they stressed demonstrating the benefits of group work though there are more than 20% who answered with the opposite. However, many indicators are neglected such as giving learners practice to devise assessment criteria which are highly motivating to enhance learners' motivation, confidence and self-esteem. Students also, by doing that may feel less anxious and comfortable with the assessment criteria. Using peer assessment in different tasks is not also given much importance. Participants also did not show interest in giving students samples of rubrics to assess speaking performances; as teachers, we are not only requested to use them but to know and show students how to use them, how to assess and set criteria in sample rubrics to be fair enough and that would motivate them to like group work and make them more active and involved.

6.3.8. Preparing Materials

Preparing Materials	Mean	Std. Deviation	%		
			Never	Rarely	Often
I use handouts to support my lessons	2.43	.77	16.7	23.3	60

I use the data show	1.60	.77	56.7	26.7	16.7
I use the language laboratory	1.57	.73	56.7	30	13.3
I use the online data and conferences	1.23	.57	83.3	10	6.7
I use TV shows	1.50	.78	66.7	16.7	16.7
I use radio programs	1.30	.65	80	10	10
I use posters and maps	1.47	.73	66.7	20	13.3
I tell my students about how to use library of the university	1.77	.77	43.3	36.7	20
I give students references that suit their needs and levels	2.07	.91	36.7	20	43.3
I discuss with students the way they are supposed to follow when dealing with websites and which ones are more reliable for research and study (educational software)	2.03	.89	36.7	23.3	40
I give my students my personal email in case they need any help	1.90	.88	43.3	23.3	33.3
I help students create research papers and projects in a form of Google document using Gmail	1.67	.84	56.7	20	23.3
I created a personal website or blog to be a space for my students to interact with me and with each other.	1.33	.66	76.7	13.3	10

Table.70. Preparing Materials

On this table, within 13 indicators, only 3 received a good mean. They are: using handouts, giving references and discussing websites and software reliability and validity.

However, 83% declared they never use online data, 80% said they never use radio programs, 76.7% said they never created a website or blog, 66.7% said they never use posters and maps, 56.7% showed they never use data show, never use language laboratory or TV shows, never help learners to create projects or papers in a form of Google documents using Gmails. It is known that learners in Algeria do not have contact with English-speaking community; so, these materials are the only opportunity to get learners in touch with the L2 community and authenticity. Oral expression module needs much care, varying tasks and materials to encourage and maintain interaction. Many participants claimed that time is not sufficient, and the number of students does not allow them, but here we notice that some of the mentioned materials do not require much time and teachers' control. If teachers are not able to integrate technology in the classroom, they should take the initiative to manage it in order to engage the learners in independent study tasks.

6.3.9. Engaging Students

Engaging Students	Mean	Std. Deviation	%		
			Never	Rarely	Often
I elicit the desired behaviour immediately after the instructional stimuli like providing exercises or workbook problems with which desired behaviour can be practiced	1.70	.84	53.3	23.3	23.3
I provide opportunities for feedback in non-evaluative atmosphere like asking students to respond as a group or covertly the first time through	1.97	.81	33.3	36.7	30
I use individual or group activities like performance	2.17	.87	30	23.3	46.7

contacts, CDs games, and simulations and learning centres as motivational aids when needs					
I use meaningful verbal praise to get and keep students actively practicing in the learning process	2.27	.91	30	13.3	56.7
I monitor seatwork and frequently checks progress during independent practice	2.07	.78	26.7	40	33.3

Table.71. Engaging Students

It is of common practice that when a strategy or activity is presented in an appropriate way, it may engage students in learning tasks; however, in this study, only some aspects are stressed. Participants showed interest in praise (2.27 as mean) with only 56.7% saying ‘often’ and the remaining did not (‘Never’ with 30% and ‘Rarely’ with 13.3%). Individual or group activities as motivational aids reached only 46.7% while 53.3% did not. Monitoring and checking progress during independent practice got a percentage of 66.7% when ‘Never’ and ‘Rarely’ are put together. A question may be raised here: how do teachers monitor independent practice if, in the previous question, they declared they had no contact with students outside classrooms via emails, blogs, or any other means.

As a consequence of these practices, less importance is given to 2 main indicators of learners’ engagement which are ‘eliciting desired behaviour’ (only 23.3% said ‘Often’) and providing opportunities for feedback in the non-evaluative atmosphere’(only 30% said ‘Often’) to make students feel less anxious and relaxed when dealing with questions or tasks. In all items, the option ‘Never’ appeared strongly on the scale with values ranging from 26.7% to 53.3%. This result shows a negative level of awareness of the aims of a communicative instruction or task-based classroom.

6.4. Monitoring Students Success

In this section, the intention is to explore strategies used by teachers to control and monitor students' progress, success and potential. It includes: homework and monitoring students, contacting students and availability and students' success

6.4.1. Home-works and Monitoring Students

Home-works and Monitoring Students	Mean	Std. Deviation	%		
			Never	Rarely	Often
I clearly explain home-works	2.43	.86	23.3	10	66.7
I relate homework to the content under study and to students capacity	2.57	.82	20	3.3	76.7
I target homework questions to lesson objectives	2.50	.82	20	10	70
I think through likely misconceptions that may occur during instruction and monitor students for these misconceptions	2.30	.79	20	30	50
I give clear, specific and timely feedback	2.23	.90	30	16.7	53.3
I reteach students who did not achieve mastery and offers to tutor to students who seek additional help	2.37	.85	23.3	16.7	60
I monitor and assess student progress	2.30	.92	30	10	60
I use data to make instructional decisions	2.33	.80	20	26.7	53.3
I know and understand students as individuals in terms of ability, achievement, learning styles and needs	2.47	.86	23.3	6.7	70

Table.72. Home-works and Monitoring Students

As far as home-works are concerned, the three set indicators are given an approximate value ranging from 2.57 to 2.43 as a mean. It seems that participants are aware of homework components which are represented in explaining them, relating them to objectives and content. Nevertheless, some answers require questioning and clarifications because 23.3% said they never explain homework, and 20% said they never relate them to objectives and content.

The second part of ensuring students' success is monitoring. Much emphasis is put on 'knowing and understanding students as individuals in terms of ability, achievement, learning styles and needs' (70% with often, 23.3% with never); then, 'monitoring and assessing students' progress' (though 30% with never) and 'tutoring and re-teaching students' did not reach mastery (though 40% denied that). Here, there is much claim that students' progress is focused on but regular feedback and using provided data to make decisions received less concern. However, "never" and "rarely" remained valuable on the scale (never between 20-30%, rarely between 3.3 – 30%) as a response to all indicators which may reduce the value of teachers' work.

4.5.2. Contacting Students

Contacting Students	Mean	Std. Deviation	%		
			Never	Rarely	Often
I encourage students to know each other's' names and to use them in sessions	2.33	.80	20	26.7	53.3
I use a particular strategy to memorize students' names such as personal cards	1.87	.86	43.3	26.7	30
I use names games at beginning of the year to know names of each other and specific and unique things as reference	1.63	.85	60	16.7	23.3
I devote two or three hours per week to be	1.60	.72	53.3	33.3	13.3

available for my students, and I inform them about					
I listen to learners and usually ask them about their learning problems, and I work to help to solve them	2.50	.78	16.7	16.7	66.7
I identify parts of the syllabus where it is appropriate for learners to have some choice over what they learn and at what pace	2.13	.82	26.7	33.3	40
I conduct diagnostic test at the beginning of each semester to know in order for learners to contribute to the selection of tasks and activities	1.93	.78	33.3	40	26.7
I give learners clear idea about books and materials they need, and that fit their level and needs (books, DVDs, websites)	2.13	.90	33.3	20	46.7

Table.73. Contacting Students

Contacting students is believed to be an interesting step in any successful learning in different ways like:

- enhancing motivation
- reducing anxiety
- encouraging interaction
- solving problems
- monitoring tasks especially the independent study tasks
- giving feedback
- the minimizing class works and managing time
- training students to monitor and make self-evaluation

From the table above, it can be noticed that listening to learners and helping them to know each other are emphasized whereas the strategies that might be used for that are neglected

like 'names games.' Moreover, participants used knowing whole class not individual abilities and needs as their strategy; for instance, 73.3% responded negatively to conducting diagnostic tests to be aware of each student level of ability which is essential for monitoring students' progress and improvement. Concerning teachers' availability time to meet students, it was not given concern at all as only 13.3% said they often do. Here, there is an immense sort of contradiction, teachers are not available, they do not have any contact, but they showed a positive attitude towards listening to their learners; it might be during sessions but this is not enough and can be at the expense of lessons, tasks, and objectives.

4.5.3. Students' Success

Students' Success	Mean	Std. Deviation	%		
			Never	Rarely	Often
I establish unit and lesson content that reflects prior learning such as planning tasks and lessons that consider task relevant prior information	2.07	.87	33.3	26.7	40
I use correctives immediately after initial response such as showing a model of correct answer and how to attain it after first crude response is given	2.30	.79	20	30	50
I divide instructional stimuli into small chunks by establishing bite- size lessons that can be easily digested by learners at their current level of functioning	2.00	.83	33.3	33.3	33.3
I plan transitions to new material in easy to grasp steps so that each new lesson is seen as an extension of previous lessons	2.23	.77	20	36.7	43.3
I vary the pace at which stimuli are presented and continually builds toward a climax or key	1.97	.76	30	43.3	26.7

events like using review, feedback and testing sessions to form intervals of increasing and decreasing intensity and expectation					
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Table.74. Students' Success

Concerning success, all indicators are given close value represented in a mean between 1.97 and 2.30. Much interest is shown to using correctives such as showing models of correct answers and planning transitions from present to coming work or from past to present. Nevertheless, all items received negative answers ranging between 'never' and 'rarely' from 20% to 43.3% which reduce the frequency of 'often' which was between 26.7 and 50% in all of them. These results reflect some misunderstandings and shortcomings of the ways teachers should dealing with students' success beyond exams and tests.

Conclusion

It is extremely challenging to critique one's own strengths and weaknesses; however, the results revealed that the participants did their best to achieve that. The finding proved that all participants had positive attitudes towards personal attributes such as caring, respect and interaction whereas they had a few negative attitudes towards professional development and reflecting learning which was due to the lack of training and coursework. Through the analysis of quality indicators of the teaching/learning process, the findings revealed a sort of lack in some qualities and sub-qualities most of which related to pedagogy and instructional strategies. That deficiency in managing and implementing instruction goes to different factors either associated to the lack of training or the institution policy.

Chapter Seven

Research Findings, Recommendations and Implications

Introduction

This chapter aims to provide teachers and departments of language in Algeria with some suggestions to explore their knowledge and practice of affective strategies. It relies basically on the discussion of the research findings in order to set forth some recommendations and pedagogical implications. First, it aims to provide teachers' with self- evaluation software to assist them to check their knowledge and practice of affective strategies as well as to make them aware of teacher quality indicators during the teaching/learning process. This software is designed based on a system of values which can be reflected in scores. The software gives teachers a summary of their scores in each quality as well as their earned points and missed ones in each sub-quality. Second, others- evaluation software will be introduced in order to conduct a friendly-evaluation, i.e. evaluation by colleagues, heads or students to support the teachers to rethink about their qualities, instructional strategies and affective strategies practice. Finally, a sample motivational program is selected and adopted to fit the study and needs of teachers and learners. The program is designed by Hadfield (2013) in a form of language activities using her latest framework or motivation which is called 'the L2 self-system; but, we adapted it to a task-based program based on Willis framework. Before introducing solutions, general findings of the study will also be discussed in this chapter.

7.1. Discussion of Research Findings, Questions, and Hypotheses

Data analysis and results revealed some conclusions about teachers' cognition and practice at all levels of the teaching/ learning process. In this section, results will be introduced following the same framework used in the study and the research questions and hypotheses; therefore, teachers' appraisal of affective strategies will be discussed in a form of qualities, sub-qualities and quality indicators which are the affective strategies concerned in this study. Concerning the first question "Do teachers have the required prerequisites of effective teaching?" results revealed that participants have two qualities, but they lack two other ones. Teachers at the three universities have a considerable experience teaching at the university. In addition, all of them are certified in English, and the majority of them are holders of a magister or a master degree. However, they had no chance to have training or coursework which was the reason for not having enough pedagogical knowledge about the teaching methods, techniques, and strategies.

As far as knowledge is concerned which is related to the second question "Do teachers have enough knowledge about affective strategies and task design?" , while answering questions about motivation, teaching methods, and task planning, the statistics indicate that the majority of participants showed they do not have any connection with pedagogical knowledge which is one of the teaching pillars. Consequently, although the majority of them are specialized in teaching English as a foreign language, they do not distinguish between teaching methods, learning theories and motivation models. Further, the study pointed out a considerable lack of awareness and knowledge, and that was because of the absence of professional training and coursework. Generally, teachers' education is neglected in Algeria, but nowadays there are hundreds of free courses available online. so, there is no excuse for not joining one. Participants said that they were collaborative which was neither reflected in their knowledge nor in their practice where

each teacher had different topics, different strategies and different ways to deal with students. As far as reflective practice is concerned, participants did not show interest at all which reveals a sort of ignorance about its value.

“Do teachers teach oral expression using task-based instruction?” The respondents of the study declared that they have not been using task-based instruction which was clear in their classes. Concerning affective strategies, teachers’ practice varied between positive and negative attitudes across the different qualities of good and effective teachers.

Finally and most importantly “Do teachers use affective strategies during the different stages of the process to develop oral tasks, and what type of affective strategies do teachers use in teaching oral tasks? Findings showed that teachers’ qualities and strategies vary at the different levels of the learning process. At the level of the personal attributes (i.e. caring, fairness and respect, motivation and enthusiasm, interacting with students, dedication, collaboration and reflection), on one hand, it is highlighted in the study that the participants showed very positive attitudes towards personal qualities such as caring, respect, and interaction. On the other hand, participants did not show much enthusiasm during the observed sessions; instead, they said they are not motivated and they are surrounded by unmotivated colleagues. They also declared that if they are given an opportunity to change their job, they will not miss it. Further, teachers emphasized different factors that hindered their motivation such as salary, the number of students, and the lack of security.

At the level of classroom management and organization, before discussing the results of that domain, some points should be emphasized. In the three concerned Universities, the number of students reached 50 to 60 per group which made it a very difficult task to manage classrooms. In Oral Expression sessions, there was no space to

arrange students in groups or conduct any activities that involve space and movement. As far as time is concerned, all observed teachers did not manage time or give instructions about it; rather, they dealt with one task without any time allocation. In the study, a major trait was that expectations were not shared with students; participants did not explain what they expected from students or what students were supposed to be able to do by the end of the activity. Also, clarity was not displayed in any given activity. The instruction was not given to students before the task and during the task; there was no feedback about students' performance in oral presentations or discussions. In general, this domain was the weakest in the participants' practice.

At implementing instruction level with a particular focus on tasks, there are arguments that participants perceived themselves as having different strategies and using a variety of activities; in contrast, in each observed class, the 1h30 was spent on one activity which was in most of the cases a presentation or general discussion of a topic. Throughout the study, group work and students engagement were not clear and teachers' instructions were not really present. Concerning materials, in all observed classes, there were no materials at all. Teachers claimed that the department did not provide materials although many of them were available and easy to use by everyone like maps, posters, pictures, and laptops. Regarding tasks, participants declared that they did not know about task-based teaching or the difference between an activity and a task. None of them used a task sequence or explained task objectives and intended outcomes; moreover, none of them mentioned the language focus or the language area that students were supposed to learn or practice. During activities, there was no time given for interaction, questioning or turn-taking.

At the level of 'monitoring students' success and potential', three components were explored: responding to students' needs and abilities, homework, and

monitoring progress. As we mentioned in chapter one, teachers' effectiveness is reflected and can be measured through students' outcomes; therefore, the final result is also an indicator of teacher quality. Concerning the last area which is monitoring, participants seemed to be trying their best, but the large classes of students prevented them from being available, tutoring students, responding to all students and monitoring their progress

In sum, at the level of the personal attributes, all respondents demonstrated positive attitudes towards caring, respect and fairness but not sufficient enthusiasm and motivation for teaching. At the management and organization level, the study highlighted an incredible absence of management, especially in time and task sequence. At the level of implementing instruction, some aspects were neglected due to the lack of pedagogical knowledge and teacher education such as objectives, task planning, questioning, feedback, and materials use. Moreover, at the monitoring level as mentioned earlier, there were many areas of deficiency because of large classes which hindered tutoring, responding to all students and monitoring their progress as well as teachers' availability. Actually, the absence of some aspects or indicators in the respondent's' practice was not only due to the deficiency in prerequisites but also a product, a consequence of complicated circumstances related to the higher education system, hiring system, and the number of students, shortage of staff and the department policies. As mentioned before, it is unjust to link learners' progress, and outcomes only to the teacher as many other factors may intervene.

Concerning whether teachers make self-evaluation or not, from the discussion and interpretation of results, it is well noticed that participants have a positive attitude towards self-evaluation but they have not been given chances to reflect or rethink about it because of different reasons. On one hand, there is no standard for teacher evaluation in the Algerian university; though they have a teacher evaluation form only for "la prime" which is too vague and general and has nothing to do with quality indicators teachers perform in

the classroom. Additionally, there is no appraisal system and no evaluation from the administration or any specialized group to motivate teachers to check their improvement and development. On the other hand, teacher education and training which are sources for knowledge about ways of reflecting, assessing own practice are not given much importance and interest.

Accordingly, based on the interpretation of results, the main hypothesis is partly confirmed when the personal attributes of the teachers are taken into account particularly in questionnaire responses. Participants showed effectiveness in caring, respect and equal opportunities but the professional attributes were perceived negatively. However, some negative points in teachers' knowledge and practice revealed from observation and checklist can be considered as shortcomings that affect the hypothesis negatively. Many aspects of effective lessons and teaching such as classroom management, objectives and variation of activities are neglected. Furthermore, learner-centredness and task-based learning were not given much focus. Thus, at the level of in- class activities, the hypothesis is totally rejected. Many factors contribute to the lack of teachers' effectiveness not only the teacher as a person but some external factors such as the lack of training, department's policy, the number of students and the lack of materials. In this regard, in general, we cannot firmly confirm or reject the hypothesis since teachers' attitude and performance are not the only determinants of teacher quality as well as to explore the situation deeply, a longitudinal study is necessary.

7.2. Research Recommendations and Implications

This section covers the research implications based on research literature and research findings. It includes teachers' self-evaluation software and teachers' evaluation software that can be used to solve some problems and help to improve teachers' quality as well as motivate teachers to continue learning towards professional development.

7.2.1. Teachers' Self Evaluation Software

This rubric is designed to raise teacher awareness of their practice; it is organized around four domains covering all aspects of teacher quality: personal and professional qualities, classroom management and organization, implementing instruction and monitoring students' progress. The Rubric is designed based on some self-evaluation and teacher quality frameworks mainly from, Strong et al. (2004) and Strong and Hindman (2006) "qualities of good teachers" and Brown and Race (1995), "assess your own teaching quality". The rubrics use a five-level rating scale with the following labels: very good, good, fair, poor, very poor.

7.2.2. Teachers' Evaluation Form (Others Evaluation)

We believe that self- evaluation is not sufficient and it is always subject to subjectivity. Teachers should take the opportunity of being evaluated by others from time to time. External evaluation, particularly when it is for purposes of certification or continued employment can be extremely threatening; but in our case, it is not for those reasons. This rubric may be used as a friendly observation form, i.e. observation that can be conducted by a friend, a colleague, a student or anyone to discuss our points of strengths and weaknesses. It can be used in team teaching sessions or workshops as well. For those

teachers who have the courage as well as the opportunity, to invite evaluation by others, the experience can be rewarding and can be a valuable opportunity for professional growth.

The value of the exercise will be enhanced if the evaluator or critical friend has skills and experience, not only as a language teacher, but also as a supervisor. Such person, Nunan and Lamb (1996:239) say:” should be aware or made aware that to be useful as evaluation, the process should indicate what the teacher is doing well, as well as pointing out areas where there is room for improvement”. Peer observation can be also a great stimulus for professional development. Thus, this form is designed based on Dornyei framework of motivational strategies (1994) but only on its components not details as it designed to evaluate mainly and specifically teachers’ practice of affective strategies in teaching foreign language oral tasks. It emphasizes only the observable side of practice where no intervention, discussion or questions are supposed to be there. So it is designed to evaluate only what the observer can see.

The rubrics use a five-level rating scale with the following labels: very good, good, fair, poor, very poor. However, for evaluation to be effective, it should cover the following aspects: clarity, immediacy, regularity, accessibility, individualized, affirming, future-oriented, justifiable, and most importantly educative (Brookfield, 2006).

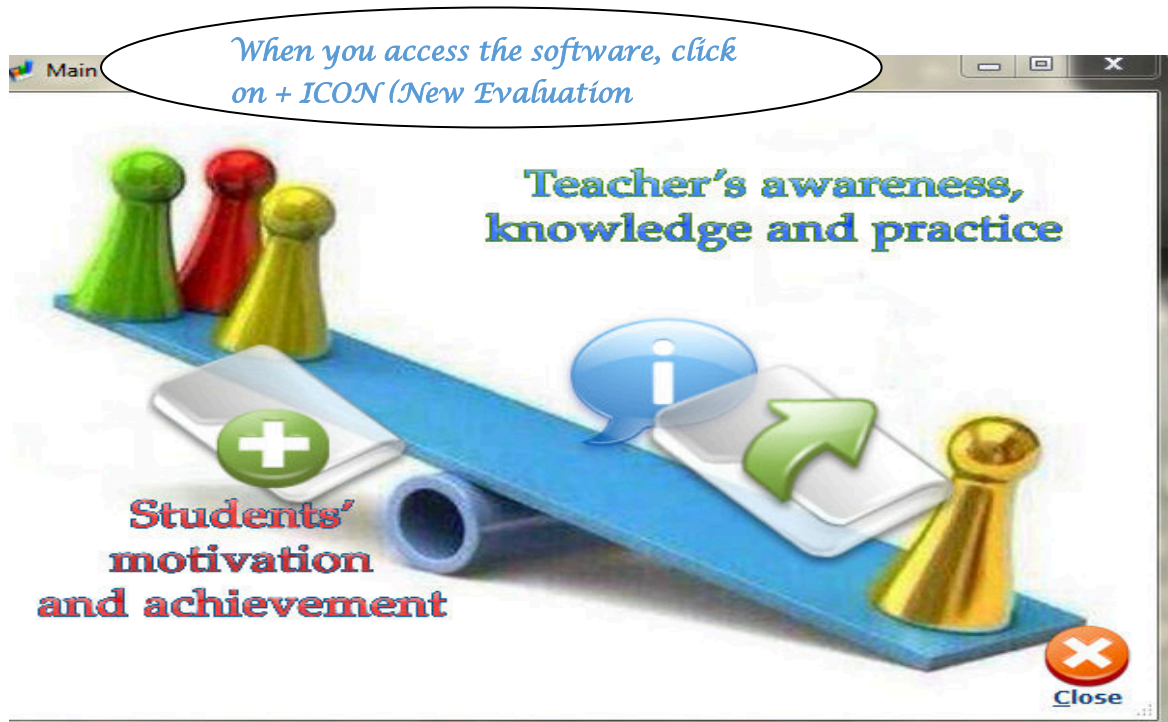


Image. 1. Self-Evaluation Software Interface

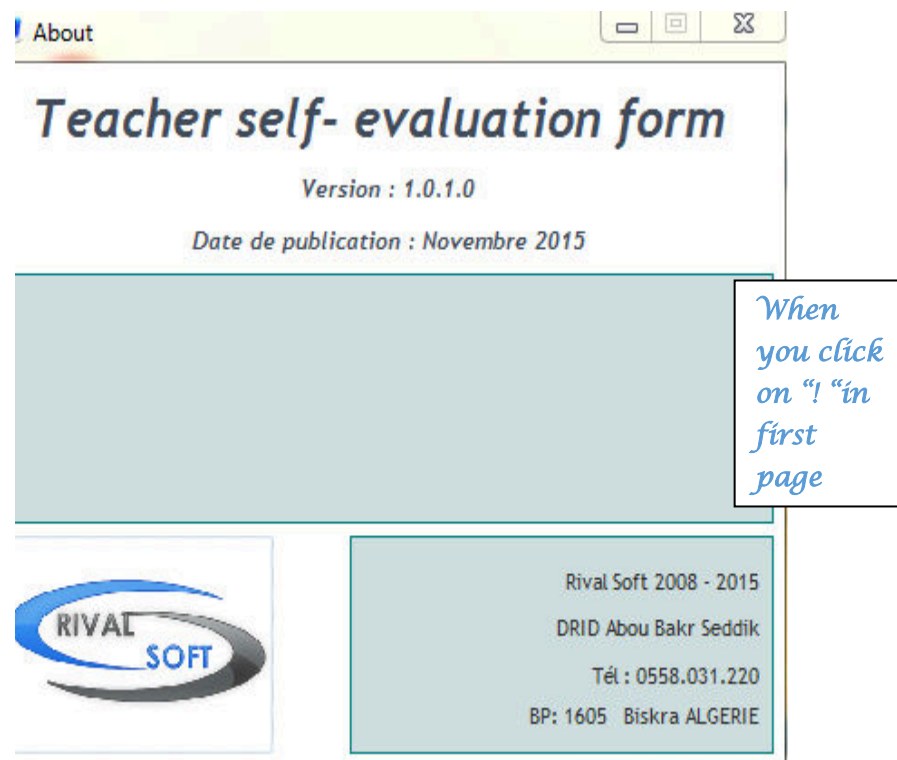


Image.2. Information about Self-Evaluation Software.

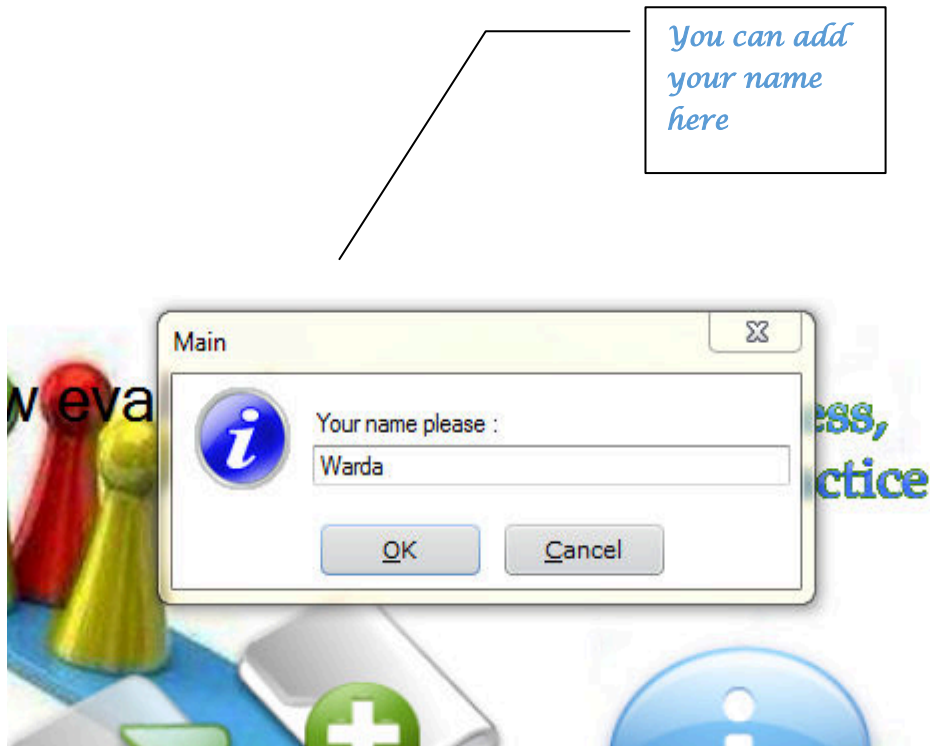


Image.3. Adding an Evaluation

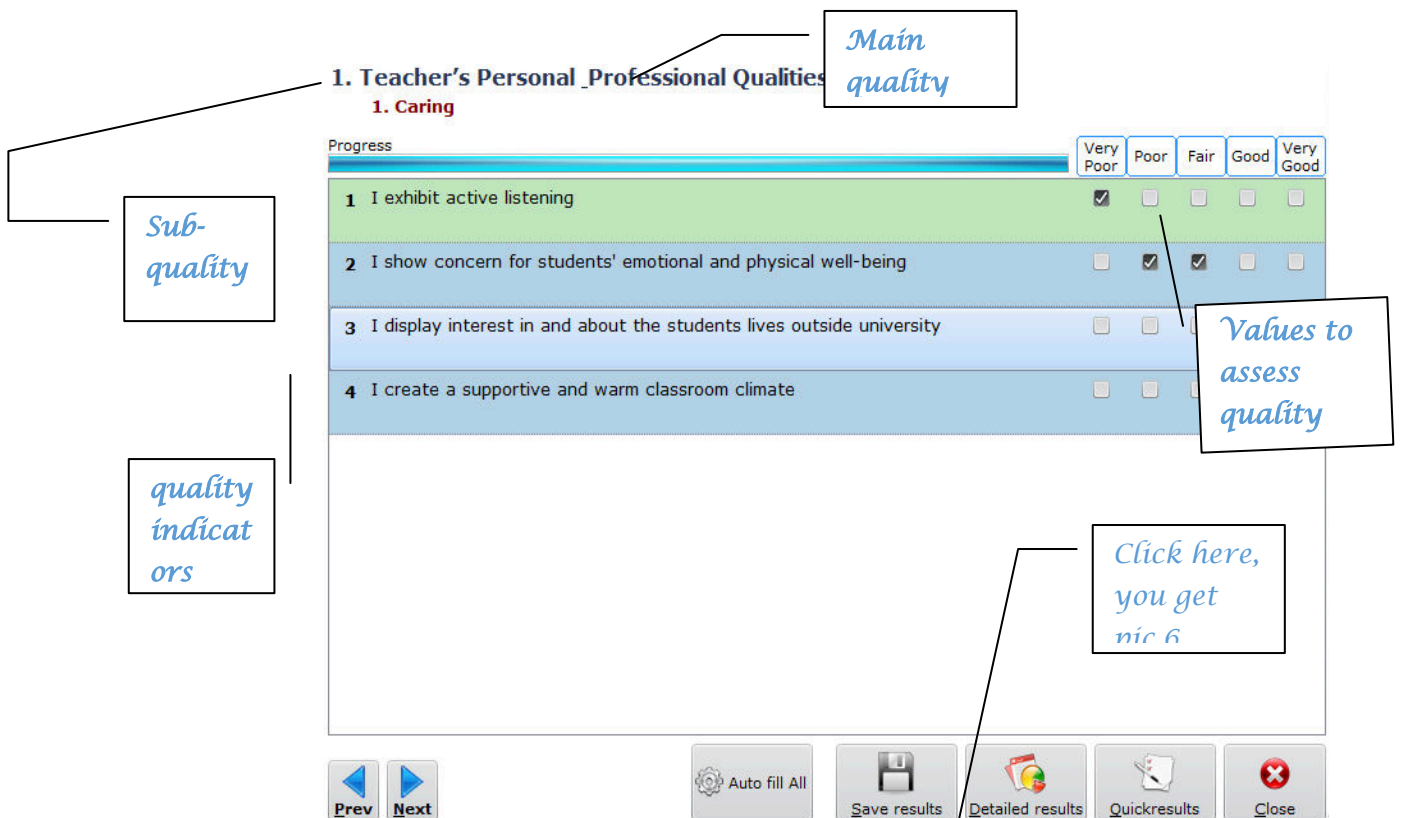


Image.4. Example .1. Preview of Caring

1. Teacher's Personal Professional Qualities

2. Showing Fairness And Respect

Progress	Very Poor	Poor	Fair	Good	Very Good
5 I respond to misbehaviour on an individual level	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6 I prevent situations in which a student loses peer respect	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7 I treat students equally and I check that I am not treating learners differently in sessions or tasks	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8 I create situations for all students to succeed	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9 I make effort to pronounce the names of my students	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10 I do not use jokes or anecdotes which could be interpreted as oppressive to any group	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11 I seek feedback from learners to probe any feelings they have regarding being treated unequally in any respect	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12 I do not relate grading to personal behaviour or conflicts with students	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Image.5. Example.2. Showing fairness and Respect

Chapters	Qualities	Indicators	Answers	Pnts/4
	Caring	1. I exhibit active listening	Poor	1
		2. I show concern for students' emotional and physical well-being	Fair	2
		3. I display interest in and about the students lives outside university	Poor	1
		4. I create a supportive and warm classroom climate	Good	3
	Showing Fairness And Respect	5. I respond to misbehaviour on an individual level	Very poor	0
		6. I prevent situations in which a student loses peer respect	Good	3
		7. I treat students equally and I check that I am not treating learners differently in sessions or tasks	Good	3
		8. I create situations for all students to succeed	Good	3
		9. I make effort to pronounce the names of my students	Very poor	0
		10. I do not use jokes or anecdotes which could be interpreted as oppressive to any group	Poor	1
		11. I seek feedback from learners to probe any feelings they have regarding being treated unequally in any respect	Good	3
		12. I do not relate grading to personal behaviour or	Good	3

Scores of qualities pic.7.



Image.6. Detailed Results Main Page

Quality, histograms, percentage. Pic.8.

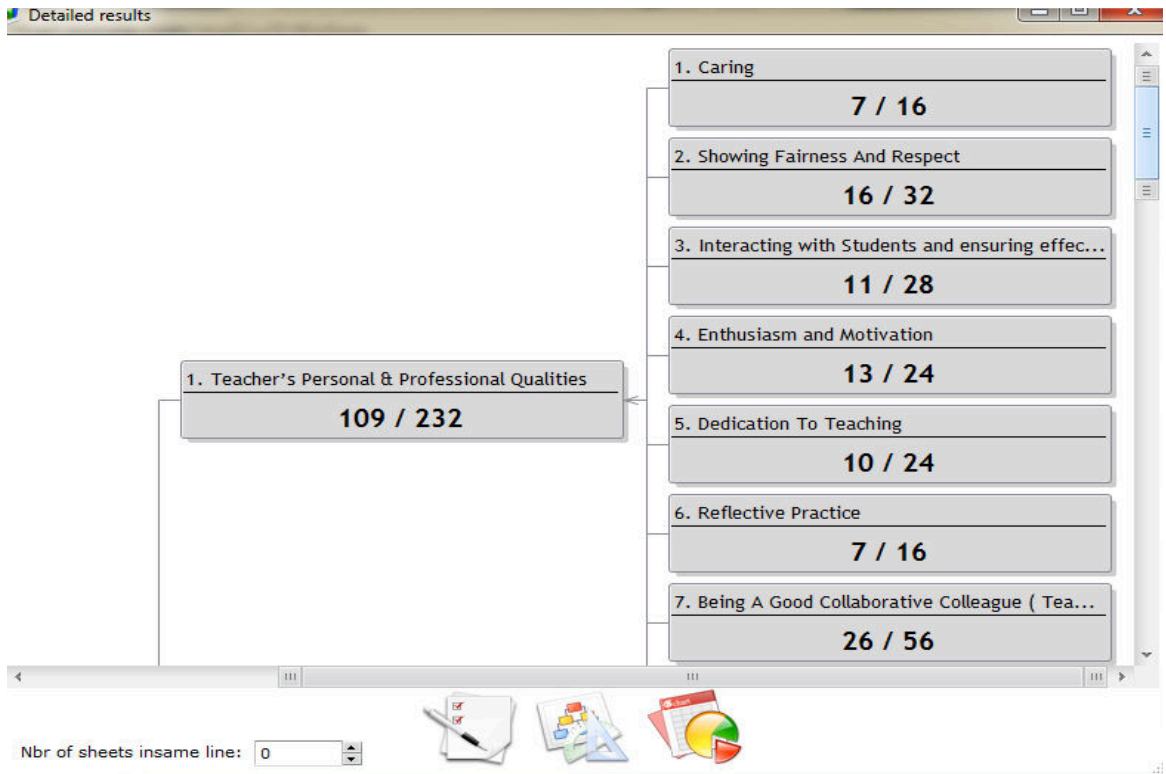


Image.7. Main Quality and Sub-Quality Scores

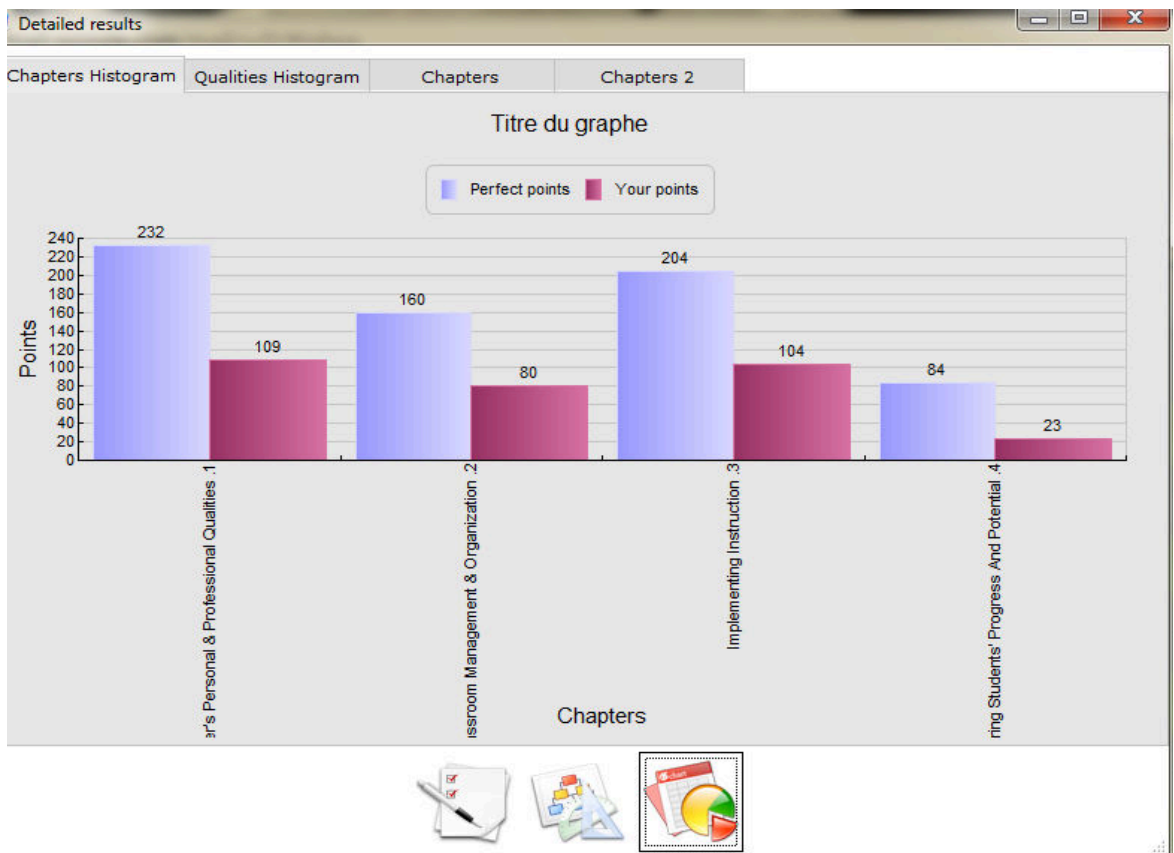


Image.8. detailed Results: Chapters (main qualities) Histogram

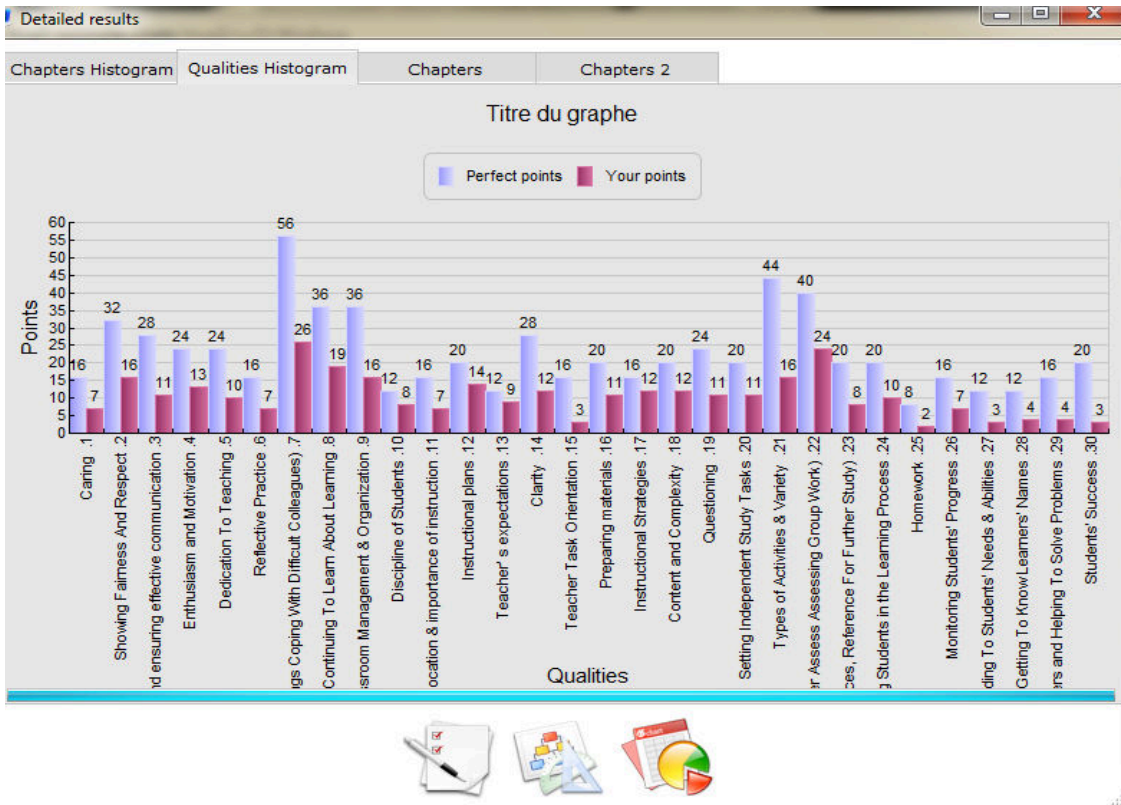


Image.9. Sub-Qualities Histogram

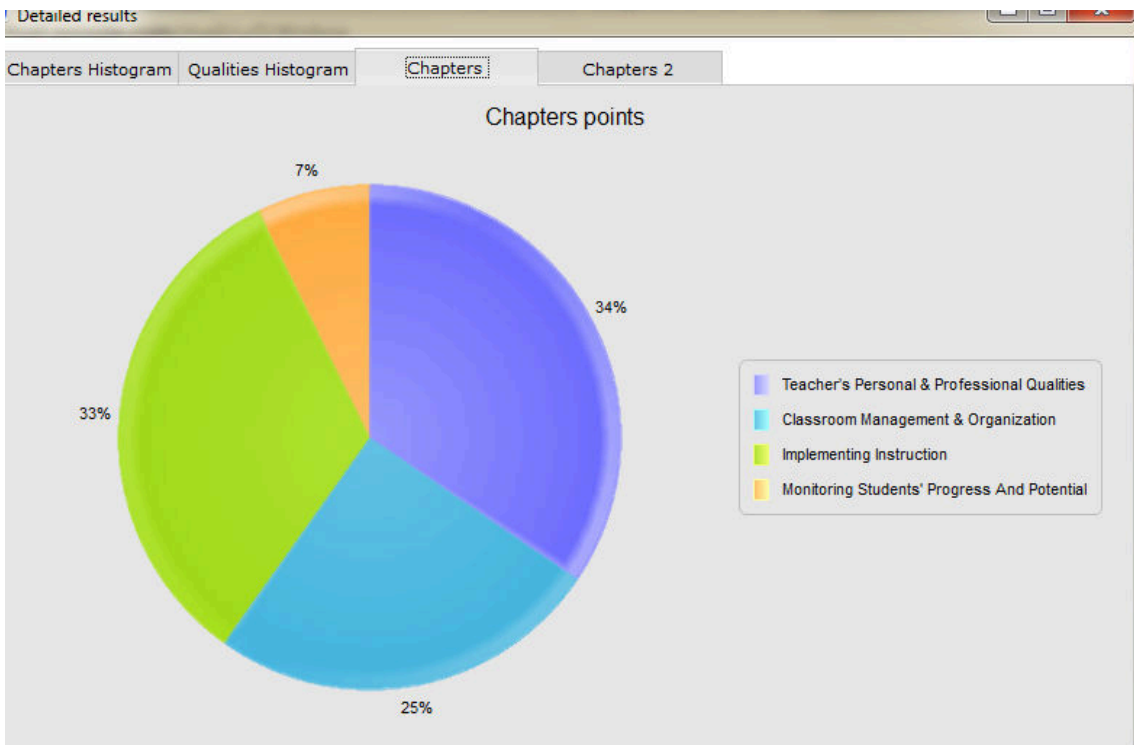


Image.10. Chapters (Main qualities) Points

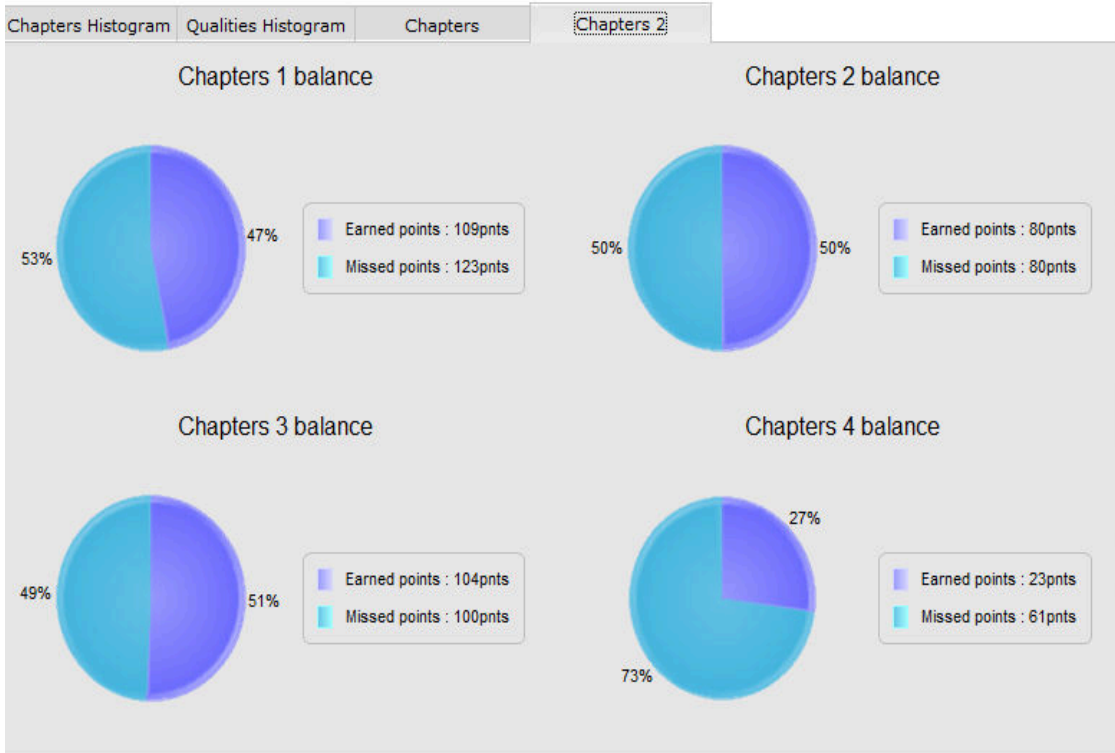


Image.11. Sub-Quality Balance (Earned and Missed Points)

Quick result

Nbr of answers with V. Poor	= 48 ==> 0 pnts
Nbr of answers with Poor	= 28 ==> 28 pnts
Nbr of answers with Fair	= 28 ==> 56 pnts
Nbr of answers with Good	= 32 ==> 96 pnts
Nbr of answers with V. Good	= 34 ==> 136 pnts
Global result	316 / 680

On first page, click on quick results

Image.12. Quick Results



Image.13. Teacher Evaluation Form Interface



Picture.14. New Evaluation

1. The Language Level

Progress	Very Poor	Poor	Fair	Good	Very Good
1 Language Used is Clear and simple	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2 Language Used is Accurate	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3 Language Used is Consistent	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Image. 15. The Language Level

7.2.3. Hadfield and Dornyei Framework (2013)

The ‘L2 Motivational Self System’ was proposed by Dörnyei (2005) as a comprehensive synthesis of past research on the main dimensions of language learning motivation. It represents a major reformation of previous motivational thinking through using psychological theories of the self. L2 motivation researchers have adopted paradigms that link the L2 to the individual personality to form an important part of one’s identity based on the belief that a foreign language is a communication code that can be learnt like any other academic subject. The construct has grown out of the combined effect of two significant theoretical developments in both the L2 field and mainstream psychology. Dörnyei (2005) sees his model of integrative motivation as a natural progression from Gardner’s theory that addresses many of these concerns (Dörnyei in Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011: 79).

In the light of that view, Dörnyei (2005) proposed the ‘L2 Motivational Self-System’ which constitutes of the following three components Ideal L2 Self, Ought-to L2 Self, and the L2 Learning Experience. On one hand, the Ideal L2 Self is the L2 specific facet of one’s ‘ideal self’. The ‘ideal L2 self’ is believed to be a powerful motivator to learn the L2 because it creates a desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves. Dörnyei considers the traditional integrative and instrumental motives as parts of this component. On the other hand, Ought-to L2 Self refers to the attributes that a person has for meeting expectations and avoiding possible negative outcomes. This dimension involves the extrinsic types of instrumental motives (Dörnyei 2005 in Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011: 86)

According to Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011: 83), future self-guides have the power to motivate action through the enhancement of the self-regulatory mechanisms but this

cannot be always automatic rather controlled by a number of conditions. These conditions are:

- The learner has the desired future self-image: people differ in how easily they can generate a successful possible- self and therefore not everyone is expected to possess a developed ideal or ought self- guide.
- The future self is sufficiently different from the current self: if there is no observable gap between current and future selves, no increased effort is felt necessary.
- The future self image is elaborate and vivid: people display significant individual differences in the vividness of their mental imagery, and a possible self with insufficient specificity and detail may not be able to evoke the necessary motivational response.
- The future self-image is perceived as plausible: possible selves are only effective insofar as the individual does indeed perceive them as possible, that is, realistic within the person's individual circumstances. (Dornyei in Dornyei and Ushioda, 2011: 83).

7.2.3.1. Imaging Identity: My Future L2 Self

According to Hadfield and Dornyei (2013: 11), the Self is an overall not something single, fixed and permanent; it is the collection of a number of different, changing and sometimes even contradictory selves. Some of these selves exist in present reality: if the person thinks of himself in different situations, he may be able to identify for example, a home self, a work self, a self who is a son of father, a self with one group of friends, a different self with another group of friends. Other selves exist not in the present but in an imagined future: if a person thinks of himself in the future,

he may be able to identify a self that he thinks he should be (a harder worker, a calmer parent, a more generous friend). He may also identify a self that he is afraid of becoming (a jobless self, a nagging self, a friendless self) or a self that he would like to become: the successful self, the popular self, or the rich self. These future selves have been called the “Ought to Self,” The “Feared Self” and the “Ideal Self.” So creating the vision is about creating an L2 ideal self- image and the future identity that our learners envision. Therefore, the stage is about stepping from the imaginative to the affective to reach the creative practice in teaching.

7.2.3.1.1. Creating the Vision

There is an obvious discrepancy between the actual self and the ideal future self. Self-discrepancy theory states that people will be motivated to reduce this discrepancy so that their current self begins to approach their vision of their ideal self. Motivation thus consists of the desire to reduce the gap between the two selves. So in order to perceive discrepancy and have desire, there will need to be some kind of vision of what the ideal future self is. Most people have an idea of an ideal future self, but this may not be substantial, elaborate or vivid enough to motivate them. Therefore, Hadfield and Dornyei (2013: 12) stress the importance to work on raising awareness of an individual’s future desired self through developing the image and making it as a detailed and vivid imagined reality. By making the vision detailed and vivid, the ideal self will come to seem a possible future reality rather than an imagined dream. They add the more individuals perceive the vision as an achievable possible reality, the more their motivation increases to achieve it. To achieve that, visualization and imagination can be used in classroom activities along with teachers’ instructions or scripts.

7.2.3.1.2. Substantiating the Vision: What is Possible

According to Hadfield and Dornyei (2013: 32), substantiating the vision means subjecting the original vision of the ideal future self to a reality check to make sure it is plausible and realistically achievable. Any effective future self must be possible self; therefore, the idea is not to live in idle fantasy but to construct a future possible reality that the individual can plan for and work towards because if not realistic, any vision of an ideal L2 self would be meaningless. It involves the analysis of the original vision in order to determine what parts of the vision are achievable and what parts are unrealistic.

7.2.3.1.3. Counterbalancing the Vision

Counterbalancing the vision means that the vision of the ideal self should be balanced in case the desired self were not attained. This concept is based on the psychological concept that motivation consists of two tendencies: approach and avoid. There are always goals individuals want to attain and some undesired outcomes they strive to avoid. Thus, envisioning the ideal future self is obviously a tendency to approach as motivation in this case is the desire to approach the goal. In case the desired self were not attained, usually individuals follow the avoid strategy to avoid the negative result. This strategy is used to motivate oneself when the individual feels he/she is really in danger of failing. A balanced consideration of possible negative outcomes at an earlier stage could provide stronger motivation because if it is late, the learner can do nothing but only increase panic and anxiety. This would entail raising the possible consequences of not achieving the desired ideal self in order to frame the two pole of the approach-avoid stimulus (Hadfield and Dornyei, 2013: 47).

7.2.3.1.4. Unifying the Vision

This section deals with the concept of “ought-to-self” which are defined as attributes that one believes one ought to possess such as obligations and duties that form someone else’s vision of how the individual ought to behave. This could be the vision held by parents, family, teachers, peers or society in general. Our ought-to-self rather can derive from a composite of all of these. For the effectiveness of future self- guides, an important condition is that individuals should feel identical with important social identities, that is, that the ideal and the “ought- to selves” should be in harmony. So unifying the vision means bringing the vision of the ideal self into harmony with the ought-to-self. It is important to avoid conflict between selves and to identify helpful insights that the ought-to-self can offer to support in progress to actualizing the ideal self. It entails raising awareness about the meaning of an “ought- to self”, what an “ought-to self” could be and what aspects are in harmony with the ideal self and finally exploring the “ought-to self” as an enabler (Hadfield and Dornyei, 2013: 71)

7.2.3.1.5. Enhancing the Vision

This section is devoted to activities that enrich and deepen the created vision in section one. It is important to ensure that the vision is vivid and elaborate to achieve the needed motivational effect. It consists of two processes: 1) the enriching and elaboration of the original vision to make it more detailed, tangible and lasting, and 2) the provision of more precisely targeted, situation- specific visualizations aimed at getting the students to visualize their ideal L2 selves, coping successfully with situations relevant to their goals and learning circumstances (Hadfield and Dornyei, 2013: 94)

7.2.3.2. Mapping the Journey: from Dream to Reality

This part is devoted to mapping the journey or what is called by Hadfield and Dornyei: “operationalising the vision”. This phase includes practical activities rather than affective and imaginative. Hadfield and Dornyei (2013: 105) explain this stage in the following words: “in order for a motivational program to be effective and for the vision to be translated into reality rather than a fantasy, it is necessary to relate the imaginative to the practical, the affective to the cognitive and the creative to the logical”. They divide this phase into four sub stages which are: from vision to goals, from goals to plans, from plans to strategies and from strategies to achievement. It is clear here that their focus is on building learners metacognition through awareness, planning and the choice of strategies as well as thinking about their outcomes and making self-evaluation.

7.2.3.2.1. From Vision to Goals

According to Hadfield and Dornyei (2013: 106-107), the first stage in the route into reality is translating vision into goals. In this stage, the vision or the image of the ideal self-created in the first stage will be replaced by a long term goal and short term goal or objectives. The vision is broad and needs to be broken down into a list of goals which can be translated into actions otherwise, it will remain as a dream. It involves considering the initial vision, identifying the separate ambitions within it and using it as basis for a list of long term goals and short term objectives according to the syllabus and circumstances. Activity types that help learners to fulfil this are brainstorming, checklists and questionnaires. This stage involves discussing and evaluating then sharing common goals and individual ones either on a sheet or a poster or online to make students acquainted with the process of expressing and elaborating their goals. The best strategy to introduce activities for this stage is to begin the course is through giving learners an opportunity to

present, discuss and classify their long- term goals then breaking them down into short-term objectives

7.2.3.2.2. From Goals to Plans

Translating goals into plans refers to making a study plan to realize the week's short-term goals. Hadfield and Dornyei (2013: 127) describe that in the following terms "A goal is motivating as an ultimate destination and final outcome, but in order to reach that you need a route map of exactly how you are going to get there." This process goes through two stages. The first stage is breaking down of short-term or weekly goals into a series of concrete tasks; for example, the goal of being able to order food in a restaurant will involve a series of sub-tasks such as learning food vocabulary, reading menus, listening to dialogues and practising requests.

7.2.3.2.3. From Plans to Strategies

This stage is meant to introduce language learning strategies and help learners to select appropriate strategies according to tasks purpose. In this stage, students need to be trained to use learning strategies to fit their plans; further, in this stage, their plans will be thought of and maybe revised or specified as more emphasis would be given to metacognitive strategies which include planning and management. In this section, there are two kinds of strategies, strategies to solve problems which include metacognitive, cognitive and social affective in which either there is a strategy selected either to reach a goal or to avoid a barrier or distraction (Hadfield and Dornyei, 2013: 146-147)

7.2.3.2.4. From Strategies to Achievement

Hadfield and Dornyei (2013: 180) consider this stage as the final stage of the route from vision to reality. It involves making study intentions public and charting progress towards long-term goals. The authors of the program argue that making intentions public puts the individual under an obligation to fulfil them and thus increases motivation to achieve them. If goals remain private, there is less incentive to reach them. Charting progress is another way of increasing motivation in which the individual is satisfied to know that he/she is realizing and achieving goals and (i.e. it is like a public validation of effort). Feedback in this stage is a crucial element but the focus should be on effort rather than ability. Thus, the aim of this stage is to increase motivation through charting progress and rewarding effort.

7.2.3.3. Keeping the Vision Alive

According to the designers of the framework (2013: 198-199), the aim of this phase is to extend the vision and to deepen the sense of an L2 identity. This phase includes two processes: developing identity and making it real. In the first, the aim is to keep in touch with the vision, to develop it in more detail and to make sure that it is not lost in the day-to-day business of language activities. Making it real provides activities that allow for the use of the L2 in real life, virtual or simulated situations, sending the students into the L2 community or bringing the L2 world into the classroom to make the language and culture come alive for the students.

7.2.3.3.1. Developing Identity

Developing identity means working with the learners in a number of ways to develop and extend the vision created in phase 1. It is important in many ways: to keep learners in touch with their original motivating vision of the L2 self, to enrich and extend that vision making it a living, growing identity, and to provide activities for the affective side of language learning to complement the cognitive goal setting activities stated in previous stages. It covers four themes:

- Identity projects, contains projects aimed at developing and elaborating the L2 identity.
- Targeted visualisations contain more detailed and precisely targeted visualisations of the students coping successfully in various L2 situations.
- Role models, provide the students with contact -in real life through the web or through reading texts- of successful language learners to increase their awareness of what learning a language entails.
- Self- belief contains activities aimed at increasing the students' self-esteem and belief in their L2 selves. (Hadfield and Dornyei, 2013: 200)

7.2.3.3.2. Making the Vision Real

It means creating real life L2 situations for the students by giving them an opportunity to experience the culture and customs of the L2 and reflect on the difference between L1 and L2 culture. It is important to give students opportunities of real-life situations in order to try out their L2 identity and reinforce their sense of self. These real-life situations and exposure to cultural events and situations will help learners to perceive learning and L2 as living experience; further the opportunity of reflecting on cultural

differences will help them understand and empathise with the culture. They will also add realistic details to their future L2 self-visions. This stage covers three main topics:

- entering the L2 community, including activities that aim to get students to interact with members of the L2 community, through sending students out into the community with projects and interviews tasks, by inviting speakers to the classroom, or by setting up opportunities for online interaction through Penpal schemes, networking sites and chat rooms especially in a case like ours.
- Let's pretend, contains activities which simulate interactions with the L2 community.
- Cultural events, contains suggestions for bringing aspects of the L2 culture to life through classroom or extracurricular activities (Hadfield and Dornyei, 2013: 236-237)

7.2.4. Willis Tasks Framework

In this framework, the task follows certain stages. This framework is selected because of a number of reasons. First, it involves learners to work together and minimizes teachers' involvement. So, learners are given enough chances to communicate and use the foreign language. Second, it comes in a form of stages which is good for learners to manage time and check their progress. Third, in the model, there is a planning stage which is effective to train learners to make planning before they start any learning activity. Fourth, there is a report stage in which tasks overlap process and product objectives. Finally, although the main purpose is meaning, a language focus is emphasized to show learners that language is a single system of form and meaning where they cannot learn one on behalf of the other. This framework contains a pre-task, task, planning, report, analysis and practice.

In the pre-task stage, the students get exposure to the topic and instructions on what they will have to do at the task stages. The teacher may also tend to activate learners'

prior knowledge and help them to retain some language that may serve the task. The pre-task stage can be devoted to playing a recording of people doing the task in which the students receive a clear model of what will be expected of them. The students can take notes and spend time preparing for the task. During the task stage, students fulfil the task in pairs or groups using the language resources given to them in first stage. The teacher's role is only to monitor and encourage students. Then, students prepare a short oral or written report to tell the class what happened during their task; this process is called the planning stage. Then, they rehearse and practice what they are going to present within their groups. In this phase, the teacher acts only as a facilitator when needed to answer students questions or give advice. When they finish planning, students present their reports to the class orally or in writing. The teacher's role in this phase is to manage time and give some feedback on the content as well as play a recording of others doing the same task for the students to compare.

By the end of the report stage, the teacher assigns some language parts for the students to analyse such interesting features or patterns within the text or the language used in students' reports. At the end, the teacher selects some language areas to practise based on learners' needs and task and report results (what emerged from the task and report). Then, students can be another occasion for practicing activities to note useful language and increase their confidence about both language and task.

7.2.5. Sample Motivating Tasks (Adapted from Hadfield and Dornyei, Based on Willis Framework)

Based on the models described above, in this section, we selected some tasks from Hadfield and Dornyei (2013) according to learners' needs and interests as well as the

learning setting in the three concerned Universities. The name of the tasks and their procedure are used as they are in the framework without any changes. The part which we modified is the framework of the task; Hadfield and Dornyei framework is based on general activity objective not a task based objective. In these tasks, we tried to adapt their model to Willis (1996) TBT framework so as to add the different stages: pre-task, task cycle and language focus. Further, as the focus in our study is Oral expression, some modifications are added to the report stage.

7.2.5.1. Imaging Identity: My Future L2 Self

7.2.5.1.1. Creating the Vision

Activity.1. My Future L2 Self (act.6.p 26)		
1.Pre-Task	<p>Aim: to introduce the concept of a future L2 Self and to get students to visualise in general terms what their ideal L2 self would be</p> <p>➤ Rehearse the script until you feels confident and fluent with it; adapt/add to if you would like to make it more relevant to learners</p>	
2.Task Cycle	Task	Procedure
		<p>1. If you like, play some soft background music. Introduce the idea of a future L2 self. What would your students like to be able to do in the L2? How would they like to feel when speaking the L2?</p> <p>2. Ask learners to close their eyes. Tell them you are going to ask them to imagine themselves in the future, speaking the L2.</p> <p>3. Begin asking the questions from the script, allowing time between each question for learners to imagine themselves in the scenario you 'dictate '.</p> <p>4. When you have finished, ask learners to open their eyes</p>

		<p>and share their vision with the person sitting next to them.</p> <p>5. Round off the activity by asking each learner to say something to the group about their partner's vision.</p> <p>6. Ask learners to write up their visualisation.</p> <p>7. Collect these in and go through them, making notes on the common themes. Is it possible to identify what elements are shared by the group and what element are individual or idiosyncratic? What elements are feasible and what might be unachievable? What elements are feasible and what might be unachievable? What is feasible within the parameters of the course you are teaching? Identifying these issues will be useful when you come to the next section' :Substantiating the vision'.</p>
	Planning	Students prepare notes about their visualization
	Report	Students share talks about their future L2 Image
3.Language Focus	Analysis	<p>Functions: Physical description</p> <p>Skills: listening, speaking and maybe writing</p>
	Practice	Language area: simple present, present continuous, “wh” questions.

7.2.5.1.2. Sustaining the Vision: What is Possible

Activity.2. Reality Consensus (Act.11, P.40)		
1.Pre-Task	<p>Aim: to generate a group discussion about which aspects of the learners' vision of their L2 selves are possible/ feasible / achievable</p> <p>➤ Use the written description of the visualisation in Activity 6 ; prepare a list of statements based on what the learners have written</p>	
2.Task Cycle	Task	<p>Procedure</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Tell your learners that you have read through their descriptions and the next stage is to consider what is feasible/ achievable in reality. 2. Hand out the ranking sheets and each learner to complete them individually. 3. Put learners in pairs and ask them to compare their answers. 4. Join pairs into fours and ask them to share their ideas. 5. Ask each group of four to report their ideas to the class. 6. Draw the discussion together by summarising their idea and adding your own on what is feasible / achievable within the parameters of the course you are teaching.
	Planning	<p>Learners prepare their description</p> <p>Compare it with partners</p>
	Report	<p>Each group of four reports their idea</p>
3.Language Focus	Analysis	<p>Functions: Saying what is possible/ impossible/unlikely, giving opinion, describing personality</p> <p>Skills: Reading and speaking</p>
	Practice	<p>Modals: can, will, would like, language for stating opinions and describing personality (adjectives for example)</p>

7.2.5.1.3. Counterbalancing the Vision

Activity.3. What Gets in the way of Learning (Act.16.P.56)		
1.Pre-Task	<p>Aim: To provide authentic examples example of different obstacles to learning</p> <p>➤ Copy and cut up the'texts so that is one for each student in the class ; copy and cut up the name list so there is one name for each student in the class ; make one copy of the worksheet for each student</p>	
2.Task Cycle	Task	Procedure <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Give out the texts. Ask students to read their texts and to think of an appropriate name to describe that self- barrier. 2. Then give each student a name from the name list. Make sure that they get a different name from the description they have. For example , if a student has a text describing a shy and unconfident self, give him any name except 'the unconfident self' 3. Ask students to stand up and go round the class describing their self-barriers to others until they find someone who can give them a suitable name. 4. Ask students to sit in groups of five: texts 1-5 together and tests 6-10 together. If there is a group left over with fewer than five members, get them to join other groups. Give each student a work sheet. 5. In their groups, each student describes her self- barrier as described in the text. The others guess the name. Then they discuss which self- barriers they recognise in themselves. They should take notes on their worksheets to help them in the next stage of the activity. 6. When they have finished, ask one student from each 1-5 group to go to 6-10 group and one student from each 6-10 group to go to 1-5 group.

		7. They should share information about what they discussed
	Planning	Prepare a description of self-barrier
	Report	Groups share ideas with all other groups, exchange of ideas
3.Language Focus	Analysis	Functions: describing problems Skills: reading, speaking
	Practice	Present simple, should, not very good/bad at

7.2.5.1.4. Unifying the Vision

Activity.4. Great Expectations (Act.25.p.79)		
1.Pre-Task	Aim: to identify L2 learning expectations ➤ Copy the questionnaire for each student	
2.Task Cycle	Task	Procedure 1. Give a copy of the questionnaire to each student and ask them to complete it- they can tick more than one person for each item if needed. They can add items to the list. 2. Put students in pairs and ask them to discuss answers. 3. Get the students to work in pairs and discuss. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What they do • What they don't do • What they ought to do 4. Get each student to decide on three things to do that would really help with their learning. Ask them to write them in the form of resolutions (I will..... ') on a piece of paper and then to copy it onto another piece. They should keep one piece of paper and give the other to their partner to keep in a safe place. 5. You can periodically ask students to team up with their

		<p>resolution buddy and check up on how far their “ought-to” self is aligned with what they actually do.</p> <p>6. You can collect suggestions from the whole class and make a poster of my “ought-to” L2 self.</p>
	Planning	Students write their expectations in a form of resolutions in 2 copies
	Report	Students keep one keep and share the other with a partner; then, they discuss their expectations
3.Language Focus	Analysis	<p>Functions: discussing expectations and obligations</p> <p>Skills: reading and speaking</p>
	Practice	Present simple, modals, should, ought to, expect to + infinitive

7.2.5.1.5. Enhancing the Vision

Activity.5. Future Self Portraits (Act. 31 p.98)		
1.Pre-Task	<p>Aim: to create an image of the students’ L2 selves situated in the L2 setting, in order to make the vision more concrete and tangible</p> <p>➤ Arrange the classroom so there is one area where posters can be put up or photo/ slides displayed; in other areas create settings such as a café, office, market, etc.</p>	
2.Task Cycle	Task	Procedure
		<p>1. The day before, explain what you are going to do: tell the students that you want to take photos of them in the situations they visualized in one of the previous activities. Ask them to choose a situation and to wear or bring appropriate cloths to class (e.g. Smart cloths for office)</p> <p>2. On the day, set up different areas of the classroom: one where you can display posters or project photos (e.g. of a street scene, market, students outside university, etc.), another with tables set up as café, a third with shop or market and a fourth</p>

		<p>with desk and telephone.</p> <p>3. Ask students to go to the area they have chosen.</p> <p>4. Take photos of them in the sitting and doing the action they have chosen.</p> <p>5. Get them to write a short description of the photo: where they are and what they are doing</p> <p>6. Make a classroom display of the photos and a general discussion</p>
	Planning	Students write a short description of the photo: where they are and what they are doing
	Report	Each student prepares a report for the general discussion about his/her photo and comments on others' photos
3.Language Focus	Analysis	<p>Functions: description of places and actions</p> <p>Skills: Writing and Speaking</p>
	Practice	Simple present, present continuous, there is/are

7.2.5.2. Mapping the Journey

7.2.5.2.1. From Vision to Goals

Activity.6. Aims Poster (Act.36. P.115)		
1.Pre-Task	<p>Aim: to reach a class consensus on agreed class aims and to display this as a statement in the form of a poster</p> <p>➤ Make one copy of your completed Worksheet 2 for each student ; prepare a large sheet of poster paper by writing at the top :</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Our Long-Term Goals ▪ By the end of this course we will be able to..... <p>➤ Prepare a number of strips of coloured paper on which students can write the class goals.</p>	
2.Task Cycle	Task	Procedure

		<p>1. Bring the copies of worksheet 2, the poster and the paper strips to class. Give out a copy of worksheet 2 to each student.</p> <p>2. Explain to them that you have read carefully through all their Syllabus and Ambitions sheets and collected all the information on this worksheet.</p> <p>The worksheet shows what student aims are covered by the syllabus</p> <p>3. Explain to them that where a large number of students want something that is not on the syllabus /in the textbook, you will find some extra material to cover this (Column 2). Where the class feels a textbook item is not useful to them, it may be possible to omit this (Column 3), but, depending on either external requirements of the curriculum or your own.</p>
	Planning	Students read and think about something which is not on the syllabus
	Report	Students can work in pairs and have a dialogue about the missing points
3.Language Focus	Analysis	<p>Functions: future abilities, opinions</p> <p>Skills: reading, writing, speaking</p>
	Practice	Want to, will be able to, I think that

7.2.5.2.2. From Goals to Plan

Activity.7. Study Plan (Act.46. P.140)		
1.Pre-Task	<p>Aim: to organise the week's goals into a timetable</p> <p>➤ Make a copy of the timetable and fill in the class and homework goals for each day; make for each student.</p>	
2.Task Cycle	Task	<p>Procedure</p> <p>1. Give each student a copy of the timetable.</p> <p>2. Ask them to look at whichever of the activities you have done</p>

		previously to define their self-study tasks (activities 43, 44 or 45). Get them to fill these in on the timetable, indicating which days/evenings they will work and how long they will spend. 3. Get students to compare timetables in pairs and give each other feedback.
	Planning	Students fill in the timetable, indicating which days/evenings they will work and how long they will spend.
	Report	Students compare timetables in pairs and give each other feedback
3.Language Focus	Analysis	Functions: intentions, obligations Skills: reading, writing, speaking
	Practice	Will, need to

7.2.5.2.3. From Plans to Strategies

Activity.8. Time Management (Act.49. P.153)		
1.Pre-Task	Aim: To introduce students to some ideas for using time productively	
2.Task Cycle	Task	Procedure 1. Brainstorm with students a list of 'dead time : time when you are doing something boring that does not involve mental activity (e.g. waiting for the bus, driving to work , doing the ironing). 2. Ask them to calculate approximately how much time they spend doing these activities per day. 3. Ask them to calculate how much time they spend in class, how much time they spend on homework and how much time they are prepared to spend on independent study. 4. Get them to make a pie chart showing the relative proportions of class work, homework, and independent study the relative proportions of class work, homework,

		independent study and dead time. 5. Brainstorm a list of activities that they could do in the dead time (e.g. listening to a CD in the car, revising vocabulary at bus stop, etc.)
	Planning	Students make a mind map of their work inside and outside class and list activities that they could do in the deadline
	Report	Each student can make a self-talk about what happened exactly
3.Language Focus	Analysis	Functions: talking about preferences, giving opinions, making suggestions Skills: speaking, writing
	Practice	I'd like to, we could, shall we, I think that

7.2.5.2.4. From Strategies to Achievement

Activity.9. Study Contracts (Act.61. P.185)		
1.Pre-Task	<p>Aim: to get students to write individual or class contracts for the week's learning objectives, which a fellow student can then witness and monitor</p> <p>➤ Make one copy of the individual study contract for each student and a contract for the whole class.</p>	
2.Task Cycle	Task	<p>Procedure</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Make a copy of the contract form for each student. 2. Get them to fill it in individually for the week ahead. 3. Get them to team up with their study buddy. 4. Students witness each other's contracts and make a date to give each other feedback. 5. You can also make a contract the week's class work and homework that you set which will be monitored and signed by you. An example form for this is given in worksheet 2.

	Planning	Students fill in the copy of the contract form
	Report	Discuss their contracts in groups of 3 or 4
3.Language Focus	Analysis	Functions: identifying aims and objectives Skills: reading, writing and speaking
	Practice	Going to, will

7.2.5.3. Keeping the Vision Alive

7.2.5.3.1. Developing Identity

7.2.5.3.1.1. Identity Projects

Activity.10. Letter from My Future Self (Act.67. P.204)		
1.Pre-Task	Aim: To recognise the hard work that goes into achieving the ideal L2 self. ➤ Collect in students' letters; prepare and copy the 'Find someone who ...' reading quest worksheet	
2.Task Cycle	Task	Procedure 1. Ask students to imagine their ideal self in the future. In their imagination, they should move forward in time so that they are their ideal self. Now ask them to think back about the past and journey taken to get to their vision. What things helped to achieve their goal? What did they do to help their self-journey? 2. Ask them to write a thank you letter from their future self to their present self to express gratitude for all the things (hard work, good study habits, overcoming shyness, etc.) that helped them on their way. 3. Collect in the letters and for the next lesson prepare a

		<p>reading quest :</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pin the letters up around the walls and give each a letter: A, B, C etc. • Write a 'Find someone who...'reading quest; see sample worksheet blow. • Get students to walk around the class, reading the texts and identifying them by writing the appropriate letter next to each question.
	Planning	Students write a thank you letter from their future self to their present self to express gratitude for all the things
	Report	Students walk around the class, reading the texts and identifying them.
3.Langu age Focus	Analysis	<p>Functions: describing situations, thanking</p> <p>Skills: writing, reading</p>
	Practice	Present perfect, thank you for.....-ing.

7.2.5.3.1.2. Targeted Visualization

Activity.11.Work: Job Interview (Act.74, P.215)		
1.Pre-Task	<p>Aim: to visualise the L 2 having a job interview in the L2</p> <p>➤ Rehearse the script</p>	
2.Task Cycle	Task	<p>Procedure</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. If you like, play some soft background music. 2. Ask learners to close their eyes. Tell them you are going to ask them to imaging themselves having a job interview, speaking the L 2. 3. Begin asking the questions from the script; allowing time between each question for learners to imagine themselves in

		<p>scenario you 'dictate'.</p> <p>4. When you have finished, ask learners to open their eyes and share their vision with the person sitting next to them.</p> <p>5. Round of the activity by asking each learner to say something to the group about how they felt.</p>
	Planning	Students close their eyes and imagine themselves in a job interview using L2
	Report	<p>Learners share their vision with the person sitting next to them</p> <p>Then each students share to the group how he/she felt.</p>
3.Language Focus	Analysis	<p>Functions: Describing actions and feelings</p> <p>Skills: listening, speaking</p>
	Practice	Can, present simple, can, vocabulary for feelings and personal qualities

7.2.5.3.1.3. Role Models

Activity.12. Good Language Learners (Act.76. P.219)		
1.Pre-Task	<p>Aim: to raise student awareness about what makes a good language</p> <p>➤ Prepare a pile of small pieces of blank paper for each pair of students</p>	
2.Task Cycle	Task	<p>Procedure</p> <p>1. Put students in pairs and give each a pile of small pieces of blank paper.</p> <p>2. Ask students the question: what makes a good language learner? Get them to write answers on the small pieces of paper- one idea per piece. They should do this individually without talking. Set a time limit, say five minutes.</p> <p>3. At the end of time limit, the pairs look at their pile of ideas and discuss they can throw away any ideas that are duplicated to arrive at a pile of shared ideas.</p>

		<p>4. Put the pairs in fours and repeat the process.</p> <p>5. Now get the groups to turn the ideas into a series of questions. For example, if one of their ideas was 'speak the L2 as much as possible outside class', they can make the question: 'How much do you speak (L2) outside class?' they should work so that each student ends up with a questionnaire to take from the group for the next stage.</p> <p>6. Regroup the students so that the new groups contain one member from each of the old groups and get students to interview each other.</p>
	Planning	Students try to answer the given question: what makes a good learner?
	Report	<p>Learners discuss their ideas in pairs then in groups</p> <p>The groups turn the ideas into questions</p> <p>Students can be regrouped so that the new group contain one member from each of the old groups and they start to interview each other</p>
3.Language Focus	Analysis	<p>Functions: talking about habits and routines</p> <p>Skills: writing, speaking</p>
	Practice	Present simple

7.2.5.3.1.4. Self- Belief

Activity.13. Secret Friends (Act. 80. P.230)		
1.Pre-Task	<p>Aim: to offer students affirmation from their peers to increase self-esteem</p> <p>➤ Have a post in which students can post notes to their secret friends</p>	
2.Task Cycle	Task	<p>Procedure</p> <p>1. Introduce the idea of 'secret fiend':everyone in the class is secretly teamed up with a partner, who is their 'secret friend '</p>

		<p>(If you like, you can give everyone in the class more than one secret friends – suggest 2 or 3 max.)</p> <p>2. Get everyone to write their name on a slip of paper and put it in bag. (If you are doing multiple secret friends get everyone to write their name twice or three times on different slips.</p> <p>3. Go round with the bag as a lucky dip. Each student takes one name (or two or three) from the bag. This is the name of your secret friend (if you get your own name, you should put it back of course). You must not disclose this name to anyone.</p> <p>4. During the week that follows, students should write notes to their friends, praising them for things they did well, got better at or tried hard with. If you want to make sure everything is positive, keep a post box in the class and have certain times when “post” is delivered. That way you can scan through the notes and make sure everything is positive</p> <p>5. At the end of the term, it is nice to have secret friend gifts- either set a (very low) price limit, or say it must be something they have made.</p>
	Planning	Students write notes to their friends to praise them
	Report	The students who get the gift should give a speech to thank others. Also, students who praised the same person can discuss together and give a talk about that student
3.Language Focus	Analysis	<p>Functions: giving praise</p> <p>Skills: writing, reading</p>
	Practice	Positive adjectives and adverbs (such as well, great, fluently, confident, etc.)

7.2.5.3.2. Making the Vision Real

7.2.5.3.2.1. Entering the L2 Community

Activity.14. Guest Speakers (Act 88, P.246)		
1.Pre-Task	Aim: to give students the opportunity of listening to and interacting ➤ You will need to investigate for guest speakers	
2.Task Cycle	Task	Procedure 1. Compile a list of speakers you could invite your classroom to give short talks on various topics. You may like to organise this around topics the students are interested in or around your syllabus topics. If you are not in the L2-speaking country, you may still be able to find speakers from cultural organisations, among the expatriate community, or from among your friends and references for podcasts and you tube videos are given below. 2. Before the speaker comes, tell students briefly what they will speak about and get them to prepare some questions they would like to ask. Get one student to be responsible for thanking the speaker. 3. On the day, organise the session so that there is time for questions after the talk.
	Planning	Students prepare some questions they would like to ask
	Report	Students thank the speaker in different way and ask the speaker questions they prepared
3.Language Focus	Analysis	Functions: as required Skills: speaking, listening
	Practice	As required

7.2.5.3.2.2. Simulations: Let's Pretend

Activity.15. Airport (Act. 94, P.268)		
1.Pre-Task	<p>Aim: to practice asking for and giving information</p> <p>➤ Copy enough passenger cards for approximately two thirds of your class; make one copy of the help desk, transport desk, tourist information and flight information cards; you will also need a supply of tokens: counters or small pieces of card for each desk. Make copies of the additional role cards if you want to play the advanced version</p>	
2.Task Cycle	Task	Procedure
	Planning	Students prepare vocabulary related to airport
	Report	They ask different questions related to airport and travel
3.Language Focus	Analysis	<p>Functions: asking for and giving information</p> <p>Skills: listening and speaking</p>
	Practice	Where is.....? How do I get to...? What time....? How can I?

Conclusion

Teachers' appraisal of affective strategies is essential as their appraisal of every part of the learning/teaching process is necessary. However, and in the light of the research findings, it is also important to rethink about teachers' appraisal and evaluation in the Algerian higher education system. Teachers' appraisal strategies can play a great role in motivating teachers to perform better as well as make decision makers think about alternative education programs to support teachers. Many problems that were discussed in this study were not directly related to the teacher but to the policies and circumstances that contribute to such results. By the end of this research, some simple tools are introduced to help teachers rethink about their practice and help decision makers to observe and evaluate teachers to rethink about conducting an appraisal system. This software can be piloted for empirical research in the Algerian university and improved by experts in the field of quality insurance for standardization. In this way, the ministry of higher education can make teachers work toward professional development. Decision makers can consequently determine some criteria for teachers' recruitment, prerequisites of good teaching, teachers' evaluation and teachers' status and promotions.

General Conclusion

The study was set out to explore teachers' cognition and practice of affective strategies in teaching foreign language oral tasks as well as to see whether the participants of the study use task-based instruction or not. The study also sought to know which qualities do teachers have, which prerequisites they need for effective teaching and what are the different factors that affect their qualities. The study aimed to answer these questions:

- Do teachers have the required prerequisites of effective teaching?
- Do teachers teach oral expression using task based instruction?
- Do teachers use affective strategies during the different stages of the process to develop oral tasks?

The literature review was meant to demystify four concepts that most teachers are confused about. First, what is meant by teacher quality? Through research reading and comparing different theories, we found that teacher quality is not only what teaching bring to join a job as a teacher like a certification or experience but everything the teacher may possess or does. Therefore, teacher quality encompasses the prerequisites of good teaching (certification, training, coursework and experience) and the qualities teachers have or show during the whole learning/teaching process (personal attributes, organizing and managing for instruction, implementing instruction and monitoring learners' success and potential). Furthermore, quality is too complicated to be measured as a whole but it can be treated as sub-qualities and the latter can be presented as quality indicators which are the strategies teachers use during the process.

Second, two words teacher quality and teacher effectiveness are used in the literature interchangeably; however, the literature review revealed that they are totally different concepts. Teachers' quality is like we explained earlier everything the teacher has, does, or show to achieve his/her objectives in teaching whereas teacher effectiveness is measured through learners' outcomes (i.e. learners' results, scores and outcomes in tests and exams). Thus, if quality is to be measured or evaluated, all these criteria have to be considered. Furthermore, one has to take into account that learners' outcomes are affected by many internal and external factors beyond the teacher such as the learners' interest, level, motivation, the department policy, the circumstances and curriculum itself.

Third, after examining the different models and frameworks of motivation, we conclude that there is no comprehensive or perfect model but are implications from different studies in particular circumstances. Accordingly, each model was designed in a specific situation, setting and for a specific group of students. Nevertheless, models of Dornyei are given more emphasis because of the practical aspect they include. Most of his motivation models are in a form of strategies which are themselves quality indicators; so, they can be easy for teachers to use, for students to understand and respond and for others to evaluate the teacher. Fourth, the findings showed the different aspects of tasks and showed that in a task based lesson, tasks are not simple or general activities rather a specific kind of activity with a particular plan and sequence.

In this study, we did not follow the action research approach but we based it on the claim that "the improvement of a practice will come through the improvement of the understanding of a practice by its practitioners and the improvement of the situation within practice takes place" (Carr and Kemmis in Kosopoulou 2005: 369). Further, researchers argued that the emphasis on a specific situation of looking at practice in a particular context and trying to produce change in that context puts action research firmly in the case

study strategy. (Robson in Kosopoulou, 2005: 369). The study was conducted through a mixed method approach using the concurrent triangulation design to collect data and interpret it from different tools at the same time where each data from every tool supports the other. Data was collected using different tools questionnaire, observation and a self-evaluation checklist. Relying on different tools allowed to collect rich and in-depth data about the professional lives of the participants and relate their practice to the external factors and the environment where they work.

After discussing all domains based on the criteria mentioned in the previous section, data analysis and interpretations reveal two main conclusions. At the level of the teacher as a person, the participants possessed many positive personal attributes such caring, respect, enthusiasm and communication. However, at the level of the teaching/ learning process, the results highlighted a sort of deficiency in some qualities such as knowledge, management and organization, lesson plans and objectives which was due to different factors. Despite the fact that teachers' effectiveness is measured through learners' outcomes, in this study, the interpretation of results revealed different sorts of problems that intervened in students' success and potential as well as teachers' management and monitoring. Most of those factors are related to either higher education policy or department's policies.

To solve some of those problems and compensate, teachers' evaluation is recommended. Therefore, based on the results, two evaluation software are provided. The first is self-evaluation software to make teachers aware of their strength and weaknesses areas and encourage them for professional development and continuing learning. The second is others evaluation software which can be used by other colleagues, administration or students to evaluate teachers' practice in class. Both programs can support teachers to rethink about their practice and go for further research to improve it. In addition to that, a

sample motivational program is designed based on Hadfield and Dornyei framework of motivational tasks and Willis framework of task based learning. The tasks are perceived to be motivating as they are based on the learner as a person.

Furthermore, based on the study findings, we recommend three steps for further research to test the reliability of these evaluation forms using the software for a whole semester or academic year. First, if we need to improve teachers practice and help teachers develop, observation has to be integrated as a part of the higher education policy. Second, to maintain that and make teachers feel the difference and encourage them, we need to use an appraisal system to motivate teachers. Finally, to measure teachers' quality and effectiveness, departments and institutions should integrate students' evaluation and feedback regularly.

Throughout this research, many problems were faced at many levels during the different phases of the study. The first problem was the unavailability of materials about affective strategies, teacher quality and task based learning in Algeria which led to seeking abroad to find the needed resources. The second issue was associated with observation where the majority of participants did not accept to be observed or recorded. Additionally, despite the acceptance of fifteen teachers to be observed, the setting was artificial and participants excluded themselves from the setting. The final problem was at the level of statistics where many problems appeared because of the confusion between the different procedures of analysis and measurement tools in the different kinds of questions.

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Résumé

La problématique de l'efficacité des enseignants est fortement liée à leur motivation et leur affection. D'une part, pour être affectif, il faut posséder certaines qualités à différentes étapes du processus d'enseignement / apprentissage. La qualité des enseignants est non seulement les prérequis qu'ils ont, mais aussi tout ce qu'ils font, y compris les attributs personnels, la gestion de la classe et l'organisation, la mise en œuvre de l'enseignement et le suivi du succès des apprenants. D'autre part, pour améliorer la motivation et la communication, les enseignants devraient impliquer les apprenants dans toutes les activités de classe où ils ont moins d'enseignement et concentrer leur attention sur les apprenants dans les classes d'expression orale. Par conséquent, certaines méthodes centrées sur l'apprenant devraient être mises en œuvre, comme l'enseignement basé sur les tâches, qui tient compte de certains aspects du manque de motivation, de confiance, d'anxiété, de la capacité linguistique et du contexte d'apprentissage. Dans un tel problème complexe d'enseignement de l'expression orale, l'objectif de l'étude était d'explorer l'évaluation des stratégies affectives par les enseignants dans l'enseignement des langues étrangères afin de répondre à la question suivante: les enseignants utilisent-ils une conception basée sur des tâches et évaluent-ils les stratégies affectives d'enseignement des tâches orales en langue étrangère? L'étude émet l'hypothèse que lorsque les enseignants évaluent les stratégies affectives, ils atteindront l'enseignement affectif. Compte tenu de l'énoncé du problème, du but et des questions de la recherche, cette hypothèse principale devait être vérifiée par trois hypothèses sous-jacentes: - lorsque les enseignants utilisent des leçons fondées sur des tâches, la capacité communicative serait améliorée; lorsqu'ils utilisent des stratégies affectives, la performance des tâches orales des apprenants serait développée. L'étude a été menée dans trois universités algériennes avec trente professeurs d'expression orale à travers une méthode mixte utilisant la conception de triangulation simultanée. Les données recueillies par le moyen d'un questionnaire, d'une observation, d'une liste de vérification d'auto-évaluation et d'entrevues ont révélé qu'il existe un écart énorme dans la qualité des enseignants, ce qui a entraîné une carence dans leur pratique. Pour pallier au manque de qualité et d'éducation constaté de visu chez les enseignants, des solutions alternatives pourraient combler l'écart et résoudre certains problèmes. À la fin de cette recherche, deux logiciels ont été conçus pour aider les enseignants à évaluer leurs connaissances et leurs méthodes pédagogiques, ainsi que d'être évalués par d'autres. En outre, un modèle d'échantillonnage des tâches de motivation a été fourni sur la base du modèle de l'auto-système ou de la motivation et de la conception basée sur les tâches.

ملخص

ترتبط إشكالية فعالية المعلمين إلى حد كبير بمدى الدافعية والتأثير عندهم. لكي يكون المعلم فعال يجب أن يمتلك صفات معينة في المراحل المختلفة للعملية التعليمية. جودة المعلمين لا تتمثل فقط في المتطلبات الأساسية لديهم ولكن كل ما يقومون به بما فيها الصفات الشخصية إدارة الفصول الدراسية، تطبيق الاستراتيجيات ومراقبة نجاح المتعلمين. من ناحية أخرى، لتعزيز الدافعية والتواصل، يجب على المعلمين ادماج المتعلمين في كل نشاط في القسم حيث يتم التقليل من الالقاء وتركيز اهتمامهم على المتعلمين. ولذلك ينبغي تطبيق بعض المناهج التي تركز على المتعلم مثل التدريس بالمهام التي تأخذ بعين الاعتبار بعض الجوانب من الدافعية، الثقة، والخوف، القدرة اللغوية، والمحيط التعليمي. في ظل هذه المشكلة المعقدة في تدريس التعبير الشفهي، كان الهدف من هذه الدراسة الاطلاع على تقييم المعلمين لاستراتيجيات التأثير والتحفيز في تدريس المهام وذلك للإجابة على السؤال التالي: هل يستخدم المعلمون مناهج التدريس بالمهام وهل يقيمون استراتيجيات التأثير في تدريس مادة التعبير الشفهي. تفترض الدراسة أنه عندما يقيم المعلمين استراتيجيات التأثير، يتم الوصول إلى التدريس الفعال. في ضوء إشكالية، أسئلة وهدف البحث، سيتم التحقق من هذه الفرضية الأساسية اعتمادا على ثلاث فرضيات: اذا استعمل المعلمون التدريس بالمهام سيتم تعزيز الدافعية عند المتعلمين وتحسن القدرة التوصلية عندهم وعندما يستعمل المعلمون استراتيجيات التأثير يتحقق تقدم في اداء المتعلمين في مادة التعبير الشفهي. أجريت الدراسة في ثلاث جامعات الجزائرية مع ثلاثين معلم للتعبير الشفهي باستعمال مناهج البحث المختلط باستخدام الثلاثية المتزامنة. اظهرت نتائج الاستبان، الملاحظة، والمقياس التقويمي بأنه هناك فجوة كبيرة في جودة المعلمين مما أدى إلى نقص في اداؤهم. لتعويض هذا النقص في جودة المعلم والتعليم، ممكن للحلول البديلة ملء الفجوة وحل بعض المشاكل. في نهاية هذا البحث، تم تصميم برنامجين الكترونيين لمساعدة المعلمين لتقييم معرفتهم وادائهم. وكذلك ليتم تقييمهم من قبل الآخرين. اضافة الى ذلك، تم تقديم نموذجا لمهام تحفيزية اعتمادا على مناهج النظام الذاتي.

Questionnaire for Teachers

Dear teachers,

This questionnaire is a part of a PHD research. The aim of this research is to explore and evaluate teachers' appraisal of affective strategies in teaching foreign language oral tasks, case of teachers of OE at three Algerian universities. In this study teachers' appraisal includes : teachers' knowledge and awareness of affective strategies, teachers' motivation to teach, teachers' practice and finally teachers' self evaluation.

Your answers and suggestions will be very helpful and useful. So we would be grateful to you if you could answer the following questions.

Thanks in advance for your patience, help and collaboration.

NB. This questionnaire is attached to a self evaluation checklist.

Section One : General Information

1. Qualification
2. Specialization
3. Experience in teaching englishyears
4. Experience in Teaching at University.....years
5. Experience in Teaching Oral Expressionyears

Section Two : Teachers' Awareness and Knowledge of Affective Strategies

6. Do You Follow a Particular Approach or Method in Teaching Oral Expression Course ?

Yes	No

7. If yes which one and why ?

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8. In your view, learning motivation is

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9. According to you, the main sources of motivation are (mention 4 of them)

- ❖
- ❖
- ❖

10. According to your experience in teaching English, what are factors that affect learners' motivation (Mention at least 4)

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11. Do you follow a particular model of motivation in your teaching practice?

Yes	No

12. If yes which one and why ?

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Section Three : Teachers' Motivation to Teach

13. What Is Your Overall Level Of Satisfaction With Your Job As A Teacher ?

Very dissatisfied	Somewhat dissatisfied	Somewhat satisfied	Very satisfied

14. If you have the opportunity to start over a new career, would you choose to become a teacher ?

Yes	No

15. Generally Speaking Do You Think That The Teachers With Whom You Work Are Motivated

Yes	No

16. How Many Teachers You Know Or Work With Would You Classify As Unmotivated ?

1-2	3-4	5-6	7-8	9-10	More than 10

17. The following statements relate to factors that may affect your personal motivation as a teacher, please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement by circling the appropriate option. fill in the table with the appropriate number

strongly disagree-----1, disagree -----2, neutral-----3, agree-----4, strongly agree-----5

Factors	Agreement
a. I am allowed to work independently and to use my initiative	
b. I would like rules and procedures at work to be clearer	
c. I will change my current employer if I have the opportunity to do so	
d. My workload is very manageable	
e. The course material that I use offers variety in terms of activities and tasks	
f. I am happy with the professional development opportunities offered in my job	
g. I would like my work to be more enjoyable	
h. My working hours are too long	
i. I am happy with my promotion prospects	
j. I am fully satisfied with my current job	
k. My students' language learning success/achievement motivates me to carry on teaching	
l. I am fully satisfied with my profession as a teacher	
m. I have a good relationship with my manager	
n. I would like my job to be more challenging	
o. I have a job in which I can perform to the best of my ability	
p. I have a good relationship with my students	
q. I do not have a good relationship with my colleagues	
r. I would like to have greater job security	
s. I would like more involvement in the process of setting my students' learning goals	
t. I am satisfied with my fringe benefits	
u. I will change my profession if I have the opportunity to do so	

v. I know my teaching is effective in helping my students to learn English	
w. I would like to receive more feedback about my teaching from my manager	
x. I am satisfied with my current salary	

18. On The Following 6-Point Scale, Indicate The Degree To Which Each Of The Following Serve As A Motivating Factor Or Unmotivating Factor For Teachers

N°	Factor s	Highly unmotivating					Highly motivating
a.	Recognition , receiving praise from administration, head, dean, students ...	1	2	3	4	5	6
b.	Potential for professional growth (possibility to improve one's skills)	1	2	3	4	5	6
c.	Interpersonal relationships with colleagues (interaction with other teachers)	1	2	3	4	5	6
d.	Salary	1	2	3	4	5	6
e.	Job security	1	2	3	4	5	6
f.	Status (professional status of teaching)	1	2	3	4	5	6
g.	Interpersonal relationship with administration	1	2	3	4	5	6
h.	Sense of achievement (experiencing success)	1	2	3	4	5	6
i.	Working conditions (building conditions, amount of work, facilities available)	1	2	3	4	5	6
j.	Responsibility (authority, autonomy and responsibility for own work)	1	2	3	4	5	6
k.	Potential for advancement (eg, possibility of assuming different positions in the profession)	1	2	3	4	5	6
l.	Work itself (aspects associated with the tasks of teaching)	1	2	3	4	5	6
m.	Factors in personal life (effects of teaching on one's personal life)	1	2	3	4	5	6
n.	Interpersonal relationships with students	1	2	3	4	5	6
o.	Sense of accountability (eg being held directly responsible for student learning)	1	2	3	4	5	6

19. In the following question rate the factors that influence your teaching practice of FL oral tasks ; the numbers represent the following values :

[1] Strong influence

[3] Little influence

[5] Do not know /I can

[2] Significant influence

[4] No influence at all

not tell

A. Factors that influence your practice

Head's views	1	2	3	4	5
Students' level	1	2	3	4	5
Materials	1	2	3	4	5
Colleagues' views	1	2	3	4	5
Time devoted for sessions	1	2	3	4	5
Syllabus	1	2	3	4	5
Class size	1	2	3	4	5
My own beliefs	1	2	3	4	5

B. What might lead you to change your teaching practice ?

A change in the syllabus or department policy	1	2	3	4	5
Your own understanding of the positive effect that a new practice has on class	1	2	3	4	5
Suggestions of your colleagues or students	1	2	3	4	5
Motivation (any reward given by your institution)	1	2	3	4	5

20. In you opinion, ways of improving teaching practice may include (tick the appropriate answer (s):

A. Cooperation between teachers

B. Quality of resources

C. Quantity of resources

D. Smaller class size

E. In-service training

F. Clear department policy

G. More time for reading

25. Briefly describe one or two of your most important beliefs about teaching Oral tasks that guide you in your day to day teaching (eg. communication strategies play an important role in language learning)

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26. Think about your first year(s) of teaching and compare what you did **then** with what you do **now** ; what are some of the important ways your approach to teaching Oral Expression

<u>Then</u>	<u>Now</u>
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27. What are the sources of the changes you identified above ? mention 3 most important of the following options (1, 2,3) and explain your response in the space provided

- ❖ Feedback from colleagues
- ❖ Feedback from students
- ❖ Through trial and error
- ❖ Keeping a teaching journal
- ❖ Attending in – service courses
- ❖ Attending seminars and conferences
- ❖ Self discovery

Explain.....

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Section five : Teachers' Practice of Affective Strategies

28. How often you use these strategies in teaching FL oral tasks (put a tick and give exmaples when needed)

Strategy	always	Often	Rarely	Never	If your answer is always or often state an example (of an activity) to achieve this strategy
Develop students' self efficacy					
Decrease their anxiety					
Promoting motivation – enhancing attributions					
Encouraging students to set attainable sub-goals					

Increasing the attractiveness of a course content					
Set a personal example with your own behaviour					
Create a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom					
Present FL tasks properly					
Develop a good relationship with learners					
Increase the learners' linguistic self confidence					
Make the FL tasks interesting					
Promote learners' autonomy					
Personalize the learning process					
Increase learners' goal orientedness					
Familiarize learners with the target language Culture					
Arousing interest / attention in the					

topic / task					
Creating relevance of tasks to students' lives					
Developing an expectancy of success and feeling of being in control/confidence					
Producing satisfaction in the outcome through intrinsic/ extrinsic rewards					

29. Please indicate how often you use the following motivational strategies in your class, by putting a tick in the appropriate option.

Strategies	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Always
1) I give my students opportunities to experience success in their learning				
2) I give clear instructions for tasks by modelling				
3) I set class rules myself rather than allowing my students to do so				
4) I explain the importance of class rules to my students				
5) I encourage my students to give suggestions for improving the course				
6) I share my personal interests with my students				
7) I use activities that familiarise students with the target culture				
8) I encourage my students to use English outside the classroom				
9) I teach my students self-learning strategies				
10) I try to establish a good rapport with my students				
11) I investigate my students learning needs				
12) I show my students that I care about them as people				
13) I am careful to avoid embarrassing my students when giving feedback				
14) I encourage my students to set specific, learning goals for themselves				
15) I use activities which allow my students to mix				
16) I highlight and review class learning goals with my students				
17) I create a supportive classroom environment so my students feel encouraged to take risks				

18) I ask my students what they like about the course/ learning process				
19) I encourage students to be realistic about their language learning goals				
20) I make sure tasks are challenging but doable for my students				
21) I make myself available to my students outside class time				
22) I invite former/senior students to share their learning experiences				
23) I use humour in my classroom				
24) I give immediate feedback to my students				
25) I reward my students when they succeed				
26) I start all my lessons with the same presentation technique				
27) I use tasks that are well below my students' ability				
28) I help my students to get to know each other				
29) I show my students how much they have progressed or learnt				
30) I explain why a task is meaningful or relevant				
31) I use tasks that allow my students to interact with each other				
32) I encourage my students to assess themselves				
33) I teach my students how to use self-motivating strategies				
34) I remind my students of the benefits of learning English				
35) I use a short opening activity to relax and help my students to focus				
36) I tell my students that they can learn if they make the necessary effort				
37) I tell my students that communicating meaning effectively, is more important than grammatical accuracy				
38) I use authentic tasks (to prepare my students for real life situations)				
39) I encourage my students to teach each other				
40) make tasks attractive by using games and competitions				
41) I match tasks to my students' needs/ interests rather than exam requirements				
42) I remind students that mistakes are a natural part of learning				
43) I offer a variety of tasks to my students				

30. Do have any suggestion or comment to improve this questionnaire ?

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Teachers' Self-Evaluation Checklist

	Quality	Indicators	Often	Rarely	Never
Teacher' Personal & Professional Qualities	Caring	I exhibit active listening	✓		
		I show concern for students' emotional and physical well-being	✓		
		I display interest in and about the students lives outside university		✓	
		I create a supportive and warm classroom climate	✓		
	Shows Fairness And Respect	I respond to misbehaviour on an individual level	✓		
		I prevent situations in which a student loses peer respect	✓		
		I treat students equally	✓		
		I create situations for all students to succeed	✓		
		I show respect to all students	✓		
	Interactions With Students	I maintain professional role while being friendly	✓		
		I Give students' responsibility		✓	
		I Know students' interests both in and out of university		✓	
		I Value what students say	✓		
		I Interact in a fun, playful manner ;jokes when appropriate	✓		
	Enthusiasm	I Show joy for the content material			✓
		I Take pleasure in teaching	✓		
		I Demonstrate involvement in learningactivities outside the classroom			✓
	Motivation	I Maintain high quality work	✓		
		I Return students' work in a timely manner	✓		
		I Provide students with meaningful feedback	✓		
Dedication To Teaching	I Possess a positive attitude toward life and teaching	✓			
	I Spend time outside university to prepare	✓			
	I Participate in university activities			✓	
	I Accept responsibility for student outcomes	✓			
	Seek professional development	✓			

	I Find, implement and share new instructional strategies	✓		
Reflective Practice	I Know areas of personal strengths and weaknesses	•		
	I Use reflection to improve teaching		•	
	Set high expectations for personal classroom performance	•		
	I Demonstrate high efficacy	•		
Team Teaching	I co-produce teaching and learning materials as much as possible to produce co-ownership of materials		•	
	I organize team sessions to exchange ideas, responsibilities and get support		•	
	I keep each other informed of what we are doing and how it is going		•	
Being A Good Collaborative Colleague	I am punctual when attending meetings and ensure that i have prepared properly for them	•		
	I keep my colleagues briefed about what I am currently working on	•		
	I make available to colleagues my teaching materials, including handouts, exercises and online data	•		
Mentoring New Colleagues	I provide an environment in which new colleagues feel supported and welcomed and make it easy for them to ask questions	•		
	I provide written briefings on key issues for new colleagues covering both formal and informal matters	•		
	I encourage and invite then to attend my session	•		
Contributing Effectively To Meetings	I attend all the meetings and make reports to be aware of every new issue	•		
Coping With Difficult People Colleagues	I maintain a professional stance when others are being petty, bureaucratic or conflictual	•		
	I have appropriate strategies which enable me to handle other people 's unprofessional behaviour such as temper tantrums, personal aggression	•		
	I manage to avoid temptation to use improper channels such as gossiping, bitchiness when faced with difficult colleagues	•		
	I endeavour to perceive difficulties in terms of actions or situations rather than in terms of people		•	
	I try to find out the circumstances which may lead to people behaving in a difficult way, and to understand their point of view even when i cannot agree with it	•		
	I distinguish carefully between conflicts of ideas and conflicts of personality	•		

		I value others' opinions and respect their right to hold them even when diametrically opposed to my own views	•		
Ensuring Effective Communication With Learners		I ensure that learners are aware of the times and places at which i am available for individual consultation	•		
		When I receive messages from learners (in paper or e-mail), I reply quickly to their request	•		
		I encourage learners to use emails to interact with me directly		•	
Equal Opportunities		I check that I am not treating learners differently in sessions or tasks	•		
		I make effort to pronounce the names of my students	•		
		I do not use jokes or anecdotes which could be interpreted as oppressive to any group	•		
		I seek feedback from learners to probe any feelings they have regarding being treated unequally in any respect	•		
		I dont relate grading to personal behaviour or conflicts with students	•		
Continuing To Learn About Learning		I keep myself up to date with new developments in teaching and learning	•		
		I regularly read articles, papers and books about the processes and practices of teaching and learning in higher education		•	
		I belong to a professional network for the development of teaching and learning in my subject area	•		
		I attend conferences and staff development workshops about teaching, learning and assessment		•	
		I contribute actively to conferences and workshops about teaching and learnibg	•		
		I write articles for publication in my area	•		
		I actively follow the published research literature in at least one of the disciplines i teach regularly		•	
		I contribute to the design of the curriculum for those subjects where I have detailed insight to update the curiculum	•		
		I share my knowledge and activities with my learners to raise their awareness	•		
		I attend sessions of teachers in the english speaking countries to know new techniques and materials			•
		I contact professionals and experts in my area of interest to get more experience and insight		•	

Classroom Management & Organization	Classroom Management	I use consistent and proactive discipline	•		
		I establish routines for all daily tasks and needs	•		
		I orchestrate smooth transitions and continuity of classroom momentum	•		
		I balance variety and challenge in students' activities	•		
		I am aware of all activities in the classroom	•		
		I anticipate potential problems	•		
		I use space, proximity or movement around the classroom for nearness to trouble spots and to encourage attention	•		
	Organization	I handle routine tasks promptly, efficiently and consistently			
		I prepare materials in advance and has them ready to use	•		
		I organize classroom space efficiently			
	Discipline Of Students	I interpret and respond to inappropriate behaviour promptly	•		
		I implement rules for behaviour fairly and consistently	•		
		I reinforce and reiterate expectations for positive behavior	•		
		I use appropriate disciplinary measures	•		
	Importance Of Instruction	I focuse classroom time on teaching and learning	•		
		I link instruction to students real life situations		•	
	Time Allocation	I follow a consistent schedule and maintains procedures and routines	•		
		I handle administrative tasks quickly and efficiently	•		
		I prepare materials in advance	•		
		I maintain momentum within and accross lessons			
		I limit disruptions and interruptions	•		
	Teachers' Expectations	I set clearly articulated high expectationsfor self and students			
		I orient the classroom experience toward improvement and growth	•		
		I stresse student responsibility and accountability	•		
	Intruction Plans	I carefully link learning objectives and activities	•		
		I organize content for effective presentation	•		

		I explore student understanding by asking questions	•		
		I consider students attention span and learning styles when designing lessons	•		
		I develop objectives, questions and activities that reflect higher and lower level cognitive skills as appropriate for the content and the students	•		
	Clarity	I inform learners of lesson objectives like describing what behaviours will be tested or required on future assignments as a result of the lesson	•		
		I provide learners with an advance organizer such as placing lesson in perspective of past and or future lessons		•	
		I check for task relevant prior learning at beginning of the lesson, eg determines level of understanding of prerequisite facts or concepts and reaches if necessary	•		
		I give directives slowly and distinctly like repeating directives when needed and dividing them into smaller pieces	•		
		I know ability levels and teaches at or slightly above learners' current level of understanding	•		
		I use examples, illustrations and demonstrations to explain and clarify like using visuals to help interpret and reinforce main points		•	
		I provide review or summary at end of each lesson		•	
		Teacher Task Orientation	I develop unit and lesson plans that reflect the most relevant features of the curriculum guide or adapted text		•
	I handle administrative and clerical interruptions efficiently like visitors, announcements, collection of money or dispensing of materials by anticipating and preorganizing some tasks and deferring others to non -instructional time		•		
	I Stop or prevent misbehavior with a minimum of class disruption		•		
	I select the most appropriate instructional model for the objectives being taught like using direct instruction for knowledge and comprehension objectives and indirect instruction for inquiry and problem solving objectives		•		
	I build to unit outcomes with clearly definable events as in a form of a weekly or monthly review, feedback and testing sessions			•	
Implementing Instruction	Instructional Strategies	I employ different techniques and instructional strategies such as hand-on learning	✓		
		I stress meaningful conceptualization , emphasizing the students' own knowledge of the world		✓	
		I suit instruction to students' achievement levels and needs	✓		

	I use a variety of grouping strategies	✓		
Content And Expectation	I set overall high expectations for improvement and growth in the classroom	✓		
	I give clear examples and offers guided practice	✓		
	I stress students' responsibility and accountability in meeting expectations	✓		
	I teach metacognitive strategies to support reflection on learning progress		✓	
Complexity	I am concerned with having students learn and demonstrate understanding of meaning rather than memorization	✓		
	I hold reading as a priority	✓		
	I emphasize higher order thinking skills in learning		✓	
Questioning	I ask questions that reflect the type of content and the objectives of the lesson	✓		
	I vary question type to maintain interest and momentum	✓		
	I prepare questions in advance	✓		
	I use wait time during questionnaing	✓		
	I vary intruactional strategies , types of assignments and activities	✓		
	I lead, directs and paces students' activities		✓	
Setting Independent Study Tasks	I make it clear to learners how much time they should reasonably spend on my subject outside class contact hours		✓	
	I give clear links between independent study tasks I set and the intended learning objectives		✓	
	I give instructions of the task in writing		✓	
	I clarify how much each assignment will count in the overall scheme of assessed work	✓		
	I ensure that learners get feedback for the task rapidly and regularly	✓		
Lesson Plans	I already prepare my lesson plans for oral expression module	✓		
Variety	I use attention- gaining devices like beginning with a challenging question or visuals or example		✓	
	I show enthusiasm and animation through variation in eye contact, voice and gestures like chaging picth and volume and moving about during transitions to a new activity	✓		
	I vary mode of presentation	✓		
	I use a mix of rewards and reinforces like extra credit, verbal praise and independent study weekly or monthly	✓		
	I incorporate students' ideas or participationin some aspects of the instruction like using	✓		

	indirect instruction or divergent questioning			
	I vary types of questions divergent, convergent and probes to clarify, to solicit and to redirect	✓		
	I use attention- gaining devices like beginning with a challenging question or visuals or example		✓	
Types of Activities	I design oral tasks that are based only on speaking	✓		
	I design oral tasks that are based on listening and speaking		✓	
	I design tasks integrating the four skills		✓	
	I rely more on whole group discussion		✓	
	I rely most on projects on oral presentation prepared by students	✓		
Helping Learners to Value Group Work	I demonstrate to learners the benefits of group work	✓		
	I help learners working in groups to feel a sense of ownership of the operation of the group and talk to them about my personal experience with group work	✓		
Organizing Learners to Peer Assess	I ensure that the criteria for assessment are clear, explicit and understood by everyone	✓		
	I provide opportunity for learners to formulate the criteria which they will later use in peer assessment		✓	
	I demonstrate to learners the value of peer assessing as a deep learning device		✓	
	I give learners practice at devising assessment criteria		✓	
	I use peer assessment in a variety of tasks		✓	
	I give students samples of rubrics to assess speaking performance		✓	
	I count peer assessment in the overall assessment of learners during the whole semester		✓	
Assessing Group Work	I count individual performances and effort not the final product of the task or group work	✓		
Preparing Materials Needed	I use handouts to support my lessons	✓		
	I use the data show			✓
	I use the language laboratory		✓	
	I use the online data and conferences			✓
	I use TV shows			✓
	I use radio programs			✓

		I use posters and maps			✓
	Guide Students to Use Library	I tell my students about how to use library of the university		✓	
		I give students references that suite their needs and levels	✓		
	Guide Students to Use Online Resources	I discuss with students the way they are supposed to follow when dealing with websites and which ones are more reliable for research and study (educational software)		✓	
	Using Email to Help Students	I give my students my personal email in case they need any help	✓		
		I help students create research papers and projects in a form of google document using gmails			✓
	Using Personal Websites & Blogs to Help & Guide Students	I created a personal website or blog to be a space for my students to interact with me and with each other.			✓
	Engaging Students in the Learning Process	I elicit the desired behaviour immediately after the instructional stimuli like providing exercises or work book problems with which desired behaviour can be practiced		✓	
		I provide opportunities for feedback in non evaluative atmosphere like asking students to respond as a group or covertly the first time through	✓		
		I use individual or group activities like performance contacts, cds games and simulations and learning centres as motivational aides when needs		✓	
		I use meaningful verbal praise to get and keep students actively practicing in the learning process	✓		
I monitor seatwork and frequently checks progress during independent practice		✓			
Monitoring Students'	Homework	I clearly explain homeworks	✓		
		I relate homework to the content under study and to students capacity	✓		
	Monitoring Students' Progress	I target questions to lesson objectives	✓		
		I think through liekly misconceptions that may occur during instruction and monitor students for these misconceptions		✓	
		I give clear, specific and timely feedback	✓		
		I reteach students who did not achieve mastery and offers tutoring to students who seek additional help		✓	
Responding To	I monitor and assess student progress	✓			

Progress And Potential	Students' Needs And Abilities	I use data to make instructional decisions		✓	
		I know and understand students as individuals in terms of ability, achievement, learning styles and needs	✓		
	Getting To Know Learners' Names	I encourage students to know each others' names and to use them in sessions	✓		
		I use a particular strategy to memorize students' names such as personal cards	✓		
		I use names games at beginning of the year to know names of each other and specific and unique things as reference		✓	
	Being Available To Learners	I devote two or three hours per week to be available for my students and I inform them about	✓		
	Helping Learners To Solve Problems	I listen to learners and usually ask them about their learning problems and I work to help solving them	✓		
	Negotiating Learning Agreements	I identify parts of the syllabus where it is appropriate for learners to have some choice over what they learn and at what pace		✓	
		I conduct diagnostic test at the beginning of each semester to know in order for learners to contribute in the selection of tasks and activities		✓	
	Giving Reference For Further Study	I give learners clear idea about books and materials they need and that fit their level and needs (books, DVDs, websites....)	✓		
	Students' Success	I establish unit and lesson content that reflects prior learning such as planning tasks and lessons that consider task relevant prior information		✓	
		I a correctives immediately after initial response such as showing a model of correct answer and how to attain it after first crude response is given	✓		
		I divide instuctional stimuli into small chunks by establishing bite- size lessons that can be easily digested by learners at their current level of functioning	✓		
		I plan transitions to new material in easy to grasp steps so that each new lesson is seen as an extention of previous lessons	✓		
		I vary the pace at which stimuli are presented and continually builds toward a climax or key event like using review, feedback and testing sessions to form intervals of increasing and decreasing intensity and expectation	✓		

Teachers' Evaluation Form

Dimensions		Indicators	Poor 1	Fair 2	Good 3	Excellent 4
The Language Level		Language Used is Clear and simple				
		Language Used is Accurate				
		Language Used is Consistent				
The Learner Level		Teachers' Caring				
		Teachers' Fairness and Respect				
		Interaction and Communication with students				
		Engaging Students in Tasks				
		Monitorinhg Students Success				
		Being Available and Helping Learners to Solve Learning problems				
The Learning Situation Level	Teacher-Specific	Teachers' Motivation and Enthusiasm				
		Dedication to teaching				
		Team teaching and Collaboration				
	Course-Specific (TASK)	Continuing to learn about learning				
		Task Objectives				
		Task Planning				
		Task Variation				
		Skills Integration				
		Task Clarity				
		Teacher Task Orientation				
	Classroom-Specific (Environment)	Task Monitoring				
		Content and Expectations				
		Teachers' Feedback				
		Classroom Organization				
		Time Management				
		Pair and Group Work				
		Discipline of Students				
Integrating Materials and Technology						



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République Algérienne Démocratique et Populaire
وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي
Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur et de la Recherche Scientifique
المدرسة العليا للأساتذة قسنطينة
Ecole Normale Supérieure Constantine



استمارة تنقيط منحة تحسين الأداء البيداغوجي و العلمي

الرقم

القسم

الاسم و اللقب:

الثلاثي :

السنة :

الرتبة :

الموظيفة :

النقطة	ملاحظات رئيس المصلحة	المعايير
20/____		(1) احترام توقيت الأعمال البيداغوجية الموكلة للأستاذ
05/____		(2) احترام آجال أنجاز البرنامج البيداغوجي
06/____		(3) المشاركة الفعلية في أعمال الهيئات البيداغوجية و العلمية
07/____		(4) المشاركة الفعلية في نشاطات تقييم الطلبة
02/____		(5) استعمال التكنولوجيات الحديثة في النشاطات البيداغوجية و البحث
40/____		المجموع

مرسوم تنفيذي رقم 252-10 المؤرخ في 20-10-2010 ، يتضمن تأسيس نظام تعويضي لفائدة الأستاذ الباحث .
قرار رقم 735 المؤرخ في 15-12-10 يتضمن تحديد معايير تنقيط الأستاذ الباحث للاستفادة من منحة تحسين الاداء البيداغوجي و العلمي

قسنطينة في :

المعني

المدير

رئيس القسم