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The Use of Reward and Cooperative Learning for Motivating Learners in Writing

A Case Study of First-Year Middle School Pupils at Okba Ibn Nafaa Middle School in Mila.

Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment for the requirements of the Magister degree in Applied Linguistics and English Language Teaching

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my family. First, I thank my parents for their financial and emotional support and for instilling in me the value of learning. Words cannot interpret my gratitude for their everlasting patience, understanding and love. To my sisters and brothers who have motivated me to complete this journey through their wise encouragement.

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Abstract

Intrinsic motivation is one of the critical elements required for successful writing. Therefore, teachers need to provide pertinent motivators according to learners' needs. This research work tackles learners' reluctance to write in English. Its focal point is the use of verbal reward as an extrinsic motivator and cooperative learning as an intrinsic motivator in teaching writing. The overarching aim is then to determine the effect of using cooperative learning and verbal reward on the intrinsic motivation of first-year pupils to write English paragraphs at Okba Ibn Nafaa Middle School in Mila. This investigation is based on the hypothesis that if writing English paragraphs is taught under cooperative learning and verbal reward conditions, learners' intrinsic motivation to write would be increased. For this purpose, we relied on the true or false test of knowledge about cooperative learning and the teachers' questionnaire to select one teacher for the classroom observation which is used to get a clear vision about the pupils and the research questions. Then, the field notes are transferred into contact summary forms. Three main questions have been chosen for the study: (1) what people, events, or situations were involved? (2) what were the main themes or issues in the contact? and (3) what new target questions and speculations about the field situations were suggested by the contact? Finally, the teachers' and learners' questionnaires seek to check the hypothesis. The results of the investigation have shown that pupils who write under cooperative learning and verbal reward conditions display an increase in their intrinsic motivation to write English paragraphs. This positive outcome reflects the efficacy of integrating intrinsic and extrinsic motivators to respond to learners' needs and helps to suggest some modest pedagogical implications to help teachers secure potent outcomes when teaching writing.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CIRC	Cooperative Integrated Reading & Composition
CL	Cooperative Learning
EM	Extrinsic Motivation
ER	Extrinsic Rewards
FL	Foreign Language
GI	Group Investigation
GL	Group Learning
GW	Group Work
IN	Individual Learning
IM	Intrinsic Motivation
LT	Learning Together
SDT	Self-Determination Theory
SL	Second Language
STAD	Student Team Achievement Divisions
TAI	Team Assisted Instruction
TGT	Teams -Games- Tournaments
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

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INTRODUCTION

1. Statement of the Problem

Out of the need for the high involvement of the learners in writing tasks, there has been a great deal of discussion about how to increase learners' intrinsic motivation to write in English. Some researchers accentuate the use of extrinsic motivators like reward, while others prefer to rely on intrinsic motivators like cooperative learning.

My modest teaching experience in several middle schools in Mila provided me with an opportunity to observe how instructors report their worry due, in one part, to the pupils' lack of motivation to write English paragraphs, and in another part to their disbelief in the efficacy of cooperative learning. I also observed that many instructors do not take advantage of verbal reward and cooperative learning in designing lessons assigned for teaching writing. On the basis of my observations and the two assumptions of researchers, the problem of this study revolves around students' reluctance to write.

2. Aim of the Study

The aim of this study is to examine the impact of combining verbal reward and cooperative learning on learners' intrinsic motivation to write English paragraphs. It is based on the idea that learners require to write in a motivating climate which includes intrinsic and extrinsic motivators to cover all learners' motivational interests.

3. Research Questions and Hypothesis

The following research questions guided the inquiry:

1) What is the effect of using verbal reward and cooperative learning on learners' intrinsic motivation to write English paragraphs?

2) Does the use of verbal reward and cooperative learning improve the pupils' writings?

Therefore, we hypothesize that if writing English paragraphs is taught under cooperative learning and verbal reward conditions, pupils' intrinsic motivation to write would be increased.

4. Definition of Key Terms

4.1 The Paragraph

Kane (1998: 89) sees that "Conventionally in composition, however, a paragraph is a group of sentences developing a common idea called the topic." Smith (2003: 49) states that "A good paragraph contains a thesis sentence, supporting sentences, and a concluding sentence. The average paragraph is four to six sentences long." Thus, the paragraph is a group of strongly-tied sentences that revolve around a main idea.

4.2 Motivation

Keller (1983: 389) reports that motivation is "the magnitude and direction of behaviour. In other words, it refers to the choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid, and the degree of effort they will exert in that respect". As such, both internal and external factors can have an immediate influence on motivation. Thus, motivation can be intrinsic or extrinsic.

4.2.1 Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

Witzel and Mercer (2003: 89) state the differences between internal and external motivation clarifying that:

> Intrinsic motivation can best be described as motivation that takes place when the person performing the task develops internally satisfying consequences during or after the behaviour. Some examples of intrinsic rewards are task completion, feedback or result, acquisition of knowledge or skills, and a sense of mastery. Extrinsic motivation takes place when someone engages in a certain behaviour to reach satisfying consequences outside of the person during or after the behaviour. Some examples of extrinsic rewards are primary objects, tangible objects, token systems, social approval, and project activities.

Intrinsic motivation refers to the desire to engage in an activity which stems from the experience of pleasure or inherent interest. It results from the individual's need for competence and self-determination. Extrinsic motivation, however, refers to the tendency to perform activities for external outcomes which are not related to the behaviour itself.

4.3 Cooperative learning

Olsen and Kagan (1992: 8) state that:

> Cooperative learning is a group learning activity organized so that learning is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners in groups and in which each learner is held accountable for his or her own learning and is motivated to increase the learning of others.

Thus, cooperative learning is a teaching method that is conditioned by the transmission of knowledge among the group members who share responsibility to achieve individual and group success. This implies that the heterogeneity of the groups is necessary for the sake of accomplishing a unified goal. In this case, learners are assigned to groups involving different capacities, which secure achieving social and academic goals while pursuing outcomes that are beneficial to all group members. On this basis, cooperative learning is a method for teaching in which learners are potent elements and whose interaction through

small, structured, and heterogeneous groups guarantees their own and each other's learning.

4.4 Reward

According to Burton *et. al*. (2003: 242), reward "refers to anything that promotes a behaviour being repeated in the future." Therefore, a reward is an incentive that induces learners' engagement in a particular task. It can take the form of monetary, symbolic reward, or feedback.

5. Means of Research

For the sake of understanding the impact of using reward and cooperative learning on learners' intrinsic motivation to write English paragraphs, teachers' and learners' questionnaires as well as classroom observation have been chosen as suitable descriptive tools for gathering data. Before the teachers' questionnaire was administered and classroom observation was carried out, the true or false test of knowledge about cooperative learning is used to determine the teachers' level of knowledge about the target method. The choice of the observational method is justified by having opportunities for constant observation and interaction with the participants. It helps in getting insights into what the data would reveal about their learning behaviors. In this observation, the field notes are transferred into contact summary forms (Miles: 1984) which highlight answering three significant questions. These questions focus on people, events, and situations involved; the main themes or issues in the contact which include activities, the setting, the types of reward interdependence, and the use of time; in addition to the new target questions. Finally, we have opted for the learners' questionnaire to check the effect

of these instructional elements on the pupils' intrinsic motivation to write English paragraphs.

6. Structure of the Dissertation

The study consists of six chapters. The first four chapters include the review of literature, and the last tow chapters highlight the empirical part of the dissertation.

The first chapter starts with defining the writing skill and pinpointing its relationship with speaking and reading. The main approaches to teaching writing are reviewed including the process, the product, the genre, and the process-genre-based approaches. This is followed by a review of developing the writing skill and providing assessment and feedback.

Chapter two provides an overview of cooperative learning in teaching through defining it, comparing it with group learning, presenting the theoretical foundations for this kind of learning, treating its basic elements and benefits, accentuating cooperative writing, and finally comparing it with collaborative learning.

Chapter three affords a clear understanding of reward through defining it and exhibiting its types and relevance. It emphasizes the debate for and against reward and the various ways of dispensing it, and it and ends up with highlighting cooperative learning in connection with reward.

Chapter four is designed to deal with the essence of motivation, the main theories tackling its nature and its effect on human behaviour. Finally, it highlights the impact of cooperative learning and reward on motivation.

Chapter five encompasses the field investigation. It includes the means of data collection where the choice of the method is justified. Then, the sample population is described focusing on the learners' age and their level of proficiency. The teacher is selected on the basis of the true / false test of knowledge about cooperative learning which is developed by reference to the original test designed by Bouas (1993) and the teachers' questionnaire which aims at determining the enhancement of pupils' intrinsic motivation and writing performance as a result of cooperative learning and verbal reward. In the next point, the content of the "Produce" lessons belonging to files three and four of *Spotlight on English*, *Book One*, are highlighted. The 'contact summary forms' are used to summarize the field notes. According to Miles (1984) they deal with people, events, and situations involved; the main themes or issues in the contact; in addition to the new target questions, speculations, or hunches which are suggested by the contact. This chapter is culminated by the findings resulting from the observations, analyses and self-effacing comments. Ultimately, the learners' questionnaire is provided in Arabic to check the influence of cooperative learning and verbal reward on the enhancement of learners' intrinsic motivation to write English paragraphs.

Chapter six is devoted to pedagogical implications which draw from the literary survey and the field work and which spotlight on the process of writing, integrating reading and writing, time exploitation, feedback, cooperative learning, the use of reward as well as cooperation and reward.

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CHAPTER ONE
TEACHING WRITING

Introduction

This chapter offers a brief review of the literature relevant to the study. It explores the nature of writing through defining it. It also looks at how writing is connected to reading and speaking. It focuses on the main approaches for developing it, namely the product approach, the process approach, the genre approach and the process-genre approach. It will also allude to the discussion of how assessment and feedback are allocated a cardinal position in the learning process.

Mastering a foreign language (FL) provides a wide opportunity for an individual to enhance his standard of living and functioning in today's society. It involves learning the four skills which are listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Writing is one of the powerful learning experiences in which the learner interacts with the target language, and through which he can demonstrate that he is, no longer, the recipient of knowledge, but rather an active agent in the process of knowledge construction.

Consequently, writing as an active process has to be taught in a cognitive way, regarding learners' needs and the way information is processed. It is also important to understand writing as a dynamic skill through which learners need to be actively involved in the process of learning and to display responsibility towards the material provided as a source for writing or generated during and after composing. Therefore, it is significant for teachers to

have some ideas about learners' perceptions, individual differences, the intricacy of language teaching and learning, and the social construction of writing instruction.

1. Definition of Writing

Written language functions as a crucial cornerstone for culture and occupies a cardinal space in the field of second language learning. Writing as a communicative message that is detached from place and time affords it an aesthetic dimension that calls for consciously oriented efforts. However, teaching writing is a lengthy and knotty experience, and learning writing is an enormous defiance for second and foreign language (SL/FL) learners.

Writing enrobes a multiplicity of definitions; each researcher tailors it according to his understanding, and no definition can cover all the writing systems that exist and have ever existed. Byrne (1991: 1) defines writing as "an act of forming graphic symbols"; that is, combining letters to make ideas concrete. He sees it as the arrangement of sounds into words in a conventional form; words on their part, are organized together to make sentences. He states that "writing involves the encoding of a message of some kind: that is we translate our thoughts into language" (*ibid.*). This implies that writing is a representation of speech and thought through various forms of sound images or graphs.

In this respect, Greenberg and Rath (1985; in Fulwiler, 1999: 12) state that "Writing is a powerful instrument of thinking because it provides students with a way of gaining control over their thoughts. Writing shapes their perception of themselves and the world". Thus, besides being a tool of reasoning, the act of composing is the gate through which one discerns the secrets of the world around him. Raimes (1992: 261) also sustains Greenberg and Rath's perspective to conclude that "composing means expressing ideas, conveying meaning.

Composing means thinking". In addition, writing does not only wrap ideas and thoughts to afford them tangible and visible existence; it encompasses connecting ideas together. In this context, Chandler (1995: 72) asserts that "Writing often involves putting together ideas which the writer had not previously associated". Or as Plimpton (1988; in Chandler, 1995: 72) puts it, "You bring things together, you synthesize, you connect things that have had no previous connection when you write".

Writing is more than the transformation of oral language into visible signs. It is a painful problematic activity as White (1994: xi) denotes, "teaching people to write is one of the chronic problems of American education, right next to teaching them to think, a closely related but even more knotty problem". For Graves (1981: 4), it is an intricate process which involves "a series of operations leading to the solution of a problem. The process begins when a writer consciously or unconsciously starts a topic and is finished when the written piece is published".

Writing necessitates a set of interwoven perspective activities which make the activity of composing a cognitive demanding act. In this case, for Biggs *et. al*. (1999: 294), writers do not need to write in a linear way, but rather to "generate their ideas, which need to be monitored, selected; and prioritised; to translate the ordered ideas into text, using correct lexicon; grammar and genre rules, and to review the text in order to clarify meaning and eliminate errors ". Brannon (1985: 13), on his part, sees writing as "hierarchically organized, a complex network of goals and subgoals, routines and subroutines, which are driven by a writer's purpose, audience and subject". Thus, writing is not free, but rather controlled by goals which are further split into subgoals, routines and subroutines whose determination lies in the writer's purpose, audience and his subject. Consequently, writing is a chain of pivotal interactive elements

whose impact is mutual and conspicuous. Ransdell and Levy (1996: 93) perceive writing as a process of transforming ideas into written script and revision, and it makes regulation and intentional control inevitable. This makes the act of composing a tool of "learning and personal development" (Burnham, 1986: 152). This implies that writing is a personal transformational instrument which is subject to rules and mindful adjustments.

Ultimately, writing is a complex process that requires dependence on several cognitive tasks which range from the more mechanical aspects of writing to the more intricate acts of composing. Therefore, writing necessitates exploiting our generative power to produce ideas and bestow them a written form under the shape of a text which is subject to the rules of grammar, genre and vocabulary. Thus, the ability to write well is developmental and learned through experience.

2. Writing and Other Skills

The significance of writing lies in clarifying the existing common points and differences between this skill and speaking. This comparison seems to allocate each skill an important role when used in suitable situations. In addition, combining the practice of reading and writing has efficacious results. In order to be able to improve writing, one needs to be proficient in reading. Therefore, this combination seems to benefit learners as writers and readers.

2.1 Writing and Speaking

Writing, like speaking, is concerned with communicating specific thoughts or information to a specific audience. To be understood, we must take into account the prior knowledge of the audience. To be effective, we must recognize issues of power or prestige that readers have at stake and why they might not accept our arguments. Moreover, writing like speech is used for maintaining relations between people as Chandler (1995: 43) states, "Writing serves a

multiplicity of purposes in everyday life: communication is only one of the reasons why people write. For instance, like speech, writing also has what linguists call a phatic function: maintaining rapport between people".

Whatever similarities there may be between the written and spoken form, the experience of the act of writing is quite different from the experience of speaking. As Rosner and Abt (1970; in chandler, 1995: 48) contend, "When I speak, I can elaborate an idea at length or in depth, but the ideas don't give birth to each other even when they follow each other. But when I write, there is more of a ladder to my thoughts; they seem to follow from each other and not merely after each other". Writing helps to generate disposed ideas from each other, i.e., each idea is the good seed for the growth of another one in a consecutive way.

The value that writing or speech seems to acquire stems from the distinctive attitudes linguists and educational researchers direct towards these two skills. Educational researchers prioritize writing over speech and consider it as a 'more correct' form of language as Smith (1994: 11) displays "writing is a form of language and not as I shall argue, simply spoken language written down. In some important respects, writing is a far more powerful form of language than speech". From the same view, Stubbs (in Nystrand, 1982: 14) reports that:

> writing systems assist and extend the limits of natural memory; they facilitate history making; and they foster critical inquiry by making thought and knowledge public and available to more people for a longer period of time than speaking can…writing serves and fosters certain civil functions that inevitably arise when societies develop special needs for certain kinds of information processing.

Writing holds more significance than speaking. What we write is more memorable than speaking. Writing takes part in making historical events alive and popularizes ideas and information through time and space. Moreover, it has social roles through promoting

particular social tasks. Linguists, on the other extreme, seem to champion speech over writing. Smith (*op. cit.*, 16) states that:

> Once again, I am not suggesting that the two alternatives are identical, that speech and writing can be substituted for each other with no difference in consequence. Sometimes speech might be considered more effective or appropriate--for example, in establishing interpersonal relations. Sometimes writing may be the preferred form, as it is for most contractual and recording purposes, or because, as I would argue; it separates our ideas from ourselves in a way that is easiest for us to examine, explore and develop.

However, each skill owns its advantages and suitable uses according to the circumstances under which we are. Smith makes clear that the use of each skill is strongly tied to the pertinent circumstances which determine its utility. This echoes the basic idea that writing and speaking are not tantamount skills, and that they can not substitute each other.

Smith (*ibid.*) also states that:

> We can write for ourselves just as clearly and permanently as we can write for other people. This is an important difference between writing and speech; not only can writing separate the producer of language from its recipient in time and space, with the possibility of reflection and review, but writing can also separate the producer from him or herself, so that one's own ideas can be examined more objectively. Writers can look at the language they produce in a way that speakers can not. Writing is a tangible construction.

Therefore, the first difference between these two skills lies in the audience. We can address others as we address ourselves in writing; in speaking, however, we can just address others. The second difference lies in the objectivity that the written message holds. This is mainly due to the ability of the writer to revise what has been written in a more reflective way and to the concrete existence afforded to the message.

Smith (*ibid.*, 71) assumes that writing is characterized by precision, organization, logic, coherence, consistency and justifies these positive features as follows:

> In one sense, the possibility of deliberation in writing makes it easier; we can revise, suppress false starts, and edit our errors, we can have second thoughts. But, in another sense, the remoteness of writing from an intended audience is a handicap; we can take much less for granted, and must do without the visible supports of understanding or encouragement.

These characteristics empower writing to underpin thinking and do it in an extended way. Wells (1990: 14) states that:

> Texts may be used as external representations of the meanings achieved through critical and constructive thought and reflection,…a powerful tool for the extending of understanding about the material world of objects and events and about the inner world of values, feelings and intentions. They also provide a means for gaining a greater understanding and control of the mental processes themselves.

Finally, we can say that each skill reflects its significance when used appropriately, regarding its conventions and rules. Both of them are powerful instruments for learning, expressing individual thoughts, and sensing the power of language to influence the others through these generative processes.

2.2 Writing and Reading

Although writing is a productive skill and reading is a receptive one, it is important to make the distinction about how much can be learned about writing from reading. Reading tends to be the essential source of knowledge about writing. Therefore reading complements writing. This is what Stocky (1983: 636) states:

> Better writers tend to be better readers (of their own writing as well as of other reading material), that better writers tend to read more than poorer writers, and that better readers tend to produce more syntactically mature writing than poorer readers.

This reveals that the two skills are tight in a complementary way; in addition, good reading polishes and frames our writing to make it better and richer. According to Nelson (1993: 328),

a reading-writing approach assumes that "reading and writing are inextricably and reflectively connected, that a written text is a reading text, that we read to write and write to read, and that reading and writing are similar processes of making meaning". Kucer (2005: 191) states that "the relationship between reading and writing is that of parallel or complementary processes". Each process has an implicit power to impact and stimulate growth in the other. Therefore, reading serves writing and leads to its maturity. The more writers read, the better their writing will be. Writing feeds on reading, and its life cycle is more reliant on it. This reciprocal relationship can be expressed in the following figure:

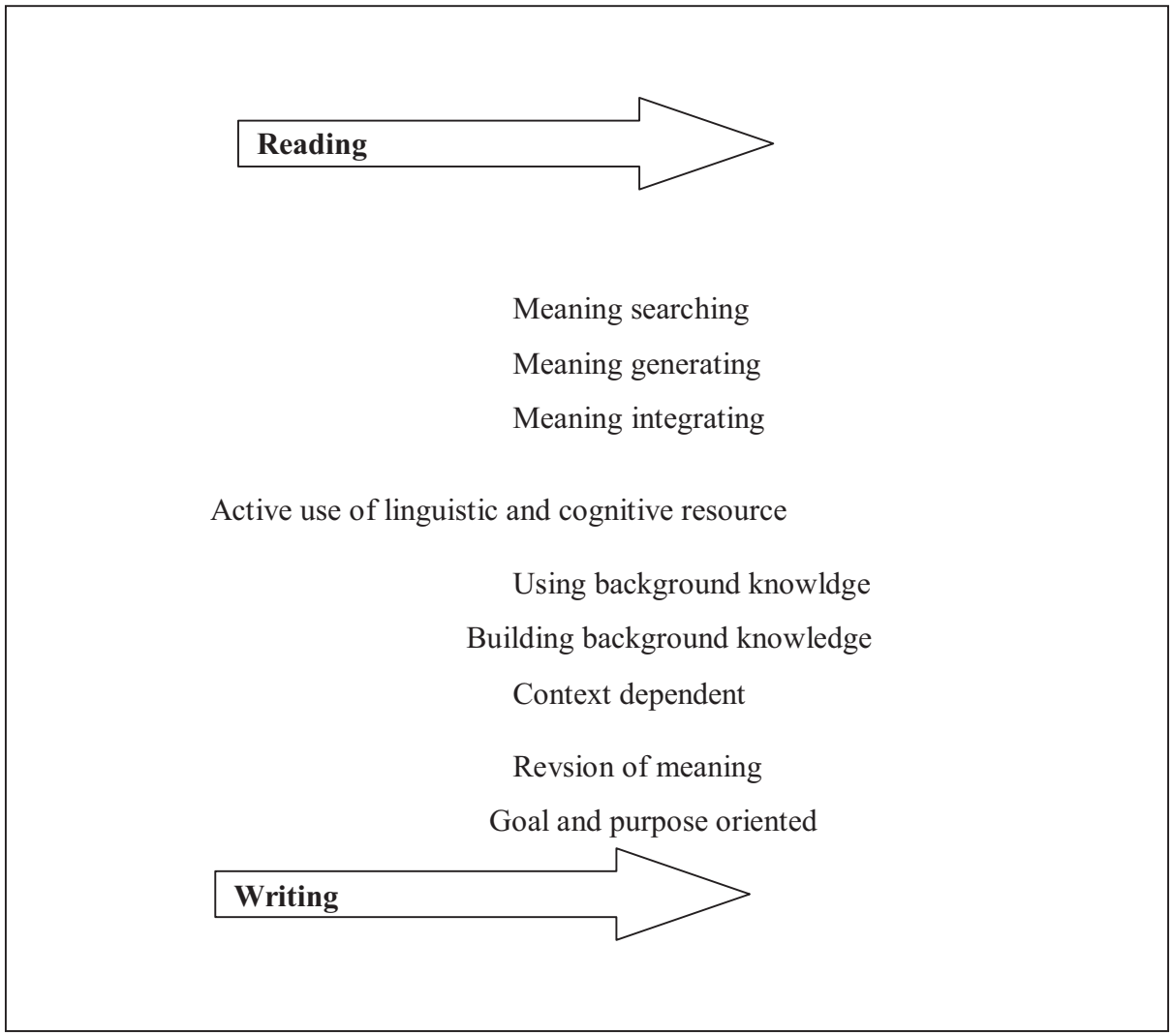


Figure1: Reading and Writing as Parallel Processes (Kucer, 2005: 192)

The interdependent relationship between reading and writing offers us the basic idea that combining these two skills is of paramount significance for learner's cognitive capacities, and that instruction which incorporates writing and reading together enhances students' ability to transfer knowledge acquired in one context to a new one. Since when reading, the learners need to make enough effort to foresee and interpret the writer's hidden meanings; and while writing, they need to anticipate what conforms to the audience perspectives. In 1989, Tierney *et. al*. carried out an empirical research about the aftermaths of integrating reading and writing on thinking. Tierney (1990: 137) found that "Students who read and wrote together were engaged in a great deal more evaluative thinking and perspective shifting than those who just wrote or those who just read". Thus, reading and writing together typify a powerful instrument that influences valuable reasoning and opinion orientation.

For Hayes (1996: 29), the main avail that readers may obtain from resource texts is not only limited to topic information, but rather it overlaps to involve developing representations of the topic, the persona of the writer, and the text as seen from the dimension of space. Spivey (1990: 257) argues that:

> instances when writers draw directly from other texts, instances in which the prior texts are knowable and traceable and when those prior texts might be compared with the new texts created from them. In these acts, the writer has two kinds of knowledge sources: what is available in the immediate source texts and what can be generated from previously acquired knowledge in long term memory.

This means that the two types of texts; the read text and the generated one represent two sources to help the writer create a more mature version. The read text takes part in building knowledge of various types to be exploited in writing, and the written text consolidates the acquired information in a way that generates new reading strategies.

Therefore, instruction that involves reading and writing together becomes a priority in composing, developing and analyzing ideas. Consequently, instructors should integrate these two skills to enhance students' command of the disciplinary language.

3. Approaches to Teaching Writing

The teaching of writing is not limited to one approach. Each one embraces a specific focus. While the product approach overemphasizes the significance of the final product, the process approach sheds light on the stages the writer has to go through during writing. The genre approach, on the other hand, aims to expose the learners to the different types of written texts. Ultimately, the process-genre approach exemplifies a successful marriage of the process and the genre approaches.

3.1 The Product Approach

The product approach is a traditional approach to teaching writing in which learners are typically provided with a model, which is usually presented and analysed at an early stage, and encouraged to mimic it in order to produce a resembling product. The product approach accentuates the learners' final piece of work instead of how it is constructed (Nunan, 1991: 86). This has a multiplicity of aftermaths. Firstly, the final written piece is judged on the basis of grammatical and linguistic accuracy. For Christie (2005a: 233), priority is strongly tied to "accuracy in control of the basic resources of literacy and beyond that persons are assumed to be free to use literacy in ways that fit their purposes". As a result, students' products are considered as stretches of sentences which comply to grammatical rules of the language. Thus, errors are considered as bad signs of learning that must be rooted out. Secondly, because of the final product emphasis, little or no consideration is afforded by students to the process of composing since this approach, as its name implies, neglected bestowing a cardinal

position to the steps through which the learners improve their writing abilities. As a consequence, the learners were enchained by the determined topics, which restrained their mental potential and made them narrow-minded writers. Ultimately, in this approach, too much light was spotted on the errors free product. The net effect of this misplaced attention is to hinder creativity.

3.2 The Process Approach

Proponents of this approach such as Murray (1982), Graves (1983), Calkins (1986), and Atwell (1987) draw our attention to the process of getting to the product. The essence of writing is a number of stages through which the writer has to pass for the purpose of composing a propitious piece of writing. Cooper and Patton (2007: 14) display that:

> Writing is a process that breaks down into roughly three stages-creating, shaping and correcting. A common error students make is to focus their energy on what should be the last stage at the beginning, when the focus should be on the creative stage of the writing process. The effect of this misplaced attention is to inhibit creative thinking. It is essential that the writer gives ample time to the first stage, to generate ideas, to following impulsive thoughts even if they may initially appear unrelated or irrelevant. At this stage, a writer must allow himself to experience confusion, to be comfortable with; he must learn to trust the writing process, to realize that out of this chaos a logically train of thought will gradually emerge.

This means that writing is no longer a final product, but rather a joint three stage operation. The first step involves and necessitates creation rather than imitation; that is, to exploit the potential mental power to give birth to a new production. The second step which is shaping implies giving a concrete form to our thoughts and perspectives. This form, in its turn, affords our ideas a tangible existence. The third step is rectifying what has been written down. Focusing on these steps leads to creative thinking, whereas highlighting the final product stands as an obstacle in its way. Therefore, students should be encouraged to perceive that writing is a recursive process. Zamel (1983: 165) asserts that writing is a "complex, recursive, and creative process whereby the writers discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to

approximate meaning". Because writing reflects thinking, and as we think we go back and forth in order to opt for the best alternative; that is why writing is recursive and not linear.

Tribble (1966: 160) looks at this approach from the angle of creativity and sees that it emphasises improving writing practices rather than copying assigned models. So, this approach is a new endeavour to train the learners to rely on their own cognitive abilities and start writing in a creative way and not in a blind imitation. This leads us to the central idea of Flower and Hayes (1980: 31) who assume that writing is a cognitive demanding task where writers rely on "information stored in long-term memory […] as they juggle a number of simultaneous constraints".

For Flower and Hayes (*ibid.,* 1981: 366), the cognitive process is established on four key points:

1. The process of writing is best understood as a set of distinctive thinking processes which writers orchestrate or organize during the act of composing.
2. These processes have a hierarchically, highly embedded organization in which any given process can be embedded within any author.
3. The act of composing itself is a goal-directed thinking process, guided by the writer's own growing network of goals.
4. Writers create their own goals in two key ways: by generating both high-level goals which embody the writer's developing sense of purpose, and then, at times, by changing major goals or even establishing entirely new ones based on what has been learned in the act of writing.

Thus, the act of writing is a chain of thinking processes which are interwoven and ranked one after the other. The act of composing is a purposive one, and controlled by the writer's designed goals

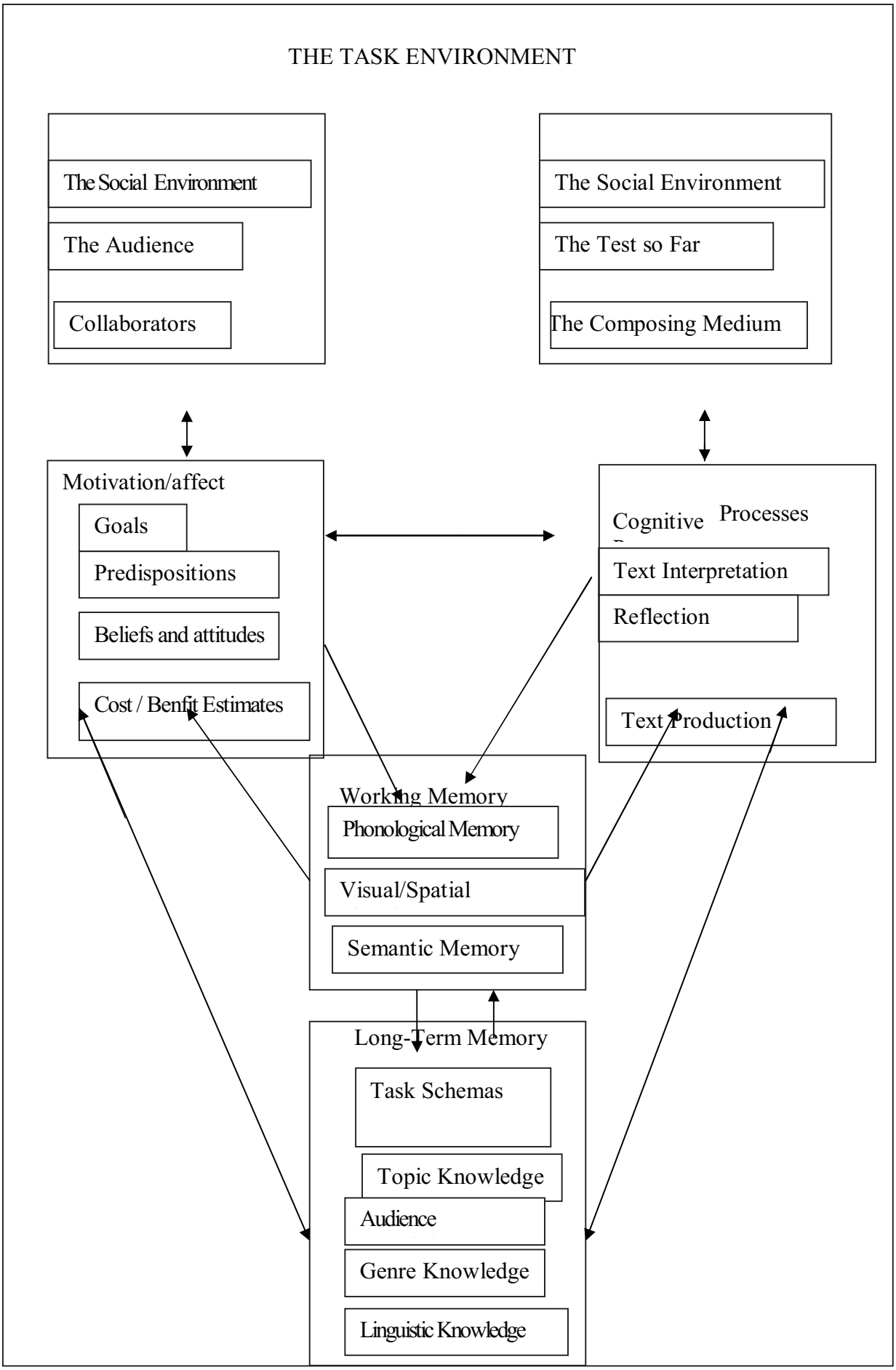
which are categorized as supreme sustaining goals, and are subject to amelioration or replacement by others.

However, the significant impact of affect and social context on perception has started to attract the attention of cognitive psychology. Consequently, the cognitive process model framed by Flower and Hayes saw modifications exhibiting these recent notions. Hayes (1996: 40) sees that:

> major changes in focus in the new framework are: greater attention to the role of working memory in writing, inclusion of the visual-spatial dimension, the integration of motivation and affect with the cognitive processes, and a reorganization of the cognitive processes which place greater emphasis on the function of text interpretation processes in writing.

Hayes (*ibid.*, 11) perceives his model as being an individual-environmental model rather than a social-cognitive one. Therefore, Hayes highlights the individualization of learning, which, in my opinion, improves the way information is processed. He (*ibid.*, 10-11) differentiates the new model from the previous one through its components. The first model involves three essential components: the task environment, the cognitive processes that activate writing, and the writer's long-term memory. The second model, on the other hand, consists of two essential components: the task environment and the individual. The task environment consists of two components: the social and the physical environment. The social environment includes the audience and other texts that may be read by the writer while writing. The physical environment invloves the produced text by the writer and the written medium. The individual as a major component consists of motivation and affect, cognitive processes, working memory, and long-term memory. We can perceive that the individual represents the component that induces amelioration in the new model. The following figure summarizes Hayes' new model.

Figure 2: Hayes New Cognitive Model of Writing (1996)



Ransdell and Levy (1996: 93), on their part, state that writing is a "process that requires extensive self-regulation and attentional control […] writers must change ideas into text, repair organization and mechanics, and monitor their success—all while trying to formulate a coherent message". Thus, the writer is the nucleus of intentness while exploring and expressing meaning; i.e., while crystallizing thoughts into text, and subjecting them gradually to ameliorations to reach a good piece of writing. Central to this approach is the view that writing is a message to be transmitted and grasped by the reader; that is, the focus on content at the expense of form. Therefore, the writer is preoccupied with content, and the final text is considered by Silva (1990: 16) as "a secondary, derivative concern, whose form is a function of its content and purpose".

For Flower and Hayes (*op.cit*., 1981: 369), the writer is enchained by three basic components while writing; the task environment, his long term memory, and the writing processes:

> The task environment includes all of those things outside the writer's skin, starting with the rhetorical problem or assignment and eventually including the growing text itself. The second element is the writer's long-term-memory in which the writer has stored knowledge, not only of the topic, but of the audience and of various writing plans. The third element in the model contains writing processes themselves, specifically the basic process of planning, translating, and reviewing, which are under the control of a monitor.

Under the process approach, the teacher detaches himself from the traditional role of assigning a given topic and correcting the written text, where errors were regarded as having undesirable qualities in learning. Now, he plays the role of a facilitator who intervenes to simplify composing according to the stages of the process.

3.3 The Genre Approach

Since writing is not an individual act, but a social and communicative one; and as language occurs in particular social and cultural contexts; and because, in the natural contexts, writers do not limit themselves within the borderlines of one text type but rather use a multiplicity of text types to achieve various purposes and social functions, the demand for a new approach was highlighted to improve classroom writing and make it more effective. Therefore, the genre approach was the proposed response. So, what is a genre? What does this new model bring to classroom writing?

Hyon (1996: 696) reports that researchers who are influenced by Halliday's systemic functional grammar define a genre as a "systemic functional linguistics that is concerned with the relationship between language and its functions in social settings". Thus, the social functions of the language decide the type of the language employed by the individuals. According to Bhatia (1993: 3), “a genre is a recognizable communicative event characterized by a set of communicative purposes identified and understood by the members of the professional or academic community in which it regularly occurs.”

Swales (1990: 58) identifies a genre as “a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes”. This implies that the genre holds the essence of socially-determined rules of using the language which make the message communicative and purposeful. For example, a personal letter necessitates a beginning with a warm and hearty question, as its purpose is the retention of intimate relations.

Medway (1994; in Byram, 2004: 235) clarifies that genre has to be seen within “the complex social, cultural, institutional disciplinary factors at play in the production of specific

pieces of writing". Therefore, Miller (1984: 153) sees that form is not the only focal point of communication; therefore, light has to be spotted on the 'social action' it is employed to achieve. Therefore, the genre, either spoken or written, has conventions or rules which are strongly tied to the purpose of communication. Martin (1984; in Byram, 2004: 235) identifies a spoken genre as a staged, goal oriented, purposeful activity in which the message is enrobed by the speaker's culture.

In contrast to the process approach, the genre based approach sees writing as a social and cultural practice. The genre approach revolves around three phases: the first one involves modelling the target genre for the learners, the second stage includes building the text by the teacher and his students, and the third one displays students' independence in writing. Activities in the writing process are, no longer, the focus of learning and teaching. Instead, it involves the purpose of writing, the context where the writing occurs, and the conventions of the target discourse community. In this sense, related genre knowledge is required to be presented in the language classroom. Therefore, particular text properties need to be taught explicitly to help students recognize how to transform a piece of writing from simplicity to effectiveness and from appropriateness to the communicative purpose. As Harmer (2001: 258) states, "In a genre approach to writing, learners study texts in the genre they are going to be writing before they embark on their own writing".

Hammond (1992; in Burns, 2001: 202) sees the genre model as "a wheel model of a teaching learning cycle having three phases: modelling, joint negotiation of text by learners and teacher, and the independent construction of texts by learners". Writing under the genre approach consists of three stages: modelling, joint negotiation of text, and the interdependent production of texts. Modelling is the time for exposing the learners to the studied genre.

During this phase, educational and social functions of the genre are the focal point of discussion taking into account the analysis of text structure and language. Joint negotiation of text refers to putting into practice language forms related to genre through exercises. As the name of the phase suggests, it activates a discussion between the teacher and the learners. It entails reading, researching and extending information. The third phase involves learners' production of texts through activities. However, for Hyon (*op.cit.,* 705), scholars in Australia altered the teaching-learning cycle which involves three phases by the addition of a fourth one named "building knowledge of the field"; which means leading the students to construct knowledge of the social circumstances and relating it to the content of the genre.

For Kay and Dudley (1998: 310), the genre approach is more striking for the improvement of learners' writing skill than the process one; this is due to the provided model which reduces anxiety. As evidence, an investigation carried out by Henry and Roseberry (1998) demonstrated that the group which depended on the genre based instruction shows great success than the non-genre group. Moreover, this experimental study proved that the genre based instruction enhanced learners' comprehension of the rhetorical structure and the linguistic features (*ibid*., 154 – 155). That is why Bhatia (1993; in Kim & Kim, 2005: 6) advised the instructors to link the linguistic properties and the social purposes to raise learners' awareness about the role of linguistic conventions for specific rhetorical effects. Therefore, knowledge of the rhetorical structure serves as a vital key to the next learning situation, whereas, functional knowledge paves the way to comprehend why and how language functions in the social context.

However, Harmer (*op.cit*., 259) perceives that writing within this approach requires from learners to have knowledge of the topic, the conventions and style of the genre, and the

context in which their writing will be read and by whom. This is a vital indication that applying such an approach is conditioned by the learners' knowledge either about the language or the topic, so we can infer that autonomy and motivation are necessary for writing successfully. Moreover, the genre approach prisons the learners within conventions and genre features and neglects content. For Bawarshi (2000: 343), the genre approach meddles with learners' creativity. According to Badger and White (2000: 157), the genre approach restricts learners' skills to produce creative messages, and underestimates the natural processes of learning and learners' creativity.

Therefore, the genre approach with all its advantages and disadvantages offers the basic idea that this approach doesn't call for discarding the process approach to writing, but rather necessitates the integration of the process and the genre models in an equilibrated way.

3.4 The Process-Genre Approach

A process-genre approach, as the term reflects, integrates process and genre approaches to end with a dual model. This implies that it draws on ideas from the genre approach as well as from the process one. Briefly, it affords the chance to develop learners' creativity, at the same time, it leads them to comprehend the features of the target genres. Badger and White (2000: 157) carried out an empirical investigation to test the process-genre approach to teaching writing; i.e., teaching writing through the two approaches together. Their research proved that the effectiveness of this new integrated approach takes place when genre approach steps precede drafting.

4. Developing the Writing Skill

Learning how to communicate in SL/FL writing involves five pivotal stages: copying, reproduction, recombination, guided writing, and composition. This alludes that learners have to receive an explicit instruction starting from the gradual internalization of the graphic system of the language until the free writing stage.

Copying as one of the main stages of writing involves learning a new script for a new language through reproducing the letters of the target system according to a model. For Brookes and Grundy (1998: 22), "Most early- stage writing is a from of copying, and is as much about using writing to support language learning as about teaching writing itself." This implies that exposing the learners to the studied script is the key to the other stages and to the learning of writing as a whole. However, the activity of copying can not be started from void, which signifies that the copied material has to be exposed to the learners either through oral practice or reading. The auditive and visual processing of the material helps learners to save the graphic symbols in their minds.

The next stage after copying is reproduction, which refers to reproducing what has already been copied without reference to the original copy. In this stage, the learners carry out dictation activities as a way to reveal the difficulties they confront.

The recombination stage is the stage where the learners are required to reproduce what has been learned under the conditions of minor adaptations: (1) substitution in which the learners are engaged in replacing words by others keeping the same structure; (2) transformation in which the learners are required to transform from one sentence type to an other: from the active to the passive, from statement to question, or from direct to indirect

speech; (3) they can also be engaged in expansion by the addition of adjectives, adverbs, or conjunctions to the sentences; (4) contraction requires from learners to substitute single words for a group of words. These kinds of practice structure drills lead learners to achieve accuracy and correctness while producing sentences.

The fourth stage of development, that is guided writing, engages learners in writing a given model according to some directions; either by following an outline, specific questions, paraphrase, or summarize a text. However, the learners are given some freedom to select words and structures necessary for their writing activities. So, they are neither under severe control nor total freedom.

In composition stage, the learner is free to use his own words and structures for the construction of a written communication. Santos (1992) contends that students are stimulated to evolve their own unique and authentic voice in writing. For Heaton (1975: 127), composition is the successful communication of the students' thoughts through exploiting words in grammatically correct sentences, whose combination holds the content of the written message, and where the determination of form takes place through content, ideas, and the need to communicate. This stage requires from students to investigate relationships, categorize notions, determine causes and effects, clarify reasons and develop the ability to anticipate while writing. This form of writing affords students the chance for a direct, emotive response that is helpful for the generation of an authentic voice in their writing.

Therefore, writing is best conceptualized as a set of developmental stages ranging from copying to the free writing stage. As a result, for writing to be effective, the teacher must view

it as a process of developing and enhancing students' ability to write which necessitates shifting the teacher's role from the transmission of knowledge to the facilitation of teaching.

5. Assessment and Feedback

Since writing is a developmental process, instruction has to be underpinned by assessment and feedback. These two elements play a crucial role in improving learners' writing and necessitate the teacher's intervention as a major responsible to facilitate and guide his learners.

5.1 Assessment

Assessment is the process that reflects students' achievements; determines the effectiveness of the used method, materials and media; and foresees the remedial way to improve the process of teaching and learning. In this respect, in *Foreign Languages* (1996: 142), it is perceived that:

> Classroom assessment refers to the tasks, activities or procedures designed to obtain accurate information about academic achievement. Assessment helps answer these questions: What do students know and what are they able to do? Are the teaching methods and strategies effective? What else can be done to help students learn?

Thus, assessment revolves around task, activities or procedures that mirror student pedagogical attainments. It determines students' present level and guides teachers to anticipate future attainments. Moreover, it orients teachers' attention to precise the effectiveness of the used methods and strategies, and to foresee helpful procedures for the learners to improve their learning. Furthermore, *Foreign Languages* (1996: 142) displays that:

> The term assessment comes from the Latin assidere, which means to sit beside. This meaning creates a picture of the teacher and the student working together to continually improve the process of teaching and learning. To assess also means to analyze critically and judge definitively. This meaning emphasizes the teacher's responses to make judgments about students' achievement based on careful consideration of obtained information.

This affords the main interpretation that assessment makes the cooperation between the teacher and the learners inevitable for the purpose of making learning and teaching better. Assessment also means that teacher's estimation of his learners must be based on critical conclusive thinking, and this aggrandizes the teacher's duty to collect the necessary information about them. Miller (1995; in Urquhart and Mc Lever, 2005: 27), on his part, defines it as "gathering information to meet the particular needs of a student". That is to say, the main purpose for collecting these data is to respond positively to the requirements of the student. Tchudi and Tchudi (1999; in Urquhart and MC Lever, 2005: 27) look at it from the angle of inclusion and continuity; i.e., assessment is not limited to one aspect of the language, at the same time, it is a ceaseless flow of estimations. For them (*ibid.*), "Assessment is comprehensive, avoids judgment, and describes what is happening rather than what has happened". According to Airasian (2000: 10), "assessment is the process of collecting, synthesizing, and interpreting information to aid in decision making". Thus, it plays a significant role for students, teachers and society.

Assessment is crystallised into two types: formative and summative. Lippman (2003: 203) reports that:

> Summative assessment aims to measure the success of a particular endeavour after it is over, when there is no opportunity for revision…In assessing writing, the goal of summative assessment is not to shape students' thinking or learning, but rather to judge how well students have accomplished the writing task.

So, summative assessment is final and decisive, it evaluates learners' performance after finishing the task. Its objective is to rate the extents to which students have completed the written task successfully. Assessment is also divided into internal and external assessment. Wolcott (1998: 3) believes that "External assessment, usually considered top down because it is initiated by those outside the classroom, is not tied to a particular class, and the teacher has

little discretion about giving extra explanation or extending the time". As a result, an external assessment is a pass or fail system. Lippman (2003: 203-204) states that "formative assessment is generally internal, puts emphasis on shaping students' writing while they are still in the process of assessment. The goal of formative assessment is to help students improve their writing and writing ability". Thus, formative assessment is initiated inside the classroom, and related to a particular class. It values students' writings during the writing process; i.e., when the learners are still engaged in the process of writing. Its main purpose is to assist learners polish up their writing.

In general, assessment with all its types plays a significant role in the teaching-learning process and enhances learners' writing abilities. Lippman (2003: 218) contends that:

> Yet, whether it is summative assessment conducted system wide or formative assessment conducted in the classroom, assessment should be an integral part of teaching writing. When classroom teachers develop a clear approach, good assessment can improve student writing and learning. Specific goal for good writing clearly communicated to students will allow both teachers and students to be more successful in the writing classroom.

McMillan (2001: 18) and Stiggings & Conklin (1992: 80) postulate that many factors determine teachers' selection of assessment practices. These factors include philosophy, state policies, parental expectations; teacher's personality, training, experience; perceptions of student abilities; and lesson objectives.

As a consequence, we should combine assessment with teaching writing. However, the betterment of teaching writing through assessment is enchained by following a luminous and transparent approach, in addition to transmitting the determined goal of writing to the learners in a bright way to achieve success.

5.2 Feedback

Feedback definition changes from the teacher-centred to the learner-centred approach. In the first one, Ypsilandis (2002: 169) sees that feedback "has been distinguished as a reaction, a response that is usually triggered and received by the learner and provided by the teacher". So, feedback is a teacher's response to learners' performance. In the second one, he (*ibid.*) recognizes feedback "as an assistance mechanism, a key factor for successful learning, offering support to the learning process". Now, feedback is a helpful device, a significant element that activates learning successfully and affords sustaining to the process of learning. In this approach, feedback is not only provided by the teacher, but it extends to the learners themselves assisting each other.

Harmer (2001: 99) sees that:

> Feedback encompasses not only correcting students, but also offering them an assessment of how well they have done, whether during a drill or after a longer language production exercise. The way we assess and correct students will depend not only upon the kind of mistakes being made (and the reasons for them), but also on the type of activity the students are taking part in.

Consequently, feedback is equivalent to formative assessment. It is based on three valuable constituents; the types of errors, the reasons for them and the type of the activity given to the learners.

Feedback is defined by Ur (1991: 242) as the "information that is given to the learner about his or her performances of a learning task, usually with the objective of improving this performance". Thus, feedback is the comment given by the teacher about his students' performance to help them correct it. This is what Anson (1999: 302) states, "Hearing other people's response to their work helps writers develop a kind of internal monitor, a "reading

self", which informs their decisions as they enter new and more sophisticated worlds of writing". This entails that feedback activates the inner guide inside the learner and his reading self to polish his writing decisions.

Feedback is given to the students during the process of writing; i.e., when the students are still drafting. Therefore; the teacher responds to his learners' writings before their revision, as a consequence, feedback is facilitated through teachers' propositions. That is why Lippman (2003: 213) clarifies that "Feedback or formative assessment is given when students are still engaged in the writing process. To do this, the instructor might comment on drafts of a paper so the students can take those suggestions into account before they revise a draft of the paper". Thus, feedback makes writing a less painful process, and helps learners take positive, constructive steps to improve their own writing.

Feedback has been admitted by many researchers to play an important role in SL/FL writing instruction. Chandler (2003: 232) tested the effectiveness of underlying errors in improving East Asian college students' writing accuracy. This experience was crowned by the improvement of formal accuracy and fluency of students during the semester. Results of the research exhibited the significance of learner correction or revision and the strong bond between them. For Chandler (*ibid.*, 280), "if students did not revise their writing based on feedback about errors, having teachers mark errors was equivalent to giving no error feedback". Thus, the value of feedback lies in determining errors without which the process of providing feedback becomes useless.

The teacher can help his students ameliorate their writing through various devices. According to Harmer (*op.cit.*, 110), one device is to look at feedback:

> as responding to students' work rather than assessing or evaluating what they have done. When we respond, we say how the text appears to us and how successful we think it has been and, sometimes, how it could be improved. Such responses are vital at various stages of the writing process cycle.

In this way, feedback is a reaction to students' writing and not an assessment or evaluation. Hence, comments are provided to describe the negative and positive aspects of the written text to help learners ameliorate their writing. The other way is coding; that is teachers use codes to indicate the type of errors, and the reason behind it is to clarify correction and make it advantageous. In Harmer's (*ibid.*, 111) opinion, this technique "makes correction much neater, less threatening, and considerably more helpful than random marks and comments".

For the beneficial employment of feedback, learners use different strategies. To explore these strategies, Linden (1993: 63) carried out an empirical research to determine the strategies used by 23 Deutch learners. The learners are given feedback in a computer-based French program. The results exhibited four types of strategies:

1. The go on till you get it right strategy;
2. The drill strategy;
3. The once is enough strategy;
4. The browsing strategy.

Learners who employed the first strategy depended on feedback to reach the right answer. These learners were aware of the usefulness of their teacher's responses. For the second strategy, the learners were informed to be right, therefore, they didn't dare to correct their errors. Moreover, before moving to the following question, they were impatient to demand the right answer. The third strategy as its name suggests, was used by students who treated each question once. The last strategy was represented by learners who didn't answer the questions.

Linden (*ibid., 65)* states that the last finding in this experiment was a "practical conclusion arising from our work is that feedback, in order to be consulted, has to be concise and precise. Long feedback (exceeding three lines) is not read and for that reason is not useful". This entails that lengthy comments are tedious. As a result, while giving feedback, we have to be accurate enough to make our responses convenient and beneficial.

Finally, responding to students' various drafts is of utmost importance to the writing process and typifies the core of expecting a new polished version. Without potent feedback on errors, improvement in writing may not take place, and students will lose the opportunity to improve language skills as a whole. Thus, feedback has to be a significant ingredient in the instructional process.

Conclusion

In conclusion to this chapter, it can be said that writing is a vital tool of learning and takes a significant part in personal progress. It is also an instrument of intellectual development. Through writing, an infinite quantity of information is tracked, recorded, and stored. Thus, it is a stockpile of the human intellectual product. That is why teaching learners to communicate through writing is one of the central goals of education. However, the truth of teaching and assessing writing as a cardinal skill is a knotty experience. It is a language skill which is acquired over time. It requires instruction, patience and learners' involvement to break its difficulties. It is a set of cognitive processes which are in a continuous interaction. This interaction makes the act of composing nonlinear. Consequently, teacher's intervention to guide, recommend, assess, and provide feedback is of paramount importance. Moreover, his choice of a specific approach, whether product, process, or genre-based, has to be subject to learners' needs and interests.

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CHAPTER TWO
COOPERATIVE LEARNING

Introduction

The methods that are designed to make instruction more conspicuous are mainly grounded on how students learn. CL is one of them, where the philosophies and theories of education have oriented emphasis toward improving the efficacy of instruction and thus learning. This chapter will examine the definition of CL, the differences between cooperative and group learning (GL), the theoretical foundations for the target instruction, the elements that give it its shape, the reasons behind using it, its methods and benefits, cooperative writing, and ultimately its distinction from collaborative learning.

1. Definition of Cooperative Learning

The implementation of traditional methods enchained students in silent classes. Slavin, (1991a: 71) states that "There was once a time when it was taken for granted that a quiet class was a learning class, when principals walked down the hall expecting to be able to hear a pin drop". Therefore, an ideal class, in the past, was featured by silence. Yet, such quietness was considered a passive atmosphere for learning and was replaced by a more interactive context that was created by CL, and those ancient classes disappeared with the coming of such innovation in developed countries. It is generally pronounced that CL is the effective remedy for all students as it highlights potent interaction between students having miscellaneous capacities and evinces more constructive outcomes in academic achievement, social behavior and effective development.

Indeed, CL is accentuated as an inevitable truth in recent classes. It gave an enough opportunity for teacher training at all levels in different countries. It is also defined as a research-based educational strategy or a social model of teaching. Its main objective is to ameliorate the learners' level through cooperation either in small structured or mixed-ability groups taking into account the accomplishment of shared goals. CL is, in fact, an efficient teaching and learning method to improve learners' educational achievements and social skills. Ellis and Fouts (1993: 117) clarify that:

> Cooperative learning is one of biggest, if not the biggest, educational innovations of our time. It has permeated all levels of teacher training from pre-service to in-service ... It is touted from Israel to New Zealand, from Sweden to Japan.

There have been different perspectives towards this innovation. Brody (1998: 24) states that:

> Cooperative learning is a case in point. Some refer to it as a generic tool for teaching, adaptable to any teaching/ learning situation. Others consider it a philosophy in itself. Some even argue that changing to cooperative or collaborative, requires a shift in sensibility, a shift in fundamental assumptions and beliefs and learning, knowing and authority. There is truth in each view, but how teachers implement cooperative learning depends partly on the particular beliefs about education they hold, as well as the match between the models they are implementing or learning, and their beliefs. While many cooperative learning training programs are well-grounded in research and theory, we need to provide more opportunities for teachers to reflect on the range of implicit assumptions in the innovation in relation to their own beliefs and personal constructions.

Thus, for some, it is a general instrument applicable to all contexts of learning; for others, it is a philosophy. But for the rest, it is a switch in the principles of the learning and teaching experience. It is a way of teaching whose execution is reliant on teachers' assumptions.

CL is an instructional method in which students are assigned to groups of two to six members by the instructor to accomplish social and academic tasks. As Olsen and Kagan (1992: 8) state, "Cooperative learning is a group learning activity organized so that learning is dependent on the socially-structured exchange of information between learners in groups and in which each learner is held accountable for his or her own learning". Thus, CL is a teaching method that is conditioned by the heterogeneity of the groups for the achievement of a unified goal. Slavin *et.al.* (1984: 411) see that "Cooperative learning methods in which students work in small, heterogeneous learning groups and are rewarded based on the learning performance of the group members, have been found (in several dozen field experiments) to increase student achievement".

Cooperation is learning together to accomplish common goals. When performing cooperative tasks, learners pursue outcomes that are advantageous to themselves and useful to all group members. CL is based on teaching through small groups, so that students join their efforts to make their own learning and all group members learning maximum. That is why Brandt (1990) considers CL as a significant method and a hopeful progress. Cooperative learning efforts end with learners participating effectively and straining themselves for mutual benefit, so that all group members take advantages from each others' endeavours. Your success benefits me and my success benefits you, perceiving that all group members have a shared destiny, apprehending that one's performance is a mutual result of oneself and the other colleagues. Deutsch (1962) contends that CL atmospheres include positive interdependence among group members; students recognize that the accomplishment of their learning goals is restrained by the other students' achievement of their goals.

It is generally pronounced that CL is the potent solution for all students as it highlights potent interaction between students having miscellaneous capacities and backgrounds and evinces more constructive outcomes in academic achievement, social behavior and effective development. Slavin (1991) assumes that CL has been introduced in the form of a solution for educational problems. This entails that CL has burst out of educational problems as a promising remedy. This instructional method is applicable to all subject areas and all age levels.

According to Johnson and Johnson (1986: 31), when learning in cooperative contexts, students accomplish higher levels of thought, and information is saved for longer terms in comparison to individual learning (IL). Thus, the shared learning goals pave the way for students to interact, to be autonomous learners and critical thinkers.

Since CL revolves around the use of small groups (usually between two to six members), efficacious communication and interaction among the learners is crucial for the achievement of the assigned cooperative tasks. All the group members share the responsibility to solve the problem and instruct each other for the purpose of learning and finishing the given task. Thus, the role of the learner is to execute the role of the group and to work cooperatively with all the group members to achieve a unified goal through discussion and problem solving. The instructor is a teacher, a facilitator and a monitor. He is, no longer, the authoritative person who determines and decides everything. The learners, on their turn, are, no longer, the passive listeners to the teacher. Now, they transfer ideas to each other, improve their perspectives, ask and answer questions. This reflects their active involvement in the learning process.

2. Cooperative Learning versus Group Learning

CL is a method of teaching and learning in which students work together to explore a significant question or create a meaningful project. The confusion between CL and group learning (GL) can be solved by referring to the essential elements of CL. According to Johnson and Johnson (1999), CL is founded on five significant components, without which instruction would be useless. These are: (1) positive interdependence, (2) individual accountability, (3) quality group processing, (4) explicit teaching of small group skills, and (5) teaching of social skills. GL, on the other hand, is just putting the students in groups without raising their awareness about shared responsibility which features teamwork.

The distinction between group work (GW) and CL is a crucial one. CL encompasses more than just splitting the class into groups and asking them to work together. In this respect, Doughty and Pica (1986: 308) point out the negative aspects of GW. They clarify that in a GW "Many students tended to go along with the majority opinion of both their class and group when it came time to articulate the final decision." Thus, students would lean toward the decision taken by the greater number of the students. In this case, the proficient students tend to dominate the discussion and become decision-makers of the group.

CL and working groups are very different situations as Woolfolk (2004: 492) points out:

> The term group learning and cooperative learning are often used as if they meant the same. Actually, group work is simply several students working together. They may or may not be cooperating. Cooperative learning is an arrangement in which students work in mixed ability groups and are rewarded on the basis of the success of the group.

Long and Porter (1985: 210) state that "small groups of students can work on different sets of materials suited to their needs. Moreover, they can do so simultaneously, thereby avoiding the risk of boring other students who do not have the same problem…''. In this

context, the teacher implements GW which is deprived from CL characteristics such as students helping each other and exchanging each other material.

The following table sums up the major differences between CL and GL:

Cooperative Learning	Group Learning
1. Positive interdependence with structured goals.	No positive interdependence.
2. A clear accountability for individuals' share of the group's work through role assignment and regular rotation of the assigned role.	No accountability for individual share of the group's work through role assignment and regular rotation of the assigned role.
3. Heterogeneous ability grouping.	Homogeneous ability grouping.
4. Sharing of leadership roles.	Few being appointed or put in charge of the group.
5. Sharing of the appointed learning tasks.	Each learner seldom responsible for others' learning.
6. Aiming to maximize each member's learning.	Focusing on accomplishing the assignments.
7. Maintaining good working relationship, process-oriented.	Frequent neglect of good working relationship, product-oriented.
8. Teaching of collaborative skills.	Assuming that students already have the required skills.
9. Teacher observation of students' interaction.	Little, if any at all, teacher observation.
10. Structuring of the procedures and time for the processing.	Rare structuring of procedures and time for the processing.

Table 1: Differences between Cooperative Learning and Group Learning.

(Adapted from Johnson & Johnson, 1986).

3. Theoretical Foundations for Cooperative Learning

CL is rooted back to the social interdependence theory, cognitive developmental theory, and behavioral learning theory. Piaget's developmental theory (1954) and Slavin's (1990, 1995) cognitive theory assign intrinsic motivation (IM) an enormous significance in learning and learners an operative role in constructing learning. The motivational theory also pioneered the empirical investigation on CL; that is, the behavioral perspective which highlighted that CL is grounded on extrinsic motivation (EM) which results from rewards and tasks. The following figure illustrates the theoretical foundation for CL:

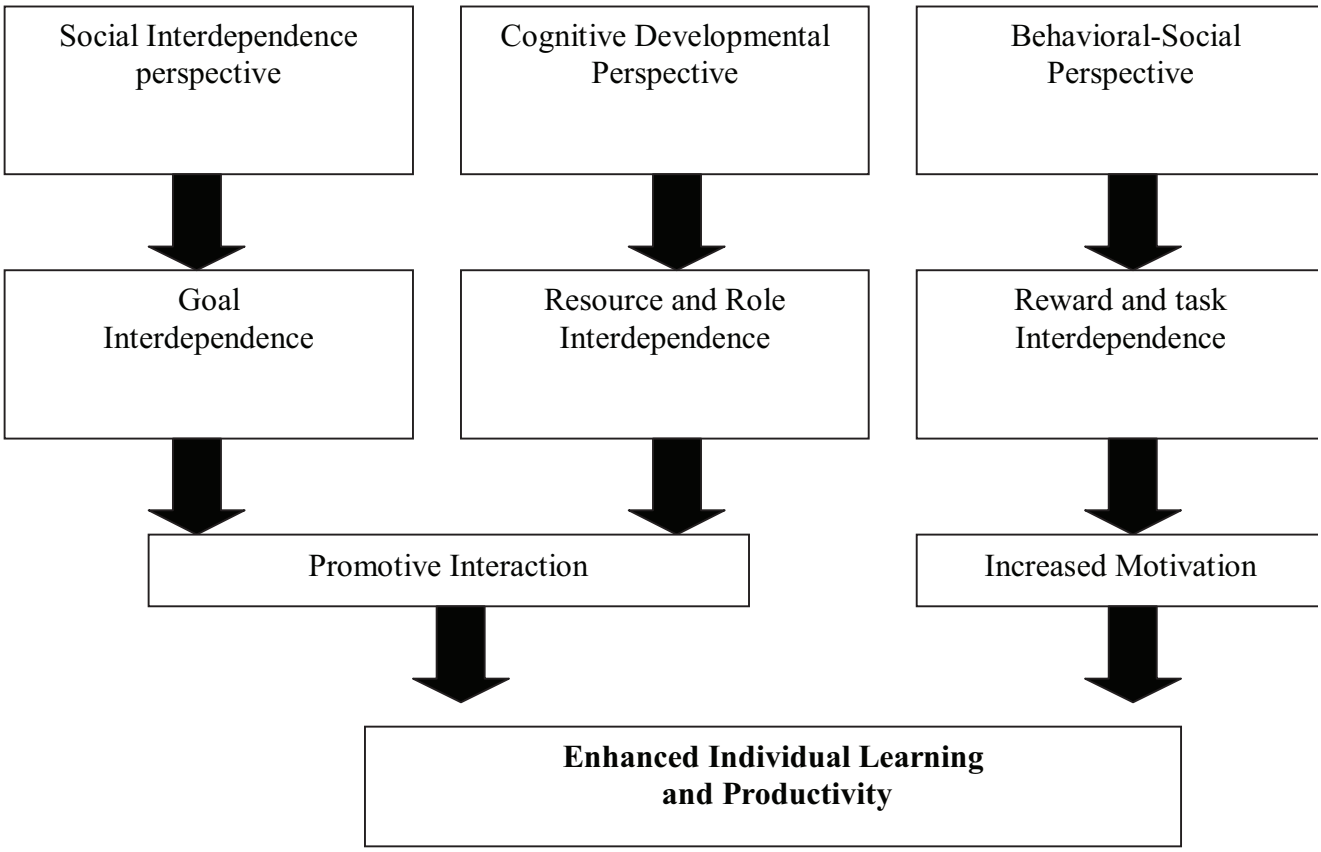

Figure 3: Theoretical Framework for Cooperative Learning.

(Johnson *et. al.* 1998 a).

3.1 The Social Interdependence Theory

The social interdependence theory which sustains CL represents the key identifying factor that differentiates it from other instructional models. According to Johnson (2003), it was developed by Koffa, Lewin, and Deutsch and the Johnsons. This theory shifts the focus of learning from competition to CL.

For Johnson *et. al.* (1994), the social interdependence perspective is built on the belief that social interdependence is either positive or negative, and the type we opt for affects the interaction of the individual and its consequences. Johnson (2003: 935) reports that through positive interdependence, individuals cooperate to help and encourage each other. As a result, interaction is enhanced. However, through negative interdependence, individuals compete with each other to achieve personal goals. Consequently, interaction is impeded as each individual's task is self-reliant.

Under CL, positive interdependence is a key to creating encouragement between the group members and advances the efforts of each other to achieve a shared goal; consequently, each student's learning is maximized. Thus, group members can play a key role in stimulating each other to learn successfully.

3.2 The Cognitive Developmental Theory

The development of CL is underpinned by the cognitive-developmental theory. The cognitive-developmental perspective is based on the provision of IM in CL contexts. The foundation of the cognitive development theory is constructed on the basis of Piaget's work in 1954 and Vygotsky's work in 1962. For Piaget (1954), interactions are the backbone of learning social knowledge (values, language, rules, symbol systems, and morality). He also

believes that cognitive development is conditioned by active experience, maturation, self-regulation and social transmission. Piaget (*ibid.*) perceives cooperation as making great efforts to achieve shared goals taking into account the other's feelings and opinions during the process of maturing them. For the Piagetian tradition, through cooperation, students confront cognitive conflicts resulting from opposing viewpoints; therefore, they seek to balance their perspectives to reach a consensus with others. Consequently, enhancing learners' intellectual development becomes a reality. Each student serves as a source for other students and plays a vital role in the other's gain of knowledge while working toward consensus.

Moreover, Piaget (*ibid.*) reports that the cognitive perspective perceives that knowledge is erected from personal experiences and interaction with the world, affording IM a crucial role in the process of learning. The cognitive learning theory represents a shift from teacher-centred to learner-centred approaches, where the learner is allocated a cardinal position in the class, placing the teacher as a facilitator to create a stimulating learning environment, and where the central interest of cognitive learning is the process of constructing knowledge.

Vygotsky (*op.cit.*), who is inspired by the Gestalt School of Psychology, represents a successive view on cognitive learning. He states that the learner intervenes actively in the process of learning and thinking. For him, the formation of knowledge takes place through interaction, the learning environment and the learning experience.

Vygotsky (1978, *ibid.*, 88) highlights the strong binding between cognitive development and social transmission. He states that "Human learning presupposes a specific social nature and a process by which children grow into the intellectual life of those around

them". Thus, since learning is social in nature, this entails that individuals' knowledge is predetermined by the social context in which they develop socially and intellectually.

For Vygotsky (*ibid.*), learning which have the right qualities is developmental and includes acquiring skills just beyond the students' level. He introduces the idea of the zone of proximal development (ZPD), in which he states that collaboration with advanced peers facilitates arriving at the space existing between the present level of development and probable progress; thus, the student's zone of proximal development is an interactive zone through which learning takes place. Consequently, CL is pedagogically effective. Bruning *et. al*. (1999: 218) define the zone of proximal development as "the difference between the difficulty level of a problem a child can cope with independently and the level that can be accomplished with adult help". That is what Vygostsky (*op.cit*., 218) states, "as children and adults interact, children are exposed to adults advanced systems of understanding, and change becomes possible".

Vygotskian perspective highlights that learning ensuing from social interaction conducts cognitive development. Piaget (*op.cit*.) assumes that the way to learning is cognitive development. Learners' participation in the learning process represents a central constituent of Piaget's developmental theory of learning and thinking. Knowledge is no longer transmitted to the learner who receives it in a passive way, but it is rather constructed by the learner who is actively involved in the learning process.

For Piaget (*ibid.*), determining students' present cognitive level strengths and weaknesses is a vital process on which teachers base their teaching. He assumes that individualizing learning is a prerequisite for successful learning. Moreover, providing

circumstances for conversational atmospheres to allow students interact with each other, exchange ideas, debate, argue, and confront conflicts seems to be of paramount importance. Teachers were considered as facilitators. Their main role is to guide and promote students. When learning actively, students require mental sustaining through trusting their intellectual abilities to learn.

Vygotsky's and Piaget's theories are complementary. The former is based on social interaction, while the latter is based on active learning. Both components are indispensable for implementing CL in the classroom. None of them was able to supply separately a sufficient answer for CL.

What makes the cognitive learning theory practical is its establishment on the basis that students actively structure their learning. This theory is underpinned by research in cognitive psychology grounded on the notion that the storing of data in memory, and linking them to previous saved information is restrained by the active involvement of the learner in the process of constructing knowledge.

3.3 The Behavioral Learning Theory

The essential assumption under this theory is that rewards and reinforcers are beneficial in the learning process. This belief is constructed on the basis that rewarded actions will be reproduced. Slavin (1990: 14; 1995: 16) sees that:

> rewarding groups based on group performance (or the sum of individual performances) creates an interpersonal reward structure in which group members will give or withhold social reinforcers (such as praise and encouragement) in response to groupmates' task-related efforts.

So, Slavin (1990) conditioned stimulating students to learn in a cooperative atmosphere by group rewards. These rewards will be gained due to the success of all the members of the

group. On this basis, the learners will pursue common rewards which stand as shared motivators for the group as a whole.

The behavioral learning theory is a sustaining theoretical influence on the development of CL. For the behavioral perspective, EM is a crucial factor leading to successful learning. This theory is grounded on the notion of stimulus response introduced by Skinner (1971) and Bandura (1977). Learning, for Skinner (1971), is a relatively permanent change in behavior in response to stimuli. The behaviorists propounded that learning is dominated by the stimulus/response approach. The role of the teacher is to manage learning through conducting the stimuli. This approach is teacher-centered as the learners display reliance on the teacher to descry the right link between the stimulus and the response. The behavioral perspective conditions contributing in group tasks by the provision of incentives, and that students release great energy while performing a task for the purpose of gaining rewards.

The focal issue of the cognitive developmental perspective is what takes place within the individual. Behavioral learning theory perceives that EM plays a vital role in generating and promoting learning cooperatively to secure rewards. Providing integration between IM and EM makes the CL model more conspicuous and adds the dimension of power to it. The social interdependence theory represents a transparent link to implementing CL. It allocates IM the lion share for the purpose of joining efforts while learning and undergoing the experience of accomplishing a shared goal. This theory determines what makes cooperation most effective, the outcomes resulting from positive cooperation, and the most efficacious procedures for CL implementation. So, social interdependence treats the particular conditions maximizing CL, its aftermaths and the most salient processes for CL practice.

4. Elements of Cooperative Learning

Teacher instructions like "work together" or "be a team", are not enough to create effective cooperation among learners. As Johnson and Johnson (1989: 3) point out, "placing students in groups and telling them to work does not in and of itself result in cooperation". As such, cooperation is not throwing students into groups and asking them to work together. But rather it is a sort of learning that revolves around pivotal components. These significant components are positive interdependence, face to face promotive interaction, individual and group accountability, interpersonal and small group skills, and group processing. Systematically, inserting these components into GL ascertains cooperative realization for long-term success.

The first and most important element is positive interdependence. According to Johnson and Johnson (*ibid.*), positive interdependence holds the impression that "we sink or swim together". For Sharan (1980), under CL, the learner faces two duties; first, he is responsible for learning the determined material; and second, he holds the burden of ascertainment that all group members learn the same material. This dual responsibility is labeled positive interdependence. The successful structuring of positive interdependence is reliant on group members' perception that the success of each member is tied to the success of all the other elements. This denotes that each member's accomplishment of his fair part of the whole work forms the crucial basis for success. This can only come about if each group member senses the necessity of his contribution to achieve group's success. That is to say, no group member can reach success if a failure is noticed from any member. Consequently, the planning of group goals and tasks and their transmission to the learners should be carried out pursuing procedures that generate the feeling that they sink or swim together.

For Johnson and Johnson (1999, *op.cit.*), the second basic element of CL is individual and group accountability. This component results naturally from positive interdependence. If positive interdependence is there, thus, each one is responsible for accomplishing his task as a whole, and each group member is accountable for his piece of the group task. As a result, CL requires two valuable types of accountability. First, the group as a whole holds the burden of responsibility for achieving the determined goals; that is to say, holding the group responsible for confirming that individual goals of each group are met. Second, each member of the group is responsible for the success or the failure of his group.

Johnson and Johnson (*ibid.*) report that the third basic element of CL is promotive interaction, preferably face to face. In this case, physical propinquity stands as a crucial condition for interaction to take place involving linguistic and paralinguistic elements of the language. Students require promoting each other's success by being close to each other. This can be achieved through the oral explanation of how to solve problems, the transmission of one's information to the other group members, talking about learned notions, and creating a concrete link between previous and recent learning, and checking for understanding. This ensures that promoting each other's learning face-to-face ends with group members personally committed to each other as well as to their mutual goals.

The fourth basic element is interpersonal and small group skills. CL is more sophisticated in nature than competitive or individualistic learning. This is mainly due to the concurrent occupancy of students by task work and teamwork. Johnson and Johnson (1986, *ibid.*, 4) believe that CL is requisite "…when we want students to learn more, like school better, like each other better, and learn more effective social skills". However, the ideal CL context doesn't result randomly. But, it depends on the social skills like leadership, decision-

making, trust-building, communication, and conflict management skills. Johnson and Johnson (1990, *ibid.*, 26) highlight the need to teach these skills and to stimulate the students to employ them. They also state that the lack of interpersonal and small group skills lead to the unproductivity of CL. Although students may look from an artificial eye at these social skills, more practice through time, leads learners to conceive practising social skills as an enjoyable game.

The fifth basic element of CL is group processing. Johnson and Johnson (*ibid.*, 28) state that "Such processing (a) enables learning groups to focus on group maintenance, (b) facilitates the learning of social skills, (c) ensures the members receive feedback on their participation, and (d) reminds students to practise collaborative skills consistently". The existence of group processing relies on the discussion established among members about the extent to which their goals are achieved and the maintenance of efficient relationships. Such a discussion leads to determine positive and negative actions and to specify what to change or continue. Such a discussion can enhance learner's performance. Group processing can be carried out either in groups or as a whole class. The importance of group processing lies in the provision of feedback to the students for the purpose of strengthening the behavior in practice.

Generally, these five elements are the defining bases for CL and whose incorporation in the process of teaching makes this technique successful. Each element has an effective interdependent role which differentiates this technique from the traditional ones.

5. Cooperative Learning Methods

Cooperative instruction involves innumerable methods which epitomize an opportunity for teachers to select what is suitable to their pedagogical creed. The following methods mentioned in the table are the focal ones:

Researcher-Developer	Date	Method
Johnson & Johnson	Mid 1970s	Learning Together (LT)
Devries , Edwards & Slavin	Early 1970s	Teams-Games-Tournaments (TGT)
Sharan & Sharan	Mid 1970s	Group Investigation (GI)
Johnson & Johnson	Mid 1970s	Constructive Controversy
Aronson & Associates	Late 1970s	Jigsaw Procedure
Slavin & Associates	Late 1970s	Student Teams Achievement Divisions (STAD)
Cohen	Early 1980s	Complex Instruction
Slavin & Associates	Early 1980s	Team Assisted Instruction (TAI)
Kagan	Mid 1980s	Cooperative Learning Structures
Stevens, Slavin & Associates.	Late 1980s	Cooperative Integrated Reading & Composition (CIRC)
Kagan	Early 1990s	Three-Step Interview
Kagan	Late 1980s	Inside-Outside Circle

Table 2: Modern Methods of Cooperative Learning (Adapted from Johnson *et. al.* 2000).

The following examples are some of the cooperative learning methods developed during the 1970's. These are Teams-Games-Tournaments, Jigsaw method, Learning Together, and Student Team Achievement Division.

5.1 Teams-Games-Tournaments

Slavin (1996) reports that this method is developed by Devries, Edwards and Slavin (1978). It is conditioned by the students' active involvement in weekly tournaments or games. Students work in small groups to learn the assigned material. Competition is created between students who have the same level but belong to other groups. Rewards are afforded to high-performing teams.

5.2 Jigsaw Method

The Jigsaw method was developed by Aronson and colleagues in the late 1970's. Johnson and Johnson (1989) clarifies that this method combines both cooperative and individualistic procedures. Students are assigned to groups of four to six members. Each individual in the group solves a different piece of the whole work. The students who are considered as "experts" exchange information with other learners from different groups. Finally, they go back to their previous groups and transmit what they have learned to their group members.

5.3 Learning Together

Slavin (1983) reports that Learning Together (LT) was developed by Johnson and Johnson in the 1970's. This method involves learners working together in small heterogeneous groups to produce a group project. The leading concept under this instruction is "interdependence". Deutsch (1949) assumes that interdependence entails learners' recognition of the influence they receive and pass to others. Interdependence is categorized into tow types: positive and negative, taking into account the third case where no interdependence occurs between people.

5.4 Student Team Achievement Division

Johnson and Johnson (1989) indicate that Student Team Achievement Division (STAD) is an instructional cooperative method propounded by Slavin in the late 1970's, where the teacher explains the lecture to the whole class. This lecture is followed by the formation of heterogeneous groups for the sake of studying what has been provided by the teacher to be ready for a quiz. Slavin (1996: 2) states that the learner's score obtained in the quiz is the foundation for determining his personal grade. But, in such instruction, students are responsible for influencing the group score. Student's participation to the group's score is calculated by comparing the mark obtained on the quiz to the average mark achieved in the past quizzes. Thus, the weaker students can be equal to the stronger learners in their contribution to their teams. Finally, rewards such as certificates and recognition in newsletters are afforded in response to the obtained group scores.

Thus, group contingencies can stimulate students to improve their own level to contribute in improving the group score. Slavin (1987: 30) perceives that group contingencies hold the sense that "the behavior of one or more group members brings rewards to a group". Group contingencies take place in the following way: first, the groups receive reward or punishment from the teacher, then, members of the group would afford reward and punishment to each other.

In general, the effectiveness of such a model lies in creating a more comfortable learning environment by giving equal opportunities for each learner to demonstrate his improvement. This progress can be a strong motivator to learn and enjoy the learned material.

6. Cooperative Learning Benefits

A variety of exploratory studies have proved the advantageous outcomes of CL. These outcomes are closely associated with academic achievement, social interaction, racial relations, handicaps, mainstreaming self-esteem, and liking of class and school.

6.1 Learners' Academic Achievement

Many empirical investigations displayed the significant impact of CL on learners' academic achievement. Johnson and Johnson (1991: 39) discover that CL is better than competitive learning for many reasons. CL affords more new solutions and ideas. It generates higher levels of reasoning, and ameliorates the transfer of knowledge from one situation to another. Thus, CL is the axle around which positive instructional ideas burst out, and learners' level of reasoning augments. Consequently, students' academic achievement will be positively influenced.

Webb (1982) contends that CL leads to generate higher level thinking skills. For Schwartz *et.al.* (1991), students' learning in cooperative atmospheres epitomizes the most potent form of interaction. According to Yager *et.al.* (1985), such an environment will improve learners' oral communication skills. For Johnson (1971), Peterson and Swing (1985), when working cooperatively, students are improving valuable problem solving skills by giving a shape to their ideas, debating them, obtaining feedback and displaying a reaction toward questions and comments. Entwistle and Tait (1994) believe that through cooperation, "deep" rather than "surface" learning results from higher levels of interaction and interdependence. CL fosters learners' perseverance. This notion is treated by the Johnsons (*op.cit.*, 1990: 121) who assert that:

> In a cooperative learning situation, student goal achievements are positively correlated, students perceive that they can reach learning goals if and only if the other students in the learning group also reach their goals. Thus, students seek outcomes that are beneficial to all those with whom they are cooperatively linked.

Joyce and Showers (1995: 72) evidence through reviewing CL studies that outcomes of these studies are highly positive. They also discover that the complexity of the outcomes is firmly linked with the rate of employing cooperative instruction, like higher order problem solving and processing of information. Davis (1993) contends that the potent involvement of learners in the learning process leads to better learning.

Thus, in groups, students absorb more information and save it for longer time. This is mainly due to the fact that low achieving students are involved in the learning experience, receive and give feedback, contribute in intellectual conflicts and transmit to the group members what they have learnt.

6.2 Social Interactions

Cohen and Willis (1985) descry that CL generates a strong social support system. This implies that reliance on students' social experiences stimulates learners' involvement in the learning process and fosters interaction between group members, which in itself reduces the commodious spaces between them. The teacher plays a pivotal role in activating interaction between him and the learners and among the learners themselves through his observation of learners' interactions. Johnson & Johnson (1985); Swing & Peterson (1982); and Hooper & Hannafin (1988) demonstrate that integrating higher achievement students with lower achievers would lead to mutual benefits. While higher achievement students' demonstrations

or explanations are beneficial for them, lower achievers would benefit from problem solving introduced by a peer. Brown (1988: 178) reports that:

> small groups provide opportunities for student initiation, for face-to- face give and take, for practice [sic] negotiation of meaning, and for extended conversational exchanges, and for students' adoption of roles that would otherwise be impossible.

All these opportunities which encompass more conversation and a convenient atmosphere to learn how and when to make decisions would generate good social relationships between learners. As Kessler and Macleod (1985: 219) state:

> CL promotes positive societal responses…reduces violence in any setting…eliminates fear and blame, increases honor ,friendliness, and consensus, process is as important as content and goal. CL takes time to master, and facilitators who have done the personal work that allows sharing of power, service to the learners, and natural learning, find CL a joy.

Slavin (1995: 67) also accentuates the same notion when he reports that "the preponderance of the evidence [...] certainly supports the conclusion that cooperative learning promotes positive relationships between students". Consequently, when learners are closer to each other, the possibility of exchanging ideas and interacting with each other is extended.

Ultimately, the appropriate use of the five elements of CL which are inevitable for any cooperative instruction will create good relations between the learners who are different socially, psychologically, economically and intellectually.

6.3 Self Esteem

Webb (1982) perceives that interaction is enhanced at all levels due to CL. This leads us immediately to shed light on self esteem which typifies one of these dimensions. Under cooperative instructions, students give up regarding the teacher as the only source of

information and comprehension; consequently, such a perception raises their self-esteem. Learners' self-esteem is increased under CL, which promotes learners to be responsible for their learning process. Johnson *et. al.* (1994) analyzed the studies about self-esteem. The result was that more than eighty studies compared the aftermaths of cooperative, competitive, and individualistic techniques on self-esteem. Second, students' self-esteem is increased in a cooperative environment when compared to competitive or individualistic ones.

Engaging students in CL enhances their self-esteem. It seems that CL affects students' self-esteem because they develop a sense that their participation in their group makes a positive difference. Thus, cooperation makes them discover their intellectual capacities and accomplishment within a group of learners and the valuable role they perform through their contributions. Under cooperative conditions, students afford aids to each other, and this results in the erection of a supportive community which has a direct influence on students' level and self-esteem.

6.4 Predilection for Class and School

Johnson and Johnson (1991: 44) report that, in cooperative situations, students shape a positive perspective toward their classmates, school, teacher and academic subjects. The active involvement of students in the learning experience creates interest and motivates students to release more energy to be present at school. Treisman (1992) states that interaction enhances students' motivation, contribution and attendance. For Cooper (1994), Hagman and Hayes (1986), learners carrying out projects outside the class tend to obtain efficient results and remain at school.

7. Cooperative Writing

Writing is a pivotal tool for intellectual development and a significant instrument of learning. However, learning writing as an essential skill is a painful experience for most learners. This problem compels teachers to create pertinent atmospheres for learning to communicate in writing. Clarck *et. al.* (2003: 84) state that:

> In introducing a writing topic in the classroom, it is helpful to foster a classroom atmosphere that invites experimentation and exploration so that students will be able to entertain possibilities without fear of ridicule or negative evaluation. To create a classroom atmosphere that is "invention-oriented", it is useful to share your own invention process with students and encourage students to try out new ideas.

Therefore, an experimental and exploratory atmosphere for transforming thoughts into concrete group discussions can be secured through group discussions. Clarck *et. al.* (*ibid.,* 85) contend that:

> The most useful method of helping students generate ideas for a writing assignment is to have them discuss the topic in pairs, small groups, or with the whole class. Sharing ideas with enabled students of all levels to engage with a topic, fostering insight that will stimulate the imagination.

This is so because cooperative interaction can be exploited in each stage of the writing process: planning, drafting, revising, and publishing. Students with learning disabilities confront difficulties in all the stages of the writing process; thus, they require learning appropriate strategies.

For Harmer (2001: 260), cooperative writing is more beneficial with process and genre-based approaches. In the first one, reviewing and evaluating are positively affected because of the peer response strategy, which means the presence of more than one feedback provider. In addition, the generation of ideas is more active in an interactive atmosphere which stimulates the flow of thoughts. In the second one, the analysis of “genre-specific texts” is carried out by

tow learners which is more potent than the analysis by one learner. Moreover, the generation of “genre-specific texts" is a more successful operation.

Students with learning disabilities allot less time to planning, generate surface thoughts, and finish writing without being heedful enough to the organization of the text. This problem can only be worked out through peer or group writing which provides a prop and motivation for the learners. Harmer (*ibid.*) reports that "Writing in groups, whether as part of a short game-like communicative activity, can be greatly motivating for students, including as it does, not only writing but research, discussion, peer evaluation and group pride in group accomplishment.” Thus, peer or group work helps students to be engaged in the assigned writing activity which extends to involve research, discussion and evaluation.

To sum up, cooperative writing motivates the learners and underpins them to internalize in a thorough way the process of writing through the skill of speaking. Moreover, it helps learners to orient their attention to the significant aspects of the writing process like a real audience and purpose and to accentuate a meaningful content including learners' awareness of how written communication is generated and how it functions.

8. Collaborative Learning and Cooperative Learning

The primary foci of both cooperative and collaborative learning are joint interaction, active learning, dependence on small heterogeneous groups, the pursuit of shared goals, and the promotion of positive relations among learners. For Bruffee (1999), both cooperative and collaborative learning share similar theoretical roots as their principles have burst out of the philosophies of Dewy (1916) as a designer of the Progressive Education Movement; who assumes that learning is a social process, and that we rely on others for survival as well as for

learning. This represents the basic foundation for both of them and affords learning a social and interactive essence. Knowledge is no longer received from the teacher, but rather constructed by the learners as they converse actively to reach a consensus. The teacher, in both modalities, is responsible for creating pertinent settings for learners to learn jointly. Bruffee (*ibid.,* 83) states that "both are educational activities in which human relationships are the key to welfare, achievement and mastery. While both camps may disagree on terms, methods or principles, and assumptions, their long-range goals are strikingly similar".

Collaborative learning and CL are built on the essence of group-based learning. However, there are significant differences between the two instructional strategies. For Bruffee (*ibid.*, 1995: 12), each type was "developed originally for educating people of different ages, experience and levels of mastery of the craft of interdependence". Matthews *et al*. (1995) and Bruffee (*op.cit*.) believe that they are also dissimilar in terms of the relationship of power and authority between the teacher and his students. The confines of CL lie in the teacher's hands, since he determines goals, controls students' learning and puts assessment. Collaborative learning is more suitable for adults because students are given more responsibility for their learning. Thus, the two methods differ in the nature of the teacher's role and the level of involvement in the classroom. Bruffee (*ibid.*, 1999) specifies collaborative learning for higher education and assumes the appropriateness of CL for pre-college students.

Macaulay and Gonzales (1996) state that there is a continuum of group-based strategies on which collaborative and CL are located; but while collaborative learning is the least structured approach, CL is the most structured one. For Matthews *et. al*. (*op.cit*., 40), "cooperative learning tends to be more structured in its approach to small group instruction, to

be more detailed in advice to practitioners, and to advocate more direct training of students to function in groups." The efficacy of CL is reliant on five elements, positive interdependence, individual and group accountability, face-to-face interaction, interpersonal and small group skills, and group processing. Yet, collaborative learning is less structured and holds more responsibility, as Matthews *et. al. (ibid.)* report, "collaborative learning practitioners [...] assume students as responsible participants who already use social skills in undertaking and completing tasks".

For Cross (2000), CL is viewed as being group-based learning implemented at the elementary and secondary levels while collaborative learning is considered as group-based learning executed at higher levels of education. Eventually, the two instructional models are dissimilar but not on the basis of the instructional level as they are applicable at all levels of education. The efficacious application of CL is, at all levels, without exception, and depends on the five elements mentioned above. Collaborative learning, however, which is less structured, is deprived from these five elements and cognitively demanding as the students attain knowledge and understand it in a common inquiry process and as the instructor is, no longer, the only origin of dominion and information which implies eliminating the dominance of the teacher. In CL, the teacher is a facilitator and a monitor. His intervention is conditioned by the needs of the learners.

Conclusion

CL is a group based learning method, in which students learn jointly for the purpose of achieving common goals. Its impact is salient in the academic, social and psychological domains related to the teaching-learning process. The teacher's role is vital for facilitating and monitoring the learning process. Indeed, CL and collaborative learning are two faces of the

same coin; yet, they differ in theory and practice. Despite its implementation at all levels of education, CL is much more structured than collaborative learning.

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CHAPTER THREE
REWARD IN THE CLASSROOM

Introduction

In this chapter, relevant literature is presented to tackle the definition of reward, its types and its importance. Moreover, an overview of the debate for and against reward is provided. Finally, this chapter is culminated by the appropriate ways for dispensing reward and the connection between this extrinsic motivator and cooperative learning.

In the middle of the twentieth century, behaviourist theories involving Pavlov's classical conditioning (1927) and Skinner's operant conditioning (1953) supposed that individuals' actions are restricted by reward or punishment. Thus, for the behaviourists, motivation is more subject to external forces than to internal forces. Internal and external motivating factors became more salient in the 1970s, when IM and EM were tackled distinctively. IM revolves around performing behaviours or acts to undergo gratification or fulfilling one's inquisitiveness. Therefore, individuals who are intrinsically motivated pursue their inward satisfaction. On the other hand, EM revolves around the performance of an action for the sake of attaining some extrinsic reward (ER) or evading punishment. This denotes that individuals who are extrinsically motivated pursue rewards. Thus, reward and motivation are implicitly reticulated, and reward can serve as the spring for motivation to activate learners.

1. Definition of Reward

An external reward is considered as an incentive for the sake of engagement in an activity or a task. Rewards can take many forms; monetary, symbolic, or feedback. It is a reward that holds the transmission of regulating knowledge to the individual. Burton *et. al.* (2003: 242) report that reward "refers to anything that promotes a behaviour being repeated in the future." Brunsma *et. al*. (1996) consider EM which is also labelled incentive motivation as an expectation of a reward for performance. According to Reynolds *et. al*. (1989), a reward is then an external motivator obtained through the accomplishment of an assigned task. External rewards such as candy, money, or free time have often a motivational function for children. For Young (1936: 310), "The concepts of 'reward' and 'punishment' are interpretations based upon positive and negative behaviour, or upon pleasant and unpleasant feelings. Therefore, incentives which are unpleasant are potential punishments, and those which induce satisfaction can serve as rewards". The main goal behind using external rewards is to teach new behaviour. The learning of that behaviour leads to expect the necessity of reinforcers. External rewards can work to generate IM, mainly due to learners' awareness that these rewards have induced their behaviours and led them to success.

According to Schultz (2007: 1), "Rewards are objects or events that make us come back for more. We need them for survival and use them for behavioural choices that maximize them". For Wise (2004), a reward is any object or event that elicits approach and is worked for. This alludes to the fact that rewards take two forms: tangible or intangible, and both types stimulate us to survive and persist on acting as potent agents. Schultz (*op. cit*., 1) sees that:

> Rewards are any objects stimuli or events that (1) increase the probability and intensity of behavioural actions leading to such objects (learning, also, called positive reinforcement), (2) generate approach and consummatory behaviour and constitute outcomes of economic decision-making, and (3) induce subjective feelings of hedonia.

Rewards either concrete or abstract foster the occurrence of actions while pursing them and generate feelings of satisfaction and joy. These feelings of satisfaction represent the fuel for individuals to underprop their actions and behaviours which are always flowing continuously rather than being erect at one point when reasons are strenuous enough to promote individuals to do so.

Witzel and Mercer (2003: 89) discovered that novice teachers rely on EM in their classroom. This EM is labelled by some researchers as bribes or incentives. Many teachers exploit incentives in the form of points for finishing a task, obtaining a good grade, or behaving in a befitting way. Parents also have the habit to bestow rewards/incentives/bribes to stimulate their children behave in a pertinent mode. Common incentives may encompass money or extra privileges. Students seem to lean more to ER (s).

2. Types of Reward

Rewards can be categorized into intrinsic and extrinsic rewards (IR/ER). IR (s) are those that prompt discernments of personal causation, and those that generate recognitions of external causation are ER (s). For Rummel and Feinberg (1988), early experimental psychologists perceive that ER (s) prompt behaviours. External rewards can be tangible or verbal like praise, informational or controlling.

2.1 Tangible Reward

External rewards can take many forms like money, candy, scholarship, or grades. Whatsoever the form, external rewards are generally employed to bring forth the wished behaviour. Tangible rewards can be employed to express gratitude to students' good deeds or engagement, Ridnouer (2006: 15) states:

> I also use the candy to say thank you when I catch everyone in the class doing a good job. Sometimes during a writing assignment I will look up and see everyone working. Pens and Pencils are flashing across white papers, and I can almost see the ideas flying.
> As they finish up, I silently walk around the room placing a piece of candy on the corner of each student's desk. Most of them whisper a thank you or at least smile. Some even show their appreciation by continuing to write and eating the candy later.

So, what matters about rewards are the preceding actions the teacher performs, which reflect interest in what the students are doing. These actions induce feelings of involvement and importance for the learners and promote them to carry on accomplishing the task at hand. Moreover, prizes can epitomize an effective incentive without being precious, Hauge (2001: 12) states:

> Prizes can range from inexpensive items to a substantial cash reward. Prizes can include magnetic address books for e-mail address, picture frame magnets, paperback books, locker mirrors, school supplies, sports bottles, sports cards, gel pens, mousepads, bookmarks, lanyards, buttons, or stickers. Sport logo baseball caps and T-shirts also are popular. Gift certificates come in a wide variety of offerings. Students welcome for bookstores, shopping malls, and fast food restaurants.

The manifold instances of reward are good evidence that justifies its strenuousness. Such a variety reflects a diversity in the learners' lean towards rewards and their types. This signifies that the adequacy of the reward does not lie in its expensiveness, but rather in the pertinent message that it holds and that meets learners' needs. Consequently, including rewards in the process of teaching coerces teachers to individualize affording them and to partake with the learners their interests and necessities. This is a clear indication that rewards are not bestowed randomly or nebulously, but based on purposeful rules whose determination compels the instructor to release his flowing power of meditation.

2.2 Praise

Praise is a form of reward that can be verbal or written afforded for accomplishing a particular task. Kamal and Gallahue (1980) proclaim that praise and criticism are used at a large scale to urge the wished behaviours and to transmit information. Praise can play a crucial role in motivating students if we know well when and how to use it. Kegan and Lahey (2001: 92) argue that:

> We all do better at work if we regularly have the experience that what we do matters, that it is valuable, and that our presence makes a difference to others. We may know in our hearts that what we do matters, but it is certainly confirming to hear the words from others, we do not after all, work and live in a vacuum. Believing that what we do and how we do it makes a difference can also lead us to take additional care in performing our work.

Even if people are competent enough, and they are aware of their competency, they feel the need to be esteemed by others. As they belong to a social group and undergo a positive experience, they generate the internal emotional susceptibilities for being actively different and what they do induces a salient amelioration in the eyes of those around them. Such feelings are instinctive and universal to all the human beings; and although they are important for stimulating people, they need to be controlled to avoid exaggeration.

2.2.1 Potent Praise

Brunette (2001; in Brophy, 2004: 165) contends that "Most teachers enjoy delivering praise, and most students enjoy receiving it at least when it is delivered as a spontaneous, genuine reaction to an accomplishment rather than as a part of a calculated manipulation attempt". Thus, for praise to have salient sequels, it has to hold feelings of appreciation and encouragement which assist in building learners' confidence thanks to the positive impressions we display through it. For this reason, Brophy (2004: 167) reports that:

> Therefore, it is important to phrase praise statements as communication of informative feedback rather than as evaluation. Effective praise expresses appreciation for students' efforts or admiration for their accomplishments, in ways that call attention to the efforts or accomplishments themselves rather than to their role in pleasing the teacher.

As a result such a praise interprets learners' real capacities and helps them to develop more confidence in their abilities and to consider it as a means to esteem their efforts and not as an end in itself because it is not controlling them or making them feel pressured, but rather it is transmitting facts about their talents and skills to make them achieve more success. This aim can only be achieved through the natural tone of voice and spontaneity when uttering praise which enrobes sincerity, and the more it is associated with para-linguistic elements, the more it becomes efficacious and leads the learner to meditate over the strategies he is employing either during the task or afterwards. It makes evident how further success can be reached. Giving enough consideration to learners' reflection about their strategies generate their active involvement in the process of learning. Thus, praise can create IM and induce learners' craving to perform tasks for their own sake.

We also need to internalize that praise is subject to individual achievements; consequently, various types and amounts of praise would be necessary for different individuals. Borphy (*ibid.*) clarifies that:

> Effective praise is genuine. Borphy and Everston (1981) found that teachers were credible and spontaneous when praising students whom they liked, often smiling as they spoke and praising genuine accomplishments. These teachers praised students whom they disliked just as frequently, but usually without accompanying spontaneity and warmth and often with reference to appearance or conduct rather than accomplishments.

Ridnouer (2006: 154) further says that "Although we don't want to shower our students with false praise, we don't want to chastise too freely either". Thus, sincerity is a key element that interacts with praise to complete the equation and to makes it effective since both counterfeit praise and punishment are not desirable decisions for teachers.

Brophy (*op. cit*., 167-169) establishes seven bases for dispensing praise in a pertinent way that results in positive outcomes. These bases are ordered in the following way:

1. Praise simply and directly, in a natural voice, without gushing or dramatizing.

2. Praise in a straightforward, declarative sentence such as ("I never thought of that before") instead of gushy exclamations ("Wow!") or rhetorical questions.

3. Specify the particular accomplishment being praised and recognize any networthy effort, care, or perseverance ("Good! You figured it out all by yourself. I like the way you stuck with it without giving up" instead of "Good work"). Call attention to new skills or evidence of progress ("I notice you've learned to use different kinds of metaphors in your compositions. They're more interesting to read now".

4. Use a variety of phrases for praising students. Overused stock phrases soon begin to sound insincere and give the impression that you have not paid much attention to accomplishments you are praising.

5. Combine verbal praise with nonverbal communication of approval. "Good job!" is much more rewarding when delivered with a smile and a tone that communicate appreciation or warmth.

6. Avoid ambiguous statements that students may take as praise for compliance rather than for learning (e.g., "You were really good today." Instead be specific in praising their accomplishments ("I'm very pleased with your reading this morning especially the way

you read with so much expression. You made the conversation between Billy and Mr. Taylor sound very real.").

7. Ordinarily, students should be praised privately. This underscores that the praise is genuine and avoids the problem of sounding as though you are holding the student up as an example to the rest of the class.

Therefore, being natural when praising students reflects sincerity and bestows the averment that what the student is doing is of paramount importance. This feature can not be in operation alone. It requires immediacy and simplicity. This natural praise necessitates a declarative form to make it more direct and to facilitate grasping it by the receiver. Precision is also a pivotal element. It implies particularizing the praised accomplishment or effort in order to attract the learners' attention to the points of improvement. Depriving praise from variety orientates the students to feel the lack of genuineness and to believe that the teacher is giving counterfeit praise or is bribing them. In addition to variety, merging verbal praise with the adequate paralinguistic elements makes it more expressive and can transmit the assigned message to the learners to induce the assigned change, i.e., to be more precise and to specify the meant improvement. Moreover, instructors have to be more precise and to specify the meant improvement. Ultimately, we have to individualize praising learners; that is to say, to orientate praise immediately to the learner in a private way to demonstrate genuineness.

As a conclusion, if praise is not subject to the previous measures, it will endanger the learners since it may undermine their IM and bring about students' reliance on ER(s). The amount of praise may also risk reward efficacy. If students receive too much praise, they would lean toward easier tasks and avoid the challenging ones in order to get a lot of praise. In doing so, their performance would be affected and deteriorated.

2.3 Informational Reward

Informational reward transmits to the individuals facts revolving around their effectiveness in the environment. Koestner *et. al*. (1987) investigated the connection between praise involvement and IM. In this research, a hidden figure task is employed under two conditions; a test like condition and a game-like condition. Moreover, a type of verbal reward is given to the individuals as a response to their performance; either ability-focused praise, effort-focused praise, or no praise. Individuals under the game-like condition were more intrinsically motivated than those under the test-like condition. Furthermore, those who obtained the ability praise rewards displayed higher IM than those receiving effort rewards or no praise at all. Thus, it is the informational manner of reward rather than the comparative one which increases motivation. The way informational reward is introduced and the way it is interpreted influence individuals' feelings of competence.

2.4 Controlling Reward

ER (s) are tended to command human behaviour. In each situation, the rewardee's behaviour is controlled by the rewarder. The cognitive evaluation theory does not accuse the effectiveness of ER(s), instead, it endeavours to enhance the awareness about the uncalculated negative outcomes combined with the utilization of ER(s). Thus, a general conclusion was drawn stating that ER(s) induce a decrease in IM mainly caused by a swerve in self-determination from internal to external. Therefore, the salience of the controlling aspect of a reward causes a decrease in IM due to undermining autonomy. According to Zull (2002: 53), rewards are not negative "but rather that extrinsic rewards are aimed at the wrong target. They are aimed at things outside learning. They have no natural relationship to the internal life of learning." Consequently, the teacher needs to reward successful learning, but he must have a deep understanding of intrinsic motivation and rewards that are related to learning.

3. Importance of Reward

Reward can provide many useful benefits in motivating individuals to perform actions. The key issue is to search for incentives which produce the best results. Kelley (1997:17) states that:

> Rewards policies are useful in organizations in which no one individual is responsible for meeting organizational goals, but where the service or products relies heavily on the work of many individuals and interactions among them, a situation characteristic of many organizations today, including schools.

EM necessitates a kind of reward for performing a task. Thus, grades, cash, prizes, or other tangible rewards can be gained by students. These rewards can be labelled as incentives. Incentives mirror their avail in motivating school students to write. But, the best solution lies in tracking out the pertinent incentives which hold within their folds the unsurpassed outcomes. Ridnouer (2006: 153) claims that: "When a discussion or activity goes especially well, I make a point to thank the students at the end of class. It's something I do sparingly and only on those magical days. Kids know when praise is real, and when they got it, they just glow." Praising students is of paramount importance since it is sincere. It activates the students gleam as they progress through the learning process.

Affording rewards such as candy enhances students' feelings that what they are doing makes a difference, and that they are active elements since they are not erect at one point of knowledge. Rindnouer (*ibid*., 154) further adds:

> I generally use the candy in the first semester only. By second semester, my kids are in the groove, behaving and reacting in class according to our class rules because they want to. They do not need an external reward because they have an internal one-pride.

This implies that tangible rewards have to be temporal, and withdrawn when not needed for students as the internal rewards prevail. However, Adock *et. al*. (2006) showed that

anticipated monetary rewards modulate activation in the mesolimbic and parahippocampal regions and promotes memory formation prior to learning.

Brophy (2004: 169), on the other hand, evinces that Henderlong and Lepper (2002), in their meta-analysis about praise, checked many of their principles. This research ended up by deciding that:

> Praise enhances intrinsic motivation and increases perseverance when it is received as sincere, encourages adaptive performance attributions, promotes perceived autonomy, provides information about competence without relying heavily on social comparisons, and conveys standards and expectations that are realistic for the student.

The significance of praise lies in the ruminative way of its implementation. Both of motivation, perseverance, performance attributions and autonomy can be positively affected by sincere praise. This leads to the deduction that the effectiveness of praise is more evident when it is interpreted as encouragement, and that praising students has significant strenuousness since it is sincere and not counterfeit. Thus, sincerity is a key element that dispenses praise its power to orientate learners toward the teacher's designed goals and to stimulate their internal craving to achieve their own objectives while perceiving deeply that they are exploring, learning, producing and developing for themselves and not for the others. Petty (2004: 183) reports that:

> Nothing motivates quite as the glow of satisfaction that a student gets when he or she answers a question correctly, and immediately gets warm praise from the teacher. Remember that psychologists studying stimulus-response learning found that an immediate reward encouraged learning. Remember also that students are motivated by success. Questioning motivates students not just because they find it to be an interesting activity generally, but because it gives an immediate reward for their endeavour, and demonstrates success in learning.

This implies that rewards have a salient role in inducing decision making since the orientation of the options is subject to these rewards. Moreover, calculating its positive and negative outcomes contributes in renewing anticipation that is necessary for the next decision.

Reward joins the action which affords it a value. The choices we opt for determine the values of the action which form the basis of decision making. For Dickinson and Balleine (1994), reward can possess goal orientation when its presentation and behaviour as well as preparation and execution are simultaneous and when the particular action and the reward are connected regularly. Rewards stimulate a change in feelings such as pleasure and the consequential positive emotion. These feelings are powerful enough to generate an efficacious supporting impact on the target behavior. The target behavior receives the efficacious supporting impact of these feelings which are vigorous to the extent that they can generate it. Berridge and Robinson (2003) display that recent theories postulate that rewards result in an insensible "wanting" where pleasure is out of consideration, and a gratifying "liking" of rewards. Consequently, the reward effect on feelings is prominent either consciously or unconsciously.

For Brophy (*op. cit*., 158), "effects of rewards might be considered with respect to immediate task effort or performance, changes in attitudes toward the task (e.g., finding it interesting) or changes in subsequent IM to perform the task." Hence, the importance of reward can be visualized through positive changes in effort or performance, perspective toward the assigned activities or through an enhancement in their IM.

Porter and Lawler's model (1968) accentuates the impacts of rewards on personal performance. Hackman's model (1973) involved group processes and effects on individual behaviour. The integration of the two models results in the following model:

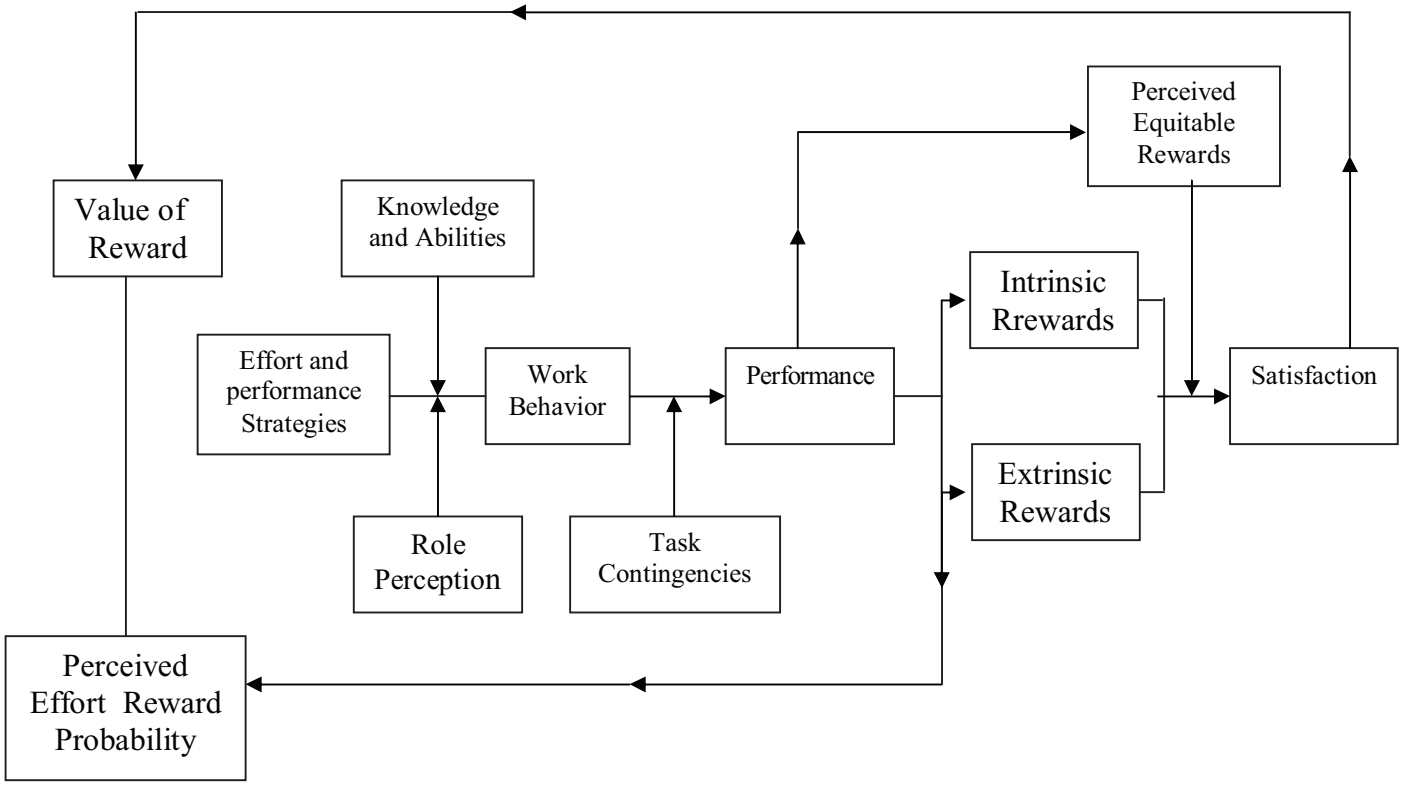

Figure 4: Conceptual Model: How Rewards Impact Performance.

(Adapted from Porter & Lawler, 1968 and Hackman, 1973)

Under this model, the perception of the value of reward has a functioning role for the perceived effort needed. Awareness has to be raised about the fact that esteemed rewards take place under the condition of successful outcomes. Ultimately, subsequent performance will be impacted by the discernment that gratification and negative or positive perceptions result from equitable gained rewards.

Ultimately, many research studies that concerned financial incentives have asserted that they have a positive impact on performance. However, others perceive that most of the research displaying a positive effect of financial incentives looked only at short term results for just easy tasks.

4. The Debate for and Against Reward

The use of reward is a controversial issue among researchers and theorists. Witzel and Mercer (2003: 89) make clear that:

> Some researchers have concluded that extrinsic rewards may ruin the chance for a student to become intrinsically motivated. On the other hand, other researchers have concluded that some extrinsic rewards either do not affect intrinsic motivation or may provide students the opportunity to develop intrinsic motivation.

For Witzel and Mercer, researchers who are against rewards perceive that if rewards become the only goal of the learners, it may be inadmissible for them to perform a task that is deprived from rewards because their IM is undermined. On the other hand, researchers who are for the uses of rewards assume that rewards do not have negative influences on IM or develop it. Brophy (2004: 154) states that:

> However, from the standpoint of most motivational theorists, this is control of behaviour, not motivation of learning…Some educators have always opposed extrinsic motivational methods on principle, viewing them as bribing students for doing what they should be doing anyway because it is the right thing to do or because it is in the best interests of themselves or of society.

Thus, for motivational theorists, learners have to be internally motivated and have to internalize the fact that performing any task is either beneficial for them or for their society.

The era of the 1970s and 1980s represented a strong opposition toward ER(s). Results of the research demonstrated that rewards undermine IM. External elements like rewards often dictate control. Brophy (*op. cit.*) assumes that under the pressure of rewards, learners will be controlled by these rewards which make them opt for unchallenging tasks as they are an accessible source for rewards. That is why, they lead to undermine learners' IM and that proponents of rewards overstate their efficacy. Moreover, Kohn (1999: 115-116) proposes that "The trouble with rewards is not that we hand them out too easily, it is that they are

controlling, ultimately ineffective, and likely to undermine intrinsic interest". Thus, for Kohn rewards control learners' actions and decisions to learn and weaken their IM. Deci, Koestner, and Ryan (1999a) assert that tangible rewards have a negative effect on IM; either they are designed for performing, finishing or surpassing the task.

Shultz (2007: 6) states that "Punishers have opposite valence to rewards, induce withdrawal behaviour and act as negative reinforcers by increasing the aversive outcome". Punishers devalue the use of rewards and their positive sequels and accentuate the idea that rewards are negative reinforcers since the result of the enhanced behaviour is the opposite. He (*ibid.*) believes that "Punishers induce negative emotional states of anger, fear and panic." These mental states will enhance learner's anxiety and consequently hinder their readiness to learn.

Notwithstanding, Borphy (*op. cit.,* 154) displays his averment that "For a time, it was thought that these undesirable outcomes were inherent in the use of rewards…Later work clarified that the effects of rewards depend on what rewards are used and especially on how they are presented". Therefore, the way we afford rewards and determine the purpose for their use condition their efficacy. So, it is the user of rewards who shapes their positive sequels and determines the extent to which these rewards remain advantageous either for short or long terms. Brophy (*ibid.*, 158) asserts that Eisenberger *et. al.*'s analysis in 1999 demonstrates the following results:

> Rewarding people for performing a task will increase their perceived self-determination, because the reward is a signal that the offerer does not control the person and thus the person is voluntarily accepting an invitation when agreeing to perform the task; the effect of reward on other aspects of intrinsic motivation are mostly positive or neutral; these effects depend mostly on the nature of the performance requirement.

As a result, rewards are, no longer, controllers of learners' personalities as they influence their perceived self-determination in a positive way, and as their impacts on IM are either positive or uninvolved. What makes rewards utile or not is the intervention of other factors such as the learners' preference of the type of motivation, the nature of the task and the level of the students.

Some researchers contend that reward endangers dependence on such EM. Yet, Little (1990: 7) points out that "as social beings our independence is always balanced by dependence; total detachment is a principle determining feature not of autonomy but of autism". To this extent, since our dependence and independence go together and have to be relied on in an equitable way, the use of reward will not undermine IM, but rather, if combined with an intrinsic motivator, equilibrium will be an impressive avail. Voller (1997) also accentuates an exigent significance for interdependence which contributes in a pivotal way for its development. Bond (1988: 29) makes necessary "an unavoidable dependence at one level on authorities for information and guidance". Consequently, the way that orientates to independence is dependence itself on more possessors of knowledge.

Houfort *et. al*. (2002) carried out two studies tackling the influence of rewards. Brophy (*op.cit*., 160) reports that:

> They found that performance-contingent rewards increased people's perception of competence (because being given the reward indicated that they had done well on the task); had negative effects on the affective aspects of autonomy (feeling pressured); and had no effect on the decisional aspect of autonomy (feeling free to decline the offer and do something else instead).

Rewards are used to signal learners' good performance. They can impact learners' autonomy either negatively or positively. The negative aspect can be echoed through the resulting

pressure; the positive one can be observed through the learners' freedom to reject the reward. Feeling under pressure leads to undermine learners' IM. Whereas feeling free results in enhancing it. Thus, both opponent perspectives seem to be underpinned by this final study. For this reason, teacher's role becomes more strenuous to opt for the most pertinent way to give rewards that will not subvert learners' IM.

Thomas (2000: 7- 8) reports that "Some early research on intrinsic motivation had an either or flavour, believing that extrinsic rewards would drive out intrinsic motivation. But, later research shows that the two kinds of rewards often support each other." This implies the necessity of both types of reward.

Hence, integrating IR(s) and ER(s) seems to be the reasonable option for enhancing learners' motivation to pursue knowledge. Since learners' needs have to be met, we have to individualize affording rewards taking into account both types.

5. Dispensing Rewards

Rewards are not dispensed randomly to the students, but rather have to be subject to a certain number of rules that are designed specifically for the purpose of making them potent elements in the learning process. Ignoring such basic rules leads to undermine learners' IM and sustains the claim that rewards are useless and generate dependent learners whose autonomy is fractured under the pressure of such extrinsic motivators.

The clue to dispensing rewards effectively is to opt for the informational rewards, i.e., rewards that transmit to the learners facts revolving around their effectiveness in the learning

process. Such facts reflect the students' competence at a significant task and induce the feeling of responsibility for their competence. Brophy (2004: 165) states that:

> Deliver rewards in ways that provide students with informative feedback and encourage them to appreciate their developing knowledge and skills, not just to think about the rewards. If you offer rewards in advance as incentives, emphasize your major instructional goals in setting criteria for judging performance and determining reward credits. Reward students for mastering key ideas and skills (or showing improvement in their mastery levels), not merely for participating in activities or turning in assignments. Include provisions for redoing work that does not meet minimum standards.

We deduce from this quotation that informational rewards lead learners to esteem their talents and abilities and to raise their self-esteem. Moreover, bestowing rewards as incentives calls for accentuating the teaching goals in order to raise learners' awareness about learning as an end and reward as a means. In addition to this, orientating students to value such a means implies affording it a great significance. This can only happen through rewarding critical progress in significant tasks. Eisenberger *et. al*. (1999, in Brophy; 2004: 159) "concluded that there is no reason for concern about using rewards with low-interest tasks but that with high-interest tasks it is important to link delivery of rewards to accomplishment of specific (preferably challenging) performance criteria."

Even if rewards are beneficial, their quantity has to be controlled by the instructor. Metsala (1996) assumes that the task and the goals of the task should be regarded when handing out incentives. The main rule for rewards to accomplish the enviable results is to be acquainted with the students' perceptions of the ER(s). Witzel and Mercer (2003: 91) argue that:

> If the student who is learning to read is truly intrinsically motivated, then the extrinsic reward of social time with the teacher is not important. The student will work hard to read even when a different teacher instructs him or her. Social time with a particular teacher may still be a bonus, but it does not sustain the activity.

Applying it to writing, when IR(s) are exploited impertinently, they may induce the learners to manifest a reliance on rewards to accomplish any task.

Finally, the selection of rewards and the analysis of their efficacy is the teachers and parents' business. Teachers require empathizing their learners' personalities and internalizing the pertinent kind of motivation. Metsala (*op.cit*., 662) clarifies that:

> There are places for both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations in every classroom. At times when skill building and behaviour control are necessary, extrinsic incentives are useful. When higher order literacy and self-directed learning are desired, the importance of students' intrinsic motivation should increase.

Grasping this fact clarifies the teacher's vision to assist their learners. While IM works for some students for whom tangible incentives are not ineluctable to fulfil enviable tasks or behaviours. Yet, other learners display a total reliance on external rewards. Witzel and Mercer (*op. cit.,* 92) propose that "Although it is difficult to determine if a student is intrinsically motivated, teachers should not stop using extrinsic rewards as they risk immediate and long term performance deficits". Digesting the idea of IM and tracking down its essence in the learner's personality is a strenuous experience, that is why the process of affording rewards should not be given up, although we believe that they endanger learner's performance either for short or long terms.

Parents can also have a salient financial role in underpinning schools with prizes. Hauge (2001: 12) proposes that "For financial support, we appealed to supportive parents in business willing to denote services or money or products. One of our parents has an ice-cream shop and always responds to appeals for assistance." Thus, valuable sequels can be obtained from the outside by the contribution of parents. Moreover, including parents in providing

rewards strengthens the relationship between the family and school, increases learners' predilection for learning, and enhances their appreciation of the assigned tasks and the given rewards.

From what has been said so far, knowing how learners perceive rewards plays a vital role in determining which extrinsic rewards should be selected to achieve the best results. Thus, bestowing a reward for the sake of engaging a learner in an intellectual activity depends on the way this reward is offered and determines its positive or negative effects on engagement in a designed activity.

6. Cooperation and Reward

Cooperation is learning together to achieve shared goals, where the performance of cooperative tasks promotes learners to pursue outcomes that are beneficial to themselves and to all other group members. For Deutsh (1949), a cooperative social situation is one which involves a positive connection between group members' goal achievements. Thus, it implies that the attainment of a person's goal is strongly tied to the accomplishment of all the other members' goals and that cooperative efforts result in learners participating effectively and straining themselves for mutual benefits so that all group members benefit from each others' efforts and perceive that they partake a shared fate.

Deutsch (*ibid.*) divides the interdependence of reward into three types: cooperative, competitive, and independent. Cooperative rewards imply that in order to obtain a reward, all the group members must obtain it. Competitive rewards are those rewards whose obtainment by one person reduces the chance of another to obtain them. Independent rewards are those that are given to an individual without taking into consideration the others' performance.

Review of the studies by Miller and Hamblin (1963: 796) strongly agree that performance is influenced by differential rewarding and task interdependence. Differential rewarding takes place when we bestow group rewards on an individual basis, taking into account the size of individual's performance. Interdependent rewards, on the other hand, are based on group performance rather than on individual performance of the group members; thus, they are received by the group as a whole and not by individuals. Interdependent rewards are more generally labelled interdependent outcomes. For Sundstorm *et. al.* (1990) interdependent outcomes involve public recognition, praise, preferred worked assignments and monetary rewards. Wageman (1995: 147) defines outcome interdependence as "the degree to which the significant outcomes an individual receives depend on the performance of others". That is to say; individual outcomes are inseparable from group outcomes and are significantly subject to group performance. For Shea and Guzzo (1987), outcome interdependence results from accomplishing tasks whose aftermaths represent a common significance to all group members.

However, Miller and Hamblin (*op.cit.*) recognise that task interdependence is brought about through a problem involving and necessitating "a mutual exchange of ideas and information as well the give and take required to make a group decision". Miller and Hamblin (*ibid.*) evince that when the task is interdependent, differential rewarding diminishes performance; yet, when the task is non-interdependent, it enhances performance. The following table states the results of these studies:

Author	**Relationship**	**Task**	**Interdependence**
Deutsch. 1949	-	Discussion problem	High
Deutsch. 1949	-	Puzzle problem	High
Grossack, 1954	-	Discussion problem	High

Miller, 1959	-	Leavitt-puzzle	High
Mintz, 1951	-	withdrawing cones from a jar	High
Smith, 1957	-	Discussion problem	High
deCharms, 1957	+	Arithmetic	Low
deCharms, 1957	+	Scrambled words	Low
Forlano, 1932	+	Cancellation of letters	Low
Forlano, 1932	+	Cancellation of letters	Low
Forlano, 1932	+	Cancellation of letters	Low
Maller, 1929	+	Adding numbers	Low
Maller, 1929	+	Adding numbers	Low
Maller, 1929	+	Adding numbers	Low
Maller, 1929	+	Adding numbers	Low
Moede, 1920	+	Hand grip	Low
Phillips, 1954	+	Cancellation of letters	Low
Phillip, 1940	+	Transferring marbles to box	Low
Phillp, 1940	+	Transferring marbles to box	Low
Sims, 1929	+	Substitution of letters	Low
Sims, 1929	+	Reading	Low
Sorokin, 1930	+	Carrying objects	Low
Sorokin, 1930	+	Sorting objects	Low
Whittemore, 1924	-	Mechanical printing	Low

Table 3: Team Reward Research Conducted before 1983

(Miller & Hamblin, 1963).

A "+" indicates a positive relationship between differential and productivity. A "-" indicates a negative relationship

Rosenbaum *et. al*. (1980) conclude that reward brings about interesting cooperative behaviours. However, Wageman and Baker's research (1997) asserts that group reward does not impact enhancing cooperative behaviours. The amount of task interdependence has critical influence on cooperative behaviours that group members display. Yet, performance has been found to be significantly reliant on the interactive influence among task interdependence and reward interdependence. Rather, cooperative behaviours under the impact of interdependent rewards enhance students' performance.

Ultimately, reward and cooperative learning are efficacious elements which nurture learners' love for learning and improve their achievements. Thus, for students to increase their motivation to learn in learning environments, it is inevitable for them to perceive that they are equipped by natural needs to be motivated by the convenient internal and external conditions.

Conclusion

It is important to understand reward giving as a dynamic process which is subject to determined measures and not simply as the easiest way to control the learners. There is no single process for dispensing rewards that suits all the learners or all the situations. Hence, reward giving can be inevitably personal and individualistic. What works in terms of how one learner perceives rewards may be totally different from what works for an other. Thus, the significant impact of rewards can be salient when they are well implemented; i.e., when they are informational and not controlling, when they are accompanied with spontaneity and sincerity and when they stimulate learners' feelings about their responsibility for success and achievement.

CHAPTER FOUR

MOTIVATION

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CHAPTER FOUR

MOTIVATION

Introduction

It is practically acknowledged that there is a positive correlation between motivation and learning. Thus, comprehending the specific conditions that activate learners' behaviours becomes an inevitable component in teaching. The purpose of this chapter is to outline some literature pertinent to defining motivation, past and present motivational theories namely the psychoanalysis theory, the Maslow's need theory, the attribution theory and the self-determination theory. Finally, it is culminated by a discussion about the relationship between cooperative learning and motivation, and the impact of reward on motivation.

1. Definition of Motivation

The essence of motivation and its impact on human behaviour have long presented difficulties for those who try to comprehend and clarify them both in the field of language learning and out. Psychology has defined motivation in a wide range of terms from instincts to drives, needs, conditional behaviour and the processes that activate and guide behaviour. Consequently, the notion of motivation has gained a broad interpretation.

Motivation has an ambiguous nature that coerces researchers to understand it differently. Consequently, discussing it is not an easy task, and giving it a uniform definition has not been agreed on in research. Except the fact that motivation determines

the reasons behind people's thoughts and behaviour, no regular definition has been identified. Wlodkowski (1982: 5) believes that:

> Motivation is the word used to describe those processes that can (a) arouse and instigate behaviour, (b) give direction or purpose to behaviour,(c) continue to allow behaviour to persist, and (d) lead to choosing or preferring a particular behaviour.

In this sense, the term motivation is used to describe those processes that energise, orientate, and maintain behaviour. Keller (1983: 389) sees that:

> Motivation, by definition, refers to the magnitude and direction of behaviour. In other words, it refers to the choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid, and the degree of effort they will exert in that respect.

Therefore, motivation is the process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained. It involves two essential components which are direction and effort. Gardner (1985: 50) proposes that "motivation involves four aspects; a goal, effortful behaviour, a desire to attain the goal, favorable attitudes toward the activity in question". He (*ibid.,* 1995: 279) states that "individual differences in motivation are reflected in the latter three aspects listed above." Thus, motivation involves goals for a determined action with a particular direction, an action or an activity which can be either physical or mental, persistence and finally, a positive way of thinking toward the target activity.

Okolo (1995: 279) believes that students who are motivated to learn are those who:

> (a) pay attention to the teacher and maintain interest in academic activities, (b) volunteer answers in class, (c) ask for guidance when needed, (d) persist in trying to solve problems themselves, (e) complete activities above and beyond those required for a grade, and (f) take risks in order to improve their own skills or knowledge.

This implies that the term 'motivation' has been used to signify a range of meaning from a general readiness to do something, to the performance of tasks, direction, persistence of the behaviour and inclination to take risks. Consequently, motivation is composed of many interdependent factors such as interest, curiosity and a desire for something–all of

which can result from internal or external factors or both of them. Webster (1991; in Bellon, 2002: 3) defines motivation as "something (as a need or desire) that causes a person to act." This denotes that motivation is an internal power that compels a person to perform a determined task; that is why, when applied to education, teachers must be aware of how to enhance this power to make learning a desirable experience.

Lee (2005: 330) defines motivation as:

> The force behind behaviour and provides an explanation for why people do things. Motivation influences what people do–meaning their choice of action, as well as how they act, the intensity, persistence, and quality of their actions.

For him, motivation has the potential to influence the what, when, and how of learning, and increases the likelihood of involvement in activities which are designed to improve learners' performance. The relationship between motivation and learning is a reciprocal one; that is to say, motivation has an immediate positive impact on learning and performance; and what learners do and learn, in turn, influence their motivation.

Keller (2007: 4) states that "Motivation refers to a person's desire to pursue a goal or perform a task, which is manifested by choice of goals and effort (persistence plus vigor) in pursuing the goal." According to him, each motivated behaviour has two aspects. The first aspect is the choices the learners make because these options play an important role in determining the number of personal goals they will achieve in their future life. The second aspect is effort which involves persistence and vigor. Persistence is revealed through the readiness of students to keep on performing the task even if it is difficult, boring or unchallenging. Because persistence is of paramount importance, learners have to internalize how to monitor their persistence during the learning experience. Vigor refers to

the active mental strength which is manifested in the level of activity or involvement in a task.

Finally, academic motivation is a psychological construct used to determine personality dispositions and external influences that impact human behaviour. It is wanting to learn, showing a desire toward learning tasks, and affording school a great importance. It is an essential element for successful learning and a significant variable that requires consideration when developing, monitoring, and assessing instructional effectiveness.

2. Theories of Motivation

It is valuable to make a quick review about the main foundational theories in the field of motivational theory. Grasping some of the early developments and research orientations will lay a foundation for a clear vision about the changeable essence of motivation and the significant researchers who exhibited a pioneering role in this area of research.

2.1 Psychoanalysis Theory

The first motivational theory to have a crucial impact on psychology was psychoanalysis. It was developed in the nineteenth century by Sigmund Freud. He provides an interpretation of individuals' behaviours to account for the origins of their motivation.

Under this theory, Freud considered the id as the essential source of human motivation. Marx and Tombaugh (1967: 31-32) state that "The id can be best understood if it is viewed as a kind of mental manifestation of all the physiological processes. Frequently, the id is referred

to as the seat of the instincts." Freud linked motivation to sexual development and accentuated the oral, anal, and genital stimulation.

Inherent in this theory is the idea that human beings are instigated by their physiological needs and react in a positive way to meet them. However, the inadequacies of this theory lie in its failure to take into consideration environmental, social, and cognitive factors which account for human actions.

2.2 Behaviour Learning Theory

In the middle of the nineteenth century, Freud's theory was replaced by behaviourism. Watson (1913) who was known as the "father of behaviourism" defined motivation as behaviours that can be formed or influenced by external reinforcers. Watson believed that when a reinforcement follows a behaviour, this behaviour is likely to be repeated.

Behaviorist theories such as Pavlov's classical conditioning (1927) and Skinner's operant conditioning (1953) ignored the internal capacities of the mind in trying to define the reasons for actions. Skinner assumed that responses of the animals are shaped by external inputs from the environment and on previously learned responses. Therefore, the behaviourists were concerned with conditions or consequences that shaped behaviours. These consequences were categorized into two classes: rewards and punishments that served as critical determinants of behaviour. This means that individuals were conditioned to take actions by rewards or punishments, which champion the external forces over the internal ones. In other words, the behaviourists accentuated the stimulus-response connections and cause instead of need and reason to determine people's actions. This idea is referred to by Owens (2001: 332) as "the age-old metaphore of the carrot and the stick, which prescribes that a

combination of proffering some mix of rewards and punishments is a way to motivate people in organizational life." Jung (1978: 6) who considers Skinner as an extreme behaviourist states that:

> If we know the external stimulus conditions that exist when responses are learned, we can predict behaviour as well, if not better, without recourse to the influence of internal states such as motives, cognitions, and feelings. Because these inner forces or causes are hypothetical and cannot be observed directly, these behaviourists feel we should not postulate them when we can identify the objective conditions associated with behaviour.

On this basis, behaviourists focus on the observable external forces because they are concrete and avoid internal forces such as motives, feelings and cognitions because they are abstract. However, not everyone sustains the carrot-and-the-stick approach as propounded by the behaviourists.

According to the behaviourists, reinforcement is the key to behavioural control. When behaviours are reinforced, the likelihood that those behaviours will be repeated will increase. Yet, this interpretation for the importance of reinforcement in controlling behaviours fails to account for the role of cognition in taking decisions.

2.3 Maslow's Need Theory

The humanist psychologist Maslow (1970) formulated his theory of human needs on the basis of physical, emotional, interpersonal and intellectual aspects of an individual to account for human motivation. This theory hypothesizes that an individual's ultimate aim is self-actualization; however, this goal is reliant on the achievement of lower needs such as those for survival, safety and comfort. For Owens (2001: 352), the humanistic ideas are based on the belief that "personal needs to constantly grow and develop, to cultivate personal self-esteem and to have satisfying human relationships are highly motivating drives." This denotes that psychological and cognitive factors are also involved in human motivation.

In this theory, Maslow considered the individual as an integrated, organized whole. Maslow (*op.cit.,* 19) states that:

> It is an experimental reality as well as a theoretical one [i.e., an individual as "an integrated, organized whole"] must be realized before sound experimentation and sound motivation theory are possible. In motivation theory, this proposition means many specific things. For instance, it means the whole individual is motivated rather than just a part of him. In good theory, there is no such entity as a need of the stomach or mouth, or a genital need. There is only the need of the individual. It is John Smith who wants food, not John Smith's stomach. Furthermore, Satisfaction comes to the whole individual and not a part of him. Food satisfies John Smith's hunger and not his stomach's hunger.

This means that Maslow's theory overlapped the pure biological survival needs to involve self-direction, freedom of choice, positive self-concept, and self-enhancement.

Maslow has interpreted motivation from the angle of needs which are placed in a hierarchical order. The satisfaction of higher level needs is conditioned by the lower ones. The hierarchy is as follows: physiological needs, safety needs, love needs, esteem needs, and self-actualization needs. According to Owens (*op.cit*., 354), one of the significant concepts that Maslow has introduced is the distinction between deficiency needs and growth needs. The first four needs are categorized as 'deficiency needs' "because (a) their deficiency motivates people to meet them and (b) until the deficiencies are met, people find it difficult to respond to a higher order need." This is what Maslow (*op.cit*., 57) states:

> Our needs usually emerge only when more prepotent needs have been gratified. Thus, gratification has an important role in motivation theory. Apart from this, however, needs cease to place on active determining or organizing role as soon as they are gratified.

In the light of Maslow's ideas, the emergence of the needs condition their own order. The hierarchical order comes out from the rate of potency that each need represents. Maslow (*ibid.,* 1954: 146) repots that:

> The safety need is stronger then the love need, because it dominates the organism in various demonstrable ways when both needs are frustrated. In this sense, the physiological needs (which are themselves ordered in a subhierarchy), which in turn are stronger than the love needs, which in turn are stronger than the esteem needs, which are stronger than those idiosyncratic needs we have called the need for self-actualization.

Thus, Maslow makes it clear that the shift from one need to the next, in each category, is constrained by the satisfaction of the previous one. On this basis, physiological needs which include food, air, water, sex, rest and sensory satisfaction have to be fulfilled before moving toward the next level of needs.

Ultimately, Maslow's theory is considered as one of the most famous theories of motivation that highlighted psychological and cognitive components in human motivation. His theory is based on the division of the individual needs into five levels of needs and their order of gratification is the basis for human motivation.

2.4 Attribution Theory

In contrast to behaviourists, cognitive theorists are absorbed by defining and observing IM. Weiner (1986) is one of the prominent cognitivists and whose attribution theory deals with the causal clarifications provided for a particular event or behaviour. This theory postulates that an individual engages in the same inferring process to attribute his success or failure to determined causes for the sake of maintaining positive self-image.

According to Seifert (2004: 138), an attribution can be referred to as "the perceived cause of an outcome", or "a person's explanation of why a particular event turned out as it did." This denotes that the attribution theory looks for explanations and excuses for success or failure. Thus, this theory hypothesizes that individuals have certain beliefs about the causes that lie behind their success and that they search for attributions for their outcomes.

Expressing it differently, attribution means the explanation the individual affords for his or her past experiences, which may or may not be motivating for future actions.

According to Weiner (*op.cit.*) most causes of success or failure share three common characteristics: locus of causality, stability, and controllability. The first is concerned with the location of the cause, i.e., whether the cause is internal or external to the individual. The second is related to the possible change of the cause, i.e., whether it is stable or unstable. The second is connected to the extent to which one considers responsibility for the cause. In achievement related contexts, there are four explanations for success and failure. They are ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck. As a consequence, attribution may be affected by internal factors, such as task difficulty and luck. The main belief of this theory is that people will try to save face and keep a positive self-image. Therefore, the more motivated or efficacious people will communicate the assumption that their success is attributed to their own efforts or abilities, on the other hand, the less efficacious individuals will interpret their failure by external factors such as bad luck. These assumptions lead to the basic notion of locus of control or self-efficacy. Individuals with an internal locus of control believe that they are responsible for their success or failure. Efforts and abilities are the main interpretations for their outcomes. Yet, people with an external locus of control tend to determine external factors as the reasons behind successful or failing experiences.

In general, the attribution theory explores how people understand the reasons for their successes and failures. Under this theory, the causal attributions have been classified into: internal or external, stable or unstable, and controllable or uncontrollable.

2.5 Self-Determination Theory

During the 1970's, the "Rochester School" on motivation in educational psychology has been set forth by Deci, Ryan, and their colleagues. Their work is crowned by a book in 1985 entitled 'Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination in Human Behaviour' which designed the basic concepts of the self-determination theory (SDT). This theory has been one of the most influential theories of motivation that has been exploited to state the basics of motivation in relation to autonomy, competence, and relatedness.

For Ryan and Deci (2002: 5), SDT is based on the principle that there exists a research support "in favour of human tendencies towards active engagement and development and that there is, as well, manifold indications of fragmentation and conditioned responses." This is a good evidence that individuals possess natural inclinations toward both internal and external development. Therefore, it is well established that human beings are active, their engagement is built on the basis of their intentional choice, and their striving for psychological growth leads to their development.

SDT postulates that human behaviour is motivated by three innate psychological needs. These are relatedness, competence and self-autonomy. Jacobs and Eccles (2000: 413) refer to relatedness as a feeling of being "securely connected to the social world and to see oneself as worthy of love and respect." It is being aware of being related to other individuals or groups of people. Deci and Ryan (1991: 243) report that relatedness refers to "a person's striving to relate to and care for others, to feel that others are relating authentically to one' s self, to feel satisfying and coherent involvement with the social world." The need for competence encompasses one's feeling of ability and confidence to reach desired results, and to get rid of negative outcomes. Self-autonomy is concerned with learner's ability to control his or her cognitive processes, learning management and learning content which are tightly connected to

learner's attitudes towards his or her independence, responsibility, choice, decision making, critical reflection and detachment.

According to Deci and Ryan (*ibid.*), the level of self-determination determines the individual's motivational type. They make the distinction between three broad types of motivation: IM, EM, and amotivation. These types are situated on a continuum from self-determined to non-self-determined as shown in the following figure:

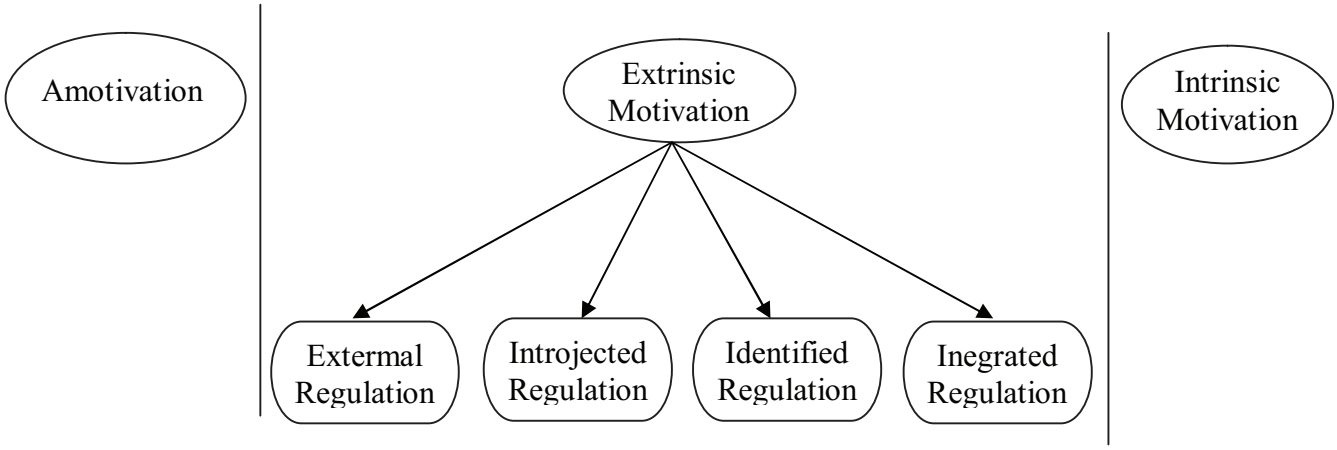

Figure 5: Orientation Subtypes along the Self-Determination Continuum (Gagne and Deci, 2005: 336)

Accordingly, motivational orientations can be categorized into intrinsic, extrinsic and amotivation, and lie on a continuum from self-determined to non-determined. IM represents the highest level of self-regulation. The extrinsic category includes different four levels of regulation, whereas amotivation epitomizes the lack of intrinsic or extrinsic factors for performing a particular task.

2.5.1 Definition of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

IM refers to the tendency to engage in an activity which is connected to the experience of pleasure or inherent interest. A person is intrinsically motivated when he performs an activity out of personal preference because it is interesting for him. IM arises from individual's need for competence and self-determination. These feelings involve the natural satisfaction which is the origin of performance. The purpose of the activity is engagement in itself, which is an intrinsic end. Thus, feelings of competence are strongly connected to individual's purposeful and personal challenge which coincides with his perspective. Self-determination implies that the individual is controlling his environment.

For Deci and Ryan (1985: 39), IM is seen as "motivation to engage in an activity because that activity is enjoyable and satisfying to do". It is the undertaking of an activity for its own sake, enjoyment provided, learning, or feeling of competence. When the main reason for acting or doing is to get something inside the activity itself, then motivation is considered intrinsic. IM is the desire to take part in an activity purely for the sake of contribution which stems from curiosity. It involves motives that are inside, linked, and essential to the resulting behaviour. According to Wigfield (2000: 141), intrinsically-motivated students "do activities for their own sake and out of interest in the activity." We conclude that the existence of this type of motivation is conditioned by the students' genuine interest in the activity which is promoted by the need to feel competent and self-determining.

EM prompts individuals to take part in activities for external outcomes which are separable from the behaviour itself. In other words, it is a means to an end. An extrinsically-motivated individual has no interest in the activity he is performing per se. Thus, EM is learning that occurs as a result of forces from outside the individual. According to Deci and Ryan (*op.cit*., 1985: 39), EM refers to "actions carried out to achieve some instrumental ends

such as earning a reward or avoiding a punishment." This kind of motivation refers to the participation in an activity to obtain some reward or avoid some punishment. That is, EM is said to be extrinsic when the only reason for undertaking an activity is earning something external to the activity. The resulting behaviours are not autonomous as they are caused by factors of control existing outside the person. Wigfield (2000: 141) states that extrinsically-motivated students "do activities for instrumental or other reasons such as receiving a reward." According to Wigfield's description of these students, it can be concluded that if students display an external interest in the activity or content, EM is the dominant one.

Investigations in the field of motivation theory are now concentrated on techniques for enhancing IM toward learning tasks which are put under study to explore how activities themselves might be designed. One form of motivation does not fit all learners' needs. The combination of both types of motivation plays a crucial role for the whole motivation.

2.5.2 Components of Self-Determination Theory

SDT encompasses several sub-theories that have been developed over time. These theories are described in the following order: cognitive evaluation theory, organismic integration theory, causality orientation theory, and basic needs theory.

The cognitive evaluation theory has been formulated by Deci and Ryan (1985) to explain the effects of the social factors on individuals' IM. Within this theory, the concept of locus of causalities has been presented defining EM as having an external locus of causality, and IM as having an internal locus of causality. There are four basic propositions on which this theory has been propounded. First, the perceived locus of causality can change from internal to external due to rewards. It is believed that ER (s) will decrease people's IM.

Therefore, rewards are undermining factors to IM. In other words, when learners feel control over the activity they are performing, their IM will be increased. However, when these learners contribute in activities and feel being controlled, their IM will be decreased. Deci and Ryan (*ibid.,* 62) report that:

> External events relevant to the initiation or regulation of behaviour will affect a person's intrinsic motivation to the extent that they influence the perceived locus of causality for that behaviour. Events that promote a more external perceived locus of causality will undermine intrinsic motivation, whereas those that promote a more internal perceived locus of causality will enhance intrinsic motivation.

The second proposition of this theory lies in the belief that feelings of competence and challenge underpin IM. Deci and Ryan (*ibid.*, 63) state that:

> External events will affect a person's intrinsic motivation for an optimally challenging activity to the extent that they influence the person's perceived competence, within the context of some self-determination. Events that promote greater perceived competence will enhance intrinsic motivation, whereas those that diminish perceived competence will decrease intrinsic motivation.

This is so because when learners feel competent they will perform optimally challenging tasks which will increase their enjoyment and interest in the learning activity. This positive challenge will enhance their competence and consequently will lead to enhanced IM.

The third proposition is based on the belief that each reward has a controlling, an informational, and amotivational aspect. The prevailing aspect will induce a change in self-determination. Deci and Ryan (*ibid.*, 64) explains that:

> Events relevant to the initiation and regulation of behaviour have three potential aspects, each with a functional significance. The informational aspect facilitates an internal perceived locus of causality and perceived competence, thus enhancing intrinsic motivation. The controlling aspect facilitates an external locus of causality, thus undermining intrinsic motivation and promoting extrinsic compliance or defiance.

On this basis, extrinsic factors which are seen as being informational promote IM, whereas extrinsic factors which are seen as being controlling represent a pressure for people and undermine IM. This implies that not all the rewards have detrimental effects on competence and self-determination.

The fourth proposition clarifies that informational and controlling inputs are related to interpersonal events as well as interpersonal dispositions. Deci and Ryan (*ibid.,* 107) state that:

> Interpersonal events differ in their qualitative aspects and, like external events, can have varied functional significance. Internally informational events facilitate self-determined functioning and maintain or enhance intrinsic motivation. Internally controlling events are experienced as a pressure toward specific outcomes and undermine intrinsic motivation. Internally amotivating events make salient one's incompetence and also undermine intrinsic motivation.

External factors can induce a change in locus of causality from internal to external because of the control resulting from these factors. However, internal events are categorized into informational and controlling depending on the choice the learners opt for. If they are task-involved, they will contribute in the activity for the sake of the activity itself. On the other hand, if they are ego-involved they will seek to demonstrate their self-worth to others. Thus, the ego can be controlling as it creates pressure which induces anxiety and leads to undermine IM.

The organismic integration theory is another sub-theory within SDT formulated on the basis that individuals have a natural inclination to integrate their continuing experiences. This lays the foundation for an individual to develop his or her IM. This theory asserts that the process of internalization follows a continuum of six levels. Amotivation is the lowest level and lies on the left end of the continuum. The main characteristic of this level is the lack of

intention to act which stems from a lack of contingency, a lack of perceived competence, or a lack of value for the outcomes related to the task. IM lies on the right end of the continuum. In the center, extrinsically motivated behaviours are subdivided into four types according to the degree of self-regulation. These types are: external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation.

External regulation is the lowest level of self-determined behaviour. It is characterized by the highest level of external control, where environmental contingencies are the sole source for performing the assigned activity. This type of behavioural regulation is motivated by rewards or avoiding punishment.

Introjected regulation is a behavioural type of regulation where the control is internal taking the form of self-imposed pressure or emotions connected to self-esteem. The best example is avoiding guilt or anxiety or obtaining ego-enhancement such as pride. As the control stems from within, this type is an improvement in self-determination. For Deci *et. al.* (1991: 329), the basic tenet for this type is "taking in but not accepting a regulation as one's own." In this case, punishment and reward are the sources of engagement and control is external to the integrated self.

In the case of identified regulation, identification regulates behaviour. So, it is a conscious valuing of behavioural goal which transforms external regulation into self-regulation. Thus, personal value is the source of this form of EM. Deci *et.al.* (*ibid.*, 330) report that the individual would do the activity "willingly, for personal reasons, rather than external pressure."

Finally, integrated regulation as the most self-regulated form of EM results from the correspondence between the conscious valuing of a regulated behaviour and the personally endorsed values, goals, and needs.

Ryan and Deci (2002: 21) state that:

> The autonomy orientation was found to relate positively to self-actualisation, self esteem, ego-development, and other indicators of well-being. As expected, the controlled orientation was not positively associated with well being but instead was related to public self-consciousness and the Type-A coronary prone behaviour pattern, indicating the focus tends to be outward and pressured. The impersonal orientation was related to self-derogation, low self- esteem, and depression.

The causality orientation theory highlights that people have three causality orientations. These are autonomous, controlled, and impersonal. When autonomy-oriented, person's actions are oriented towards his interests. When control-oriented, a person monitors his behaviours by social controls and reward contingencies, and when impersonally-oriented, a person's lack of personal control or competence are highlighted.

The basic needs theory was developed to shed light on the nature of a need and to descry its connection to well-being. Ryan and Deci (2002: 22) assume that "To qualify as a need, a motivating force must have a direct relation to well-being. Needs, when satisfied, promote well-being, but when thwarted, lead to negative consequences." These needs are considered to be universal and the connection between need satisfaction and well-being includes all ages, genders and cultures.

In general, SDT is one of the theories that shed light on human motivation, personality development and well being. This theory highlights the social and cultural conditions that elicit self-determined behaviour. It focuses on autonomous motivation, controlled motivation

and amotivation. It postulates that self-motivation and personality integration are facilitated by autonomy, competence and relatedness as basic psychological needs.

3. Cooperative Learning and Motivation

Motivation is a significant contributor to learners' academic motivation. However, trying to motivate learners to learn a foreign language is a challenging task for teachers. Deitte and Howe (2003: 280) state that "student motivation is an essential component of successful student learning, but it is also one of the most challenging areas for teachers." Lampert (2001: 1) directs attention to the fact that:

> Teachers face some students who do not want to learn what they want to teach, some who already know it, or think they do, and some who are poorly prepared to study what is taught. They must figure out how to teach each student, while working with a class of students who are all different from one another. They have a limited amount of time to teach what needs to be taught, and they are interrupted often.

Thus, teachers require knowledge about learners' perceptions of motivational tools like cooperative learning (CL). Classroom goal structures can be described as being cooperative, competitive, or individualistic in essence. For many researchers, the superiority of cooperative learning is attributed to the promotion of more IM and its general effects on learner's motivation.

Deci (1975, in Sharan and Sharan, 1992: 61) state that:

> Intrinsically motivated behaviours will be of two general kinds. When there is no stimulation people will seek it. A person who gets no stimulation will not feel competent and self-determining; he will probably feel "blah". So, he seeks out the opportunity to behave in ways which allow him to feel competent and self-determining. He will seek out challenge. The other general kind of intrinsically motivated behaviour involves conquering challenges.

CL nature has been determined under the influence of these perspectives. Learning together to reach a common goal is regarded to be a crucial factor in enhancing IM. That is what makes it a good instructional model. For Hackman (1983: 72), groups are regarded as major sources of

motivation for individuals. For the Johnsons (1997: 491), the necessity of the groups lies in knowing how an individual interacts with his peers and how the others perceive him in the group. Therefore, groups mirror the perception of the individual by himself as well as by the other group members.

Mc Groarty (1996: 11) directs attention to the fact that:

> When membership in a specific linguistic or ethnic group has relevance for language study as a part of the curriculum, it is important to examine group as well as individual motivations which contribute to initial choice, persistence, and success in language study.

Since students are members of the group in their classes, these groups can be a significant source for motivation to learn. This is mainly due to their feelings which influence their learning. Shimizu (1999: 67) found that "Japanese cultural context, human relationships, not individually transcendent personality traits, are at the foundation of the sense of achievement motivation." Therefore, achievement motivation is intimately related to group motives.

Bellanca and Forgarty (1991: 242) report that:

> All students of all ability levels in cooperative learning groups enhance their short and long-term memory as well as their critical thinking skills and that because cooperative learning leads to positive interaction among students, intrinsic learning motivation and emotional involvement in learning are developed to a higher degree.

Therefore, in addition to enhancing learners' mental capacities, CL contexts epitomize the most potent source for IM and emotional learning involvement which, in turn, have a reciprocal relationship with academic achievement.

The power of peer influence is seen in the classroom through the impact of high-achieving students on their peers. Peers can provide emotional support, academic guidance,

and companionship, which have a direct influence on motivation. In this respect, Lashbrook (2000: 8) defines peer pressure as a "specific instance of social influence, which typically produces conformity to a particular way of acting or thinking." Shmuck and Shmuck (1988: 33) contends that:

> As […] informal peer relations increase in power and salience, the individual student's definition and evaluation of self become more vulnerable to peer-group influence. Each student's self-concept is on the line within the classroom setting, where the quality of informal relationships can either be threatening or deliberating, or supportive and enhancing to the development of self-esteem. […] Emotion-laden interpersonal relationships that occur informally can affect the student's self-concept which, in turn, can influence his or her intellectual performance.

This reports that peer or GL enhances achievement as well as intrinsic interest, and self-concept which has a direct influence on self-efficacy. Self-concept refers to attitudes and feelings students have about their intellectual or academic skills, especially when comparing themselves with other students. For Pjares (2003: 145), the studies he reviewed to explore the effects of self-efficacy on writing "revealed that writing self-efficacy makes an independent contribution to the prediction of writing outcomes and plays the meditational role that social cognitive theorists hypothesize." Self-efficacy is the aspect of self-belief that has received the most attention from writing researchers because it has been found to be the most predictive of the various self-belief constructs. Pintrich and Groot (1990: 37) assume that:

> Self-efficacy was positively related to student cognitive engagement and performance. Students who believed they were capable were more likely to use cognitive strategies, to be more self regulating…and to persist more often at difficult or uninteresting academic tasks. This is a clear demonstration that self-efficacy is one of the key motivational constructs in improving students' engagement with writing.

This is a clear demonstration that self-efficacy is one of the key motivational constructs in improving students' engagement with writing. Moreover, the changeable nature of self-efficacy beliefs affords teachers more hope to orient them in a way that enhances learners' engagement.

In summary, it appears from the previous views that CL is a significant component in enhancing learners' motivation. Therefore, teachers can use a variety of CL techniques to establish a strong link between students' personalities and their engagement in the learning processes.

4. Reward and Motivation

The effect of ER on IM has been the subject of research for many decades. The results have exhibited many significant findings and activated a continuous controversy. Two research teams seem to tackle the questions concerning the relationship between reward and IM. On the one hand, these are, Eisenberger and Cameron (1996) whose final conclusion displayed that, in certain cases, rewards do not undermine IM. On the other hand, Deci *et. al.* (1999a) as cognitive researchers epitomize the undermining effect of rewards on IM.

Cameron (2001) found that rewards reliant upon solving problems, doing well, surpassing a score, finishing the activity, and meeting or exceeding the performance level of others revealed the positive effects of tangible rewards on IM when they are related to performance and success. Cameron's (2001) meta-analysis of 96 studies carried out in 1996 and another of 145 studies carried out in 1999 demonstrated that rewards have little or no negative effect on IM. He (*ibid.*, 34) reports that "an implication of our findings is that rewards can be used to increase motivation and performance on low-interest academic activities." Good and Brophy (2000:39) state that "rewards and bribes should be minimized in classroom." They regard rewards as helpful to both teachers and learners if they are exploited in a proper way.

For Gagne and Deci (2005: 332), not all the rewards are detrimental to motivation. They displayed that "when rewards are given independent of specific task engagement […] or when the rewards were not anticipated […], tangible extrinsic rewards did not undermine intrinsic motivation." Robbins (1998: 70) states that positive incentives or rewards will motivate students to display the modeled behaviour. Positive reinforcement leads individuals to pay more attention to the reinforced behaviours, to learn them better, and to perform them in an improved way.

Verbal reward or praise is regarded as an EM, and the students will take action to receive it. Boggino *et.al.* (1988) report that if verbal praise is not afforded in a controlling way, it can increase students' IM. Deci (1972) tests the impact of verbal reinforcements on males and females. The ultimate results evince that verbal reinforcement enhances males' IM, but it does not change females' motivation. These results suggest that reward is considered by males as being more informational than controlling.

Metsala (1996: 662) states that:

> There are places for both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations in every classroom. At times when skill building and behavior control are necessary, extrinsic incentives are useful. When higher order literacy and Self-directed learning are desired, the importance of students' intrinsic motivation should increase.

Metsala directs attention to the fact that some students will be extrinsically motivated; others will rely completely on IM and do not show any need for ER. However, it is worth noting that students' dependence upon rewards can be a result of the inappropriate exploitation of these rewards.

In line with the previous investigations, reward can enhance learners' motivation to learn if it is seen as informational. Therefore, it remains the teacher's duty to decide on the pertinent reward that nurtures their learners' motivation rather than devalue all its types. On this basis, learners' perceptions of rewards have to be prioritized when determining what types, when, and how to use them to obtain effective results.

Conclusion

Higher academic achievement and motivation to learn are tightly connected as a result of both EM and IM. However, the desire to learn will be more vigorous when IM is the dominant one. The fact that motivation is modifiable affords teachers more hope to try to induce a change. Teachers can establish a positive and safe classroom climate to motivate learners by providing equal individual attention and encouragement.

CHAPTER FIVE

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CHAPTER FIVE

FIELD INVESTIGATION

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present means of data collection, sample population, description of teachers' questionnaire, lesson content, and learners' questionnaire; which would be culminated by the results of the study and some modest comments. The use of reward as an extrinsic motivator and the reliance on cooperative learning as an intrinsic motivator has been the subject of investigation during recent years. The purpose of this study is to gain a deeper understanding of the effects of combining verbal reward and cooperative learning on pupils' intrinsic motivation to write English paragraphs. In order to investigate these effects, a true or false test of knowledge about cooperative learning has been relied on to measure middle school teachers' knowledge about it. Then, a teachers' questionnaire has been used to check the enhancement of learners' motivation and their writing performance. After that, I became a participant observer and focused on three first-year middle school classes. Finally, a learners' questionnaire has been opted for to test the pupils' intrinsic motivation to write English paragraphs under the mentioned conditions.

1. Means of Data Collection

In order to understand the nature of the impact of combining verbal reward and cooperative learning on learners' intrinsic motivation to write English paragraphs, the true or false test of teachers' knowledge about cooperative learning, teachers' and learners' questionnaires, and the technique of classroom observation have been used. Okobia (1998)

reports that the questionnaire is a set of questions used to test the hypothesis of the research. The respondents are expected to provide written answers. The collected data can be about feelings, beliefs, experiences, or attitudes of the participants or other people. Moser and Kalton (1971) state that the questionnaires are easy to analyze and not expensive. The technique of classroom observation allows me to have opportunities for constant observation and interaction with the participants in order to get insight into what the data would reveal about their learning behaviors. According to Marshall and Rossman (1999), the significance of participant observation lies in having opportunities for continuous observation and interaction with the participants in their environment. For Glesne and Peshkin (1992), the researcher as a participant observer becomes deeply involved in the environment, its people and the research questions. Moreover, a researcher regularly writes down in a thorough way many relevant features. Ultimately, a participant observer provides meaningful analyses of the observations.

For Bogdan and Biklen (1992) and Spradley (1980), there is a continuum of participant observation along which the rates of participant observation are ranked from complete participation to nonparticipation. Spradley (*ibid.*) reports that a researcher as a complete participant is totally immersed in the activities that the subjects are engaged in whereas the nonparticipant observer observes the activities without having any noticed contribution in them.

Observation has encompassed lessons from two files: file three and four, and has taken place during the second half of the second term and the whole third term of the school year at Okba Ibn Nafaa Middle School in Mila. I have been a nonparticipant observer, who has just restricted her role to the observation of classroom activities, because taking part in “a

sustained and intensive experience with participants" (Creswell, 2003: 184) can lead the researcher to have tendencies that may influence his analysis.

Focus is only on "Produce" sessions as they allow authentic written production of paragraphs than "Listen and Speak", "Practise", "Learn about culture" and "check". "Your project work" sessions are excluded from my research because they are not written in the class. Since each file contains three sequences, and each sequence ends up with one "Produce" lesson; therefore, each file involves three "Produce" lessons. On this basis, normally this study consists of six lessons; however, each "Produce" lesson is presented in two different ways. In the second presentation, the teacher tries to ameliorate the lesson to meet his learners' needs. This results in twelve lessons. Van Lier (1984: 4) states that " One lesson may yield as much useful information as ten lessons, and probably a good deal more than fifty lessons, except if we have unlimited time at our disposal". Therefore, since one lesson is enough, the selection of twelve lessons contributes to the trustworthiness of the data obtained from this research.

Seeing that each three lessons belong to an independent file, it is worth noting to allude to the contents of each file through the following table which summarizes the building elements of each one:

Files/projects	Notions/functions	Language forms	Pronunciations	Learn about culture	Strategies
File three Sport Project: -a sport magazine	-Describing a place -Naming a sport/sportswear/equipment -Talking about sport activities -Talking about daily activities/hobbies	-The ordinal numbers -The simple present tense: I like, he likes -The personal pronouns: we/they -The prepositions: at+time/place/near/on the left … -Wh questions: what/time/when -Do/Does/questions -Affirmative -Negative answers	-Sounds -ch/tch -th(the two sounds) -stress on the first syllable -Rising and falling tone	-Sports and countries -World football cups -National games	Scanning for information -Guessing from figures -Spelling letters and words -Identifying people from pictures -Identifying words, places from context -Asking for information

					-Translating
File four In and Out Project: -a poster -a questionnaire	-Talking about present and everyday activities -Giving information about animals -Telling the time	-Present simple -Present continuous -Adverbs of frequency -Prepositions of time and place : in/at/on -Irregular plurals -Do/does questions	-Sounds: -n+k/n+g -s final -Rising and falling tone	-Time zone map -The English school -Animals -The Chinese horoscope	-Scanning for information -Identifying words/messages from context -Reference questioning

Table 4: Contents of Files Three and Four (Merazga *et. al.*, 2003: 10)

During the twelve lessons, observations of the students' learning behaviors have been made and the field notes have been transferred into contact summary forms. A contact summary includes a single sheet which highlights summarizing questions about a particular field contact (Miles, 1984). In this research, a field contact is any visit to the classroom. For Miles (*ibid.*), the main purpose for the contact summary sheet is to orientate the subsequent classroom visits, to provide new or polished codes and to supply further data analysis. Miles (*ibid.*, 51) reports that the researcher "reviewed the rewritten field notes and answered each question briefly to develop an overall summary of the main points in the contact". He (*ibid.*) poses the questions as follows:

- What people, events, or situations were involved?
- What were the main themes or issues in the contact?
- Which research questions and which variables in the initial framework did the contact bear on most centrally?
- What new hypotheses, speculations, or hunches about the field situations were suggested by the contact?
- Where should the field-worker place most energy during the next contact, and what kinds of information should be sought?

2. Sample Population and Test Items

The target population is 282 first-year middle school pupils. Thus, the sample population encompasses 122 pupils and 13 middle school teachers of English. The pupils belong to three Algerian first-year middle school classes in Mila. The first class involves 41 pupils, the second class has 42 pupils, and the third one includes 39 pupils. Their average age is 12. They are beginners because first school level welcomes learners who have not studied

English at all. There are almost equal numbers of girls and boys in two classes, but the number of boys prevails in the last one.

The teacher who is chosen for the classroom observation is a male Algerian teacher with twenty years of teaching experience. Out of thirteen teachers, he was chosen to take part in this research on the basis of the test of knowledge results and the teachers' questionnaire because he is among the teachers who have a good knowledge about CL and he is the only one who combines individual and group work during the writing sessions. The true/false Test of Knowledge has been developed by reference to the original true/false test designed by Bouas (1993) to test knowledge about cooperative learning. The original test has not been kept as it is because some elements are not pertinent to this study.

In Bouas test, item 1 which states that "Students' academic achievement suffers as a result of group work" is altered to "Group work has a negative impact on students' academic achievement." Item 2 which states that "Cooperative learning results in students having a more positive attitude toward school" is transformed to "Cooperative learning increases students' predilection for school". Item 3 is omitted because it is not relevant to this study as it deals with racial prejudice. This phenomenon does not occupy any space in Mila. Consequently, racial relations do not have existence among the students. Item 4 which states that "Cooperative learning leads to decreased students' productivity because students socialize more and do not stay on task" is modified to "Cooperative learning results in diminishing students' productivity because of the importance they assign to socialization in comparison to the task". Item 5 which displays that "Cooperative learning causes frustration in brighter learners because they are "held back in making progress" by the presence of slower learners in a given group" is replaced by "Cooperative learning hinders high

achievement students and restrains their development due to low achievement students' participation in the group". Item 6 which reports that "Cooperative learning encourages a positive attitude toward academic work" is altered to "Students develop a positive perspective towards learning as a result of cooperative learning". Item 7 which states that "self-esteem of low level students suffers in cooperative learning activities" is altered to "Cooperative learning lessens the self-esteem of low achievement students". Item 8 which states that "Cooperative learning improves peer relations among students of different ability levels" is modified to "Cooperative learning facilitates communication and strengthens the relations between students having miscellaneous intellectual capacities". Item 9 which reports that "Group work causes students to be less dependent on the teacher for their learning" is changed to "Students achieve more intellectual independence from the teacher as a consequence of group work". Item ten which reports that "The reward and structure of the group task should be interwined in order for group work to be most effective" is changed to "The effectiveness of the group work relies strongly on amalgamating reward and the frame work of the group activity". Items 6, 11, and 12 are added to our test. Item 6 reports that "Cooperative learning leads students with different ability levels to maximize their learning". Item 11 displays that "Combining reward and cooperative learning improves students' use of the time assigned for completing the task". Item 12 reports that "Group work empowers student's creativity and their responsibility for learning". See (Appendix 1) to refer to the original copies of the test and its correction. Results of the test are summarized in the following table:

Teachers' level of knowledge	Frequencies	Percentages
Level A-	00	00%
Level A1	01	07.70%
Level A2	12	92.30%
Level A3	00	00%

Table 5: Middle School Teachers' Level of Knowledge about Cooperative Learning

The information obtained from the table can be transferred into the following figure:

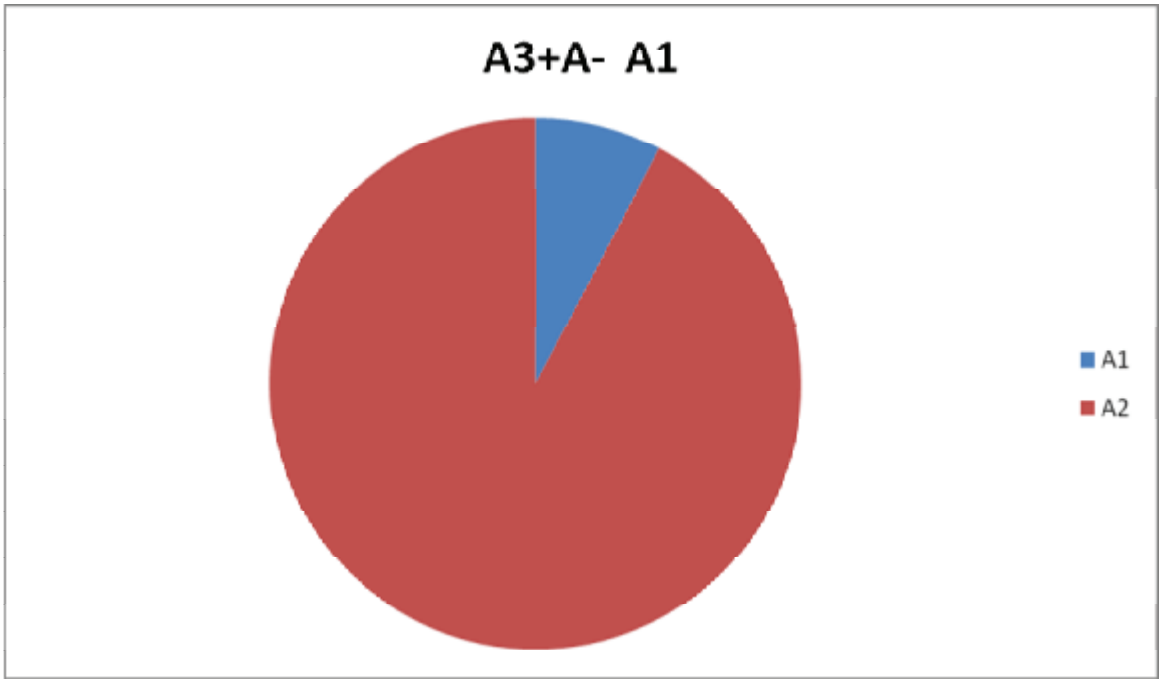

Figure 6: Middle School Teachers' Level of knowledge about Cooperative Learning

In this research, four levels of knowledge have been designed. Level A- designates that the participant ignores everything about cooperative learning. Level A1 implies that the teacher has answered four questions correctly. Level two means that the teacher has eight correct answers. Level A3 indicates that the teacher has twelve right answers.

This test results in one teacher who is having level A1 and twelve who are having A2, and no teachers are classified in column A- and A3. Hence, the best teachers seem to be classified in column A2. The teacher that has been chosen belongs to level A2 and has a long teaching experience; moreover, he is the teacher "Responsable de matière" in this school.

In general, the overall time assigned for the teaching of English at the middle school is three hours a week. The English manual used is "Spot Light on English" (book I).

3. The Teachers' Questionnaire

3.1 Description of the Teachers' Questionnaire

The teachers' questionnaire contains 33 questions divided into four sections. Section one is allocated to teaching writing, section two is designed to deal with cooperative learning, section three is assigned to cooperative writing, and section four deals with reward in cooperative writing. This questionnaire encompasses closed questions which necessitate ticking one or more options and open-ended questions for the purpose of gathering qualitative data from the teachers.

Section One: Teaching Writing (Q1 to 7)

The first section involves seven questions. Its aim is to investigate teachers' reliance on the process approach (Q1), teacher's role to stimulate his pupils write English paragraphs (Q2), the reasons behind teacher's collaboration (Q3), pupils knowledge about audience expectations (Q4), pupils' attention to their teacher' s expectations (Q5), importance of feedback (Q6), and the kind of feedback teachers offer to their pupils(Q7).

Section Two: Cooperative Learning (Q8 to 21)

This section is intended to examine the teacher's use of group work tasks (Q8), the frequency of the group work activities (Q9), group sizes in the classroom (Q10), formation of the groups (Q11), the existence of face-to-face interaction(Q12), unifying materials to group members (Q13), establishing positive interdependence in the groups (Q14), ways of pupils' interaction in their cooperative groups (Q15), individual and group accountability (Q16), the promotion of interpersonal and group skills (Q17), ways of monitoring group activities (Q18), teacher's roles (Q19), ways to conduct group processing(Q20), and evaluation of pupils' work(21).

Section Three: Cooperative Writing (Q 22 to 28)

This section is designed to explore the importance of the teacher's experience in using cooperative writing (Q22), their opinion about it and the reasons behind their perspective (Q23 & 24), factors motivating pupils to write (Q25), pupils' attitudes towards this method, the possibility of enhancing learners' performance and the reasons behind this improvement under this instruction (Q26, Q27& 28).

Section Four: Reward (Q 29 to 33)

This section seeks to determine the teacher's reaction towards pupils' good performance (Q29), the motivational aspect of verbal reward (Q30), the measures taken into consideration and the ways of affording it (Q31& Q32), and ultimately, the possibility of improving pupils' writing through this extrinsic motivator (Q33).

3.2 Results of the Teachers' Questionnaire

Section One: Teaching Writing

Question 1

Do your pupils rely on prewriting, drafting, revising, and editing?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Options	N	%
Yes	13	100
No	00	00
Total	13	100

Table 6: Writing through the Process Approach

According to the results stated above, 100% of the participants argued that their pupils write through the process approach. This is a clear indication that pupils are, no longer, focusing on the final product but rather on the process steps which are the key to successful writing.

Question 2

What kind of help do you give to your pupils?

a- You discuss the topic with your pupils. ☐

b- You allow them to use written sources of information about their topic. ☐

Options	N	%
a	12	92.30
b	01	07.70
Total	13	100

Table 7: The Teacher's Role as a Collaborator

The results in table 7 revealed that 92.30% of the respondents discuss the topic with their pupils, and this is a clear interpretation of the teacher's role as a collaborator in the classroom. It also highlights the fact that teachers are, no longer, authoritative in their classes.

Question 3

If so, how helpful is it?

The majority of the informants state that teacher's role as a collaborator decreases learners' anxiety, increases their motivation to write, extends their scope of ideas and enriches their vocabulary. The learner is, no longer, a passive recipient. He is the source of creativity and intelligence. Such collaboration enhances learners' feelings of competence and increases their motivation.

Question 4

Do your pupils know what their audience expects?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Options	N	%
Yes	11	84.61
No	02	15.39
Total	13	100

Table 8: Audience Expectations

The majority of the teachers stated that their pupils know their audience expectations. This is really stimulating to know that a large number of the pupils see writing as communication of specific thoughts and information to a specific audience.

Question 5

How often do your pupils care about your expectations?

a- Always ☐

b- Often ☐

c- Sometimes ☐

d- Rarely ☐

e- Never ☐

Options	N	%
Always	01	07.70
Often	10	76.92
Sometimes	02	15.38
Rarely	00	00.00
Never	00	00.00
Total	100	100

Table 9: Pupils' Attention to Teacher's Expectations

The results reported in table 9 reveal that pupils often pay attention to their teacher's expectations. This suggests that pupils' deductive power is in operation, and their ability to foresee what the others expect from them is developing in a continuous way.

Question 6

Is teacher feedback important?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Options	N	%
Yes	13	100
No	00	00
Total	13	100

Table 10: The Importance of Teacher Feedback

The results for question 6 suggest that the teachers acknowledge the significance of feedback which lies in determining pupils' strengths and weaknesses promoting them to revise their drafts carefully and enhancing their motivation to write. This reflects their responsibility towards correcting pupils' errors which is an inevitable tool in order to make the learners recognize their mistakes and attempt to avoid them in the future.

Question 7

If yes, what kind of feedback do you offer?

The participants who opted for the importance of feedback displayed their reliance on combining positive and negative feedback and this is an essential element in writing. Furthermore, they clarified that the first type should be given at the beginning, and then the

negative one should be the next. This leads us to deduce that pupils need to be encouraged to read teacher's comments through focusing on the positive aspects in their written production for the sake of improving their writing skill.

Section Two: Cooperative Learning

Question 8

Do you help your pupils increase their learning through:

a- Individual tasks? ☐

b- Group work tasks? ☐

c- Pair work tasks? ☐

d- both of them? ☐

Options	N	%
a	00	00.00
b	12	92.30
c	00	00.00
d	01	07.70
Total	13	100

Table 11: Teacher's Use of Group Work to Enhance Learning

The answers provided here indicate that 92.30% of the informants rely on group work tasks, and this reflects the importance that teachers allocate to cooperative learning in order to increase their pupils' learning.

Question 9

How often do you ask your pupils to work in groups?

a- Always ☐

b- Often ☐

c- Sometimes ☐

d- Rarely ☐

e- Never ☐

Options	N	%
Always	11	84.62
Often	01	07.69
Sometimes	01	07.69
Rarely	00	00.00
Never	00	00.00
Total	13	100

Table 12: Frequency of Group Work

The results point out that the respondents often ask their pupils to work in groups. This is a clear interpretation that teachers are aware of the importance of cooperative learning in developing pupils' language skills, know how to use it, and want to implement it in their classes. However, they still rely on individual work to meet independent learners' needs.

The Cooperative Learning Center (1991) developed the following questions on the use of cooperative learning:

Question 10

What group sizes do you currently use in your classroom?

a. Two (2) students per group. ☐

b. Three (3) students per group. ☐

c. Four (4) students per group. ☐

d. Five (5) students per group. ☐

e. Six (6) or more students per group. ☐

Options	N	%
a	00	00.00
b	02	15.39
c	11	84.61
d	00	00.00
e	00	00.00
Total	13	100

Table 13: Group Sizes in the Classroom

The analysis of the results in terms of group sizes reveals that 84.61% of the teachers form groups of four pupils per group. According to them, in this well organized cooperative atmosphere, pupils exchange ideas, internalize new learning strategies, and develop a sense of cooperation and not reliance on the leaders of the groups. 00% of them rely on groups of two pupils. Their choice deviates from the assumption that pair work is more appropriate than group work because pupils can easily interact with each other to reach a consensus about the discussed topic and provide feedback during the process of writing. 00 % of the respondents make six and five members in each group, 15.39 % of the informants use groups of three members. This indicates that the choice depends on teacher's ability to manage his classroom

and the suitability of the number of the pupils in each group to benefit from cooperative learning.

Question 11

How do you assign students to cooperative learning groups?

a. Students choose whom they want to work with. ☐

b. I assign students of the same ability to a group. ☐

c. I assign students of different abilities to a group. ☐

d. Students are randomly assigned to groups. ☐

Options	N	%
a	00	00.00
b	01	07.70
c	12	92.30
d	00	00.00
Total	13	100

Table 14: Formation of the Groups

The results reported in table 14 display that teachers form mixed ability groups in order to provide weak pupils an opportunity to learn from the stronger ones and to help them internalize the necessary strategies used by the good members. Such groups create good social relationships as they break the gap between good and bad members, increase pupils' self-esteem, and help each pupil to transfer knowledge to the other group members.

07.70 % of the teachers assign pupils of the same ability to a group. This minority believes that cooperation requires equal levels of proficiency. This mirrors their

misunderstanding of cooperative learning elements whose existence creates motivated learners aiming at helping each other and achieving success together.

Pupils' preferences and random formation of the groups are not assigned any importance by teachers. The main implication is that these pupils are not mature enough to make successful choices. These teachers may also believe that random selection of group members does not serve their pupils to cooperate effectively and their academic achievements.

Question 12

When students work in groups, how are the groups physically arranged?

a. Students can see and hear group members. ☐

b. Groups are physically separated so that they do not interfere with each others' learning. ☐

c. I can easily move from one group to another. ☐

d. Groups sit where and in whatever arrangement they want. ☐

Options	N	%
a	13	100
b	00	00
c	00	00
d	00	00
Total	13	100

Table 15: Face- to-face Promotive Interaction

100% of the informants admitted that groups are arranged in a way which helps each pupil to see and hear group members. This indicates that teachers are aware of the element of

"promotive interaction" which requires that students work 'face-to-face' and actively promote each other's success.

Question 13

What materials are distributed to group members?

a. Each student within the group has a set of materials. ☐

b. Group members share one set of materials. ☐

c. Each group member has a different piece of the materials set. ☐

Options	N	%
a	00	00
b	13	100
c	00	00
Total	13	100

Table 16: Unifying Materials to Group Members

100% of the respondents affirmed that group members share one set of materials. Unifying materials to group members leads to the presence of cooperation because each member is accountable for his piece of the group task. This factor promotes positive interdependence which results in individual and group accountability.

Question 14

What methods do you use to establish interdependence in groups?

a. Each member in the group must reach their goal in order for the group to reach their goal (e.g. one paper from the group). ☐

b. Bonus points are added or some other reward is given to all group members

when everyone in the group achieves the established criteria. ☐

c. Group members are assigned complimentary roles to complete a task (e. g. experimenter, record-keeper). ☐

d. Groups are placed in competition with other groups. ☐

e. Students establish a mutual identity through a name, identity, flag or motto. ☐

f. Groups are placed in a fantasy situation in order to complete the task. ☐

Options	N	%
a	13	100
b	13	100
c	13	100
d	00	00
e	00	00
f	00	00
Total	13	100

Table 17: Establishing Positive Interdependence in the Groups

100% of our informants say that the first three methods are used to establish interdependence in groups, and this is an evidence that teachers have a clear understanding of positive interdependence which indicates that the group has a determined task, and that learning is structured so that each student is responsible for the learning of others as well as his own learning.

No teacher opted for the last three methods. Thus, teachers are heedful in their use of the method to establish positive interdependence. Such a careful selection of the convenient

method is one of the salient positive effects of the thorough knowledge about cooperative learning which can result from training or reading about this topic.

Question 15

How do students interact with other students in their cooperative group?

a. Students in groups work individually and turn in their work together. ☐

b. Students compete within the group to do the most work. ☐

c. Students share ideas and materials making sure that all group members are actively involved. ☐

Options	N	%
a	00	00.00
b	01	07.90
c	12	92.30
Total	13	100

Table 18: Ways of Pupils' Interaction in their Cooperative Groups

The majority of the respondents report that pupils interact with other pupils in their cooperative group through sharing ideas and materials making sure that all group members are actively involved in the learning process. On this basis, allowing the pupils to solve a common problem and determining one shared goal for the whole group instigate the learners to make decisions which would generate an interactive atmosphere where all the members feel comfortable and vivid.

There is one teacher who opted for competition between members of the group. His choice can mainly be due to his belief that the absence of competition would lead weak pupils

to lose the opportunity to benefit from cooperation as they may have the possibility to hide among the strong members. However, competition results in a stressed atmosphere where the pupils' motivation is decreased under pressure.

Question 16

When solving problems or answering questions, how do students reach a consensus in cooperative groups?

a. Students make little attempt to reach a consensus and turn in separate answers. ☐

b. A few leaders dominate the group and their point of view is accepted without challenge. ☐

c. Students argue their point of view and change their minds only on the basis of the data. ☐

d. All students share information and agree on one answer quickly. ☐

e. Students share ideas or seek information (in appropriate ways) from other groups. ☐

Options	N	%
a	00	00
b	00	00
c	00	00
d	13	100
e	00	00
Total	13	100

Table 19: Individual and Group Accountability

The results for question 16 suggest that all the pupils share information and agree on one answer quickly. This is what we call individual accountability through which each member is made stronger in his own right. First, the group as a whole is responsible for confirming that individual goals of each group are met. Second, each member of the group is responsible for the success or the failure of his group.

Question 17

How do you promote the mastery of interpersonal and group skills by students?

a. Students are told the social skills they need to use in cooperative groups, but little feedback is given to them on their use. ☐

b. The social skill is defined and practiced. Groups are observed and feedback given to them. ☐

c. The social skill is defined, practiced, and monitored. ☐

Options	N	%
a	00	00
b	13	100
c	00	00
Total	100	100

Table 20: The Promotion of Interpersonal and Group Skills

As can be noticed in table 20, 100 % of the teachers promote learners' interpersonal and group skills through defining the social skill, practicing it, and providing feedback. Social skills are necessary for pupils to work effectively with others in small groups. This is so, because social skills like leadership, decision-making, trust building, communication, and conflict management lead to an ideal CL atmosphere.

Question 18

How are group activities monitored in your classroom?

a. Formal observation of group functioning by teacher (e.g., by classroom or special education teacher or aid.). ☐

b. Feedback by teacher or group observations. ☐

c. Students observe their own groups and provide feedback for each other. ☐

d. Other. ☐

Options	N	%
a	00	00.00
b	12	92.30
c	01	07.70
d	00	00.00
Total	13	100

Table 21: Ways of Monitoring Group Activities

The vast majority of the teachers opt for feedback by teacher or group observation. This reflects the significance of feedback in monitoring group activities because it stimulates pupils to participate in the assigned tasks and to demonstrate an improvement in the quality of performance which would lead to engagement in the writing process.

Option 'c' seems to be marginalized by teachers who limit group monitoring to teacher feedback. Possibly, these teachers maintain their traditional authoritative role or may consider learners' feedback as a waste of time.

Question 19

What do you do while students are working in groups?

a. I do not interfere with group work and work quietly at my desk. ☐

b. I move from group to group and tell students how they can better complete the task. ☐

c. I move from group to group and occasionally consult with students on ways to complete the task and work effectively with each other. ☐

Options	N	%
a	00	00
b	11	84.62
c	02	15.38
Total	13	100

Table 22: Teacher's Roles under Cooperative Learning

Nearly all the teachers move from group to group and tell the pupils how they can better complete the task. This implies that the teacher plays the role of a collaborator, a facilitator, and a guide.

Question 20

How is group processing conducted in your classroom?

a. My schedule does not allow for time for groups to process. ☐

b. My students discuss how well they worked with each other. ☐

c. I have several structured ways for students to process in groups (e.g. rating scale continuum). ☐

d. I structure the processing as part of the lesson and have students turn in

processing assignments with their other work. ☐

Options	N	%
a	13	100
b	00	00
c	00	00
d	00	00
Total	13	100

Table 23: Ways to Conduct Group Processing

100 % of the informants respond that their schedule does not allow for time for groups to process. This implies that teachers are not aware of the significance of group processing which lies in the provision of feedback. Another possible deduction lies in the teachers' inability to manage the time which is exploited by the pupils during their writing tasks. Pupils' use of a large amount of time results from their motivation to learn in such a cooperative learning environment. Therefore, group processing as one of the five elements of cooperative learning has to be considered and carefully covered in all the writing sessions for the sake of reaching fruitful results.

Question 21

How do you evaluate students' work?

a. Norm-referenced evaluation system where individual students' performance is compared to the performance of other students. ☐

b. Criteria-referenced evaluation system where students' individual work is compared against a preset criteria. ☐

c. Criteria-referenced evaluation system where a single group product is

compared against a preset criteria. ☐

d. Criteria-referenced evaluation system where students are evaluated on the basis of individual work and the combined efforts of the members of their group, using a preset criteria (i.e. bonus points). ☐

Options	N	%
a	00	00
b	10	76.92
c	00	00
d	03	23.08
Total	13	100

Table 24: Evaluation of Pupils' Work

76.92 % of the informants agree that when they intend to evaluate their pupils' work they rely on criteria-referenced evaluation system where pupils' individual work is compared against a pretest criteria. This denotes that teachers prioritise individual over group evaluation and that they neglect the usefulness of combining individual and group evaluation.

However, only 23.08 % of the teachers opted for choice'd'. That is to say, they recognize the inevitable need to provide both of individual and group evaluation. Group evaluation measures group progress to provide a clear image about the efficacy of cooperation among the group members, on the other hand, individual evaluation assesses each pupil's development during the learning process to make each learner responsible for his own success or failure.

Section Three: Cooperative Writing

Question 22

Cooperative writing requires teacher's experience.

Yes ☐

No ☐

Options	N	%
Yes	12	92.30
No	01	07.70
Total	13	100

Table 25: Importance of Teacher's Experience

Almost all the teachers stated that teacher's experience is necessary for cooperative writing. These results stress the fact that the teaching experience determines the teacher's understanding of the used method which is always in a continual progress over time.

Question 23

Do you believe in the effectiveness of cooperative writing?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Options	N	%
Yes	12	92.30
No	01	07.70
Total	13	100

Table 26: Teachers' Opinion about the Effectiveness of Cooperative Writing

Nearly all the teachers believe in the efficiency of cooperative writing. This is a clear indication that teachers are implementing it in their classrooms and that its positive effects are noticed through learners' written products. This suggests that, in small cooperative groups, pupils become more active in their own learning as a consequence of feeling comfortable under the joint construction of knowledge by the group.

Question 24

If yes, why?

The teachers who responded to question 23 gave the following answers:

-It enhances pupils' writing skill.

-It strengthens pupils' friendship relationships.

-It raises pupils' self-esteem.

-It increases pupils' motivation to write in and outside the classroom.

Question 25

What motivates pupils to write?

a- When you select a topic to write about. ☐

b- When you allow them to select what to write about. ☐

c- When you give them an opportunity to write with others. ☐

Options	N	%
a	01	00.00
b	00	00.00
c	12	100
Total	13	100

Table 27: Cooperative Writing as a Motivational Factor

The analysis of the results of question 25 shows that all the respondents agree that cooperative writing motivates pupils to write. This may imply that under individual conditions, their pupils feel less comfortable and have no desire to write. These teachers know well that it is their responsibility to create a motivating atmosphere because they are totally convinced that successful learning cannot take place unless pupils' anxiety is lowered and their motivation is heightened.

Question 26

Do your pupils like writing?

a- in small groups. ☐

b- in pairs. ☐

c- individually. ☐

Options	N	%
a	13	100
b	00	00.00
c	00	00.00
Total	13	100

Table 28: Pupils' Attitudes toward Cooperative Writing

The table above indicates that all the teachers argued that their pupils like to write in groups where they feel relaxed through exchanging ideas and helping each other. This is so because poor learners who have always experienced failure may feel frustrated and inadequate in writing. Consequently, they require an encouraging atmosphere to make them feel successful and overcome their negative attitudes toward writing. Apparently, pupils' attitudes towards

learning have an ever-changing nature which is subject to the learning environment as an immediate and influential factor.

Question 27

Does cooperative writing result in good performance?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Options	N	%
Yes	10	76.93
No	03	23.07
Total	13	100

Table 29: The Enhancement of Pupils' Performance through Cooperative Writing

As shown in table 29, 76.93 % of the teachers admitted that cooperative writing leads to pupils' good performance. This is so because the cooperative atmosphere is more encouraging than the competitive or individualistic ones. It appears from the previous answers that cooperative learning is a significant component in enhancing pupils' motivation and their positive attitudes towards learning to write. As a result, pupils sense the safe environment where they have multiple opportunities to take part in the assigned tasks which necessitate exchanging different experiences. This mutual exchange of ideas leads to a thorough comprehension of what the pupils are supposed to learn which would result in higher levels of performance.

Question 28

If yes, why?

The teachers who said that cooperative writing leads to pupils' good performance gave the following reasons:

-Pupils feel more comfortable.

-They exchange ideas and enrich their vocabulary.

-They learn from each others' mistakes.

-They provide feedback to each other which increases their writing abilities.

Section Four: Reward in Cooperative Writing

Question 29

How do you react towards pupils' good cooperative writing performance?

a- you give verbal reward. ☐

b- you give tangible reward. ☐

c- you give no reward. ☐

Options	N	%
a	13	100
b	00	00.00
c	00	00.00
Total	13	100

Table 30: Types of Teacher's Reward

The results above suggest that all the participants give verbal praise as a reaction towards pupils' good performance. This denotes their awareness about the bad effects of affording no reward to their pupils when showing an improvement in writing. They also adopt the view that tangible rewards have undermining effects on intrinsic motivation.

Question 30

Your pupils are intrinsically motivated by verbal reward in cooperative writing:

a- when it is informational. ☐

b- when it is controlling. ☐

Options	N	%
A	13	100
B	00	00
Total	13	100

Table 31: The Motivating Aspects of Verbal Reward

100% of the participants agree that their pupils are intrinsically motivated by verbal reward in cooperative writing tasks when it is informational. This is so because it transmits information about the extent to which pupils are developing their writing abilities. Moreover, the controlling aspect of verbal reward puts the learners under stress and may even detriment their intrinsic motivation.

Question 31

You offer verbal reward to reflect:

a- the quality of the cooperative writing performance. ☐

b- the completion of the cooperative writing task. ☐

c- the participation in the cooperative writing task. ☐

Options	N	%
a	13	100
b	00	00.00
c	00	00.00
Total	13	100

Table 32: Teacher's Measures for Offering Verbal Reward

All the participants with the proportion of 100 % afford verbal reward on the basis of pupils' quality of performance. This, in fact, reveals that performance contingent reward is more informational than completion and participation contingent rewards as it mirrors pupils' real progress in their ability to write. These teachers are more realistic as they exhibit to the learners that performance measure is the considered one when bestowing rewards in the real life.

Question 32

Do you offer verbal reward on:

a- a group basis. ☐

b- an individual basis. ☐

c- a group then on an individual basis. ☐

Options	N	%
a	00	00.00
b	11	84.62
c	02	15.38
Total	13	100

Table 33: Ways of Affording Verbal Reward

The results reported in the table reveal that the teachers bestow verbal reward on an individual basis, and this reflects their ignorance of the importance of combining group and individual verbal reward. Teachers' reaction provided evidence that they are completely convinced that group rewards would breed dependent learners who do not care about releasing more energy to achieve learning progress since the good members display enough responsibility to perform the whole task without the interference of the lazy pupils. In this situation, individual rewards alone are not compatible with the cooperative nature as they elicit more individualistic efforts than cooperative ones. Therefore, these teachers require affording group and individual rewards to mirror the real progress of the group members at an individual and a group level.

Question 33

Does verbal reward improve pupils' writings?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Options	N	%
Yes	13	100
No	00	00
Total	100	00

Table 34: The Enhancement of Writing through Verbal Reward

The teachers stated that verbal reward improves pupils' ability to write. This bears significance that verbal reward which is informational is not detrimental to learners' motivation to write but rather enhances writing. Consequently, enhancement in motivation results in a conspicuous improvement in pupils' writing abilities. That is why teachers allocate this factor a great significance due to its positive avails.

As a conclusion, the questionnaire was made available to 13 teachers. All of them responded to the given questions which equates to 100% of the sample. Question 23 (see p: 145-146) is used to determine wether cooperative writing is effective. The results show that 92.30% believe in the efficacy of cooperative writing because the generation of ideas is more active in an interactive atmosphere. Question 24 (see p: 146) concerns the reasons behind the efficacy of cooperative writing. Responses display that 92.30% of the teachers state that it enhances their pupils' writing skill and increases pupils' intrinsic motivation to write in and outside of the classroom. Question 30(see p: 150) is used to evaluate wether the pupils are intrinsically motivated by informational or controlling reward. The evaluation is quite positive with 100% of the teachers who opted for informational reward to increase pupils' intrinsic motivation. This is so because it transmits information about the extent to which their pupils are developing their writing abilities. Finally, replies to question 33 (see p: 152) demonstrate that all the teachers state that verbal reward improves pupils' intrinsic motivation to write

cooperatively. As a result the two motivators enhance learners' intrinsic motivation to write which brings about a conspicuous improvement in pupils' writing abilities.

4. Description of Lesson Content

In this section, we provide each 'Produce' lesson description which displays how teachers and learners proceed along the twelve lessons. Each 'produce' section, in all the twelve lessons, is designed by the teacher for the purpose of stimulating the learners to write paragraphs. Their productions are reliant on the teachers' guiding questions. Therefore, it is a sort of guided writing. In each session, the teacher either uses individual or cooperative learning which echoes the teacher's belief in the effectiveness of the two learning strategies and his awareness about his learners' individual differences. Each session revolves around integrating the four skills. Thus, the learners listen, speak, read and write. It is the interaction between all the skills which empowers learners' written productions.

Being afraid of the electronic means and their bad effects, the teacher has shown objection towards using them. Therefore, no audio-taping or video-taping are used in this study. The use of a real-time observational tool represents an obligation not an option, and it is the only adequate tool that can help us collect data. Dependence on the real-time observation method necessitates our presence in the classroom. However, being a pure observer has not reflected any disturbance to the whole class. At the end of each session, the copybooks are gathered to check the time of stopping writing.

Notes about "Produce" lessons are taken and transferred into contact summary forms as shown below. Information is summarized and exhibited in a meticulous descriptive way to encompass all the target activities in files three and four.

Contact Summary Form

Setting: Okba Ibn Nafaa Middle School

Book: Spot Light on English (Book 1)

File: Three

Sequence: 01

Duration: 1 hour

Lesson: 03 (Produce)

Class (es): 1AM6 and 1AM7

1) What people, events, or situations were involved?

In the classroom, under the guidance of the teacher, 1 AM6 and 1 AM7 are writing a paragraph about their champion individually.

2) What were the main themes or issues in the contact?

Activities	**Setting**	**Types of reward interdependence**	**The use of time**	
Act 1: Answer these questions: 1-what is S. Graff? 2-What is M.Tyson? 3. What is M.Johnson?	Classroom/ individual work	Individual Verbal reward	1 AM6	22 pupils out of 41 have used most of the time assigned for writing

4. What is Ronaldo? 5. What is Zidane? Act 2: Read carefully, complete the dialogue, then play the roles: A: Where is Zidane from? B:……. A: What is his nationality? B:…… A: How old is he? B:…… A:What is he like? B:…… A: What does he play? B:…… A: How often does he practise football?				(52.38%).
			1 AM 7	18 pupils out of 39 have used most of the time allotted for paragraph writing (46.15%).

B:…… A: When does he practise it? B:…….. Act 3: Who is your champion? Write about him or her.				

Table 35: The Main Themes or Issues in the Contact (File Three, Sequence 1)

3) What new target questions, speculations, or hunches about the field situations were suggested by the contact?

During individual work, the students are discussing in pairs when the teacher is not paying attention. Thus, the pupils need to interact with each other, to discuss and exchange ideas. Consequently, cooperation becomes ineluctable as we have to take learners' needs into consideration. So, do learners always need to write in a cooperative atmosphere?

In file three, sequence one, 'Produce' (see table 35), pupils are provided with a table completion activity. They have to complete the table with the convenient name of sport that each player practises. In this case, the learners depend on their knowledge about the prominent players. They have to identify S. Graff, M. Tyson, M. Johnson, Ronaldo, and Zidane. Generally speaking, this activity exposes the learners to knowledge about sport to enrich the acquired material.

In activity 2, the pupils are asked to complete a dialogue. Its focal point is the sportsman's name, age, nationality, sport and time for practising his sport activities. After completing the dialogue, the pupils have to play the roles. In this activity, the learner is assigned the role of a conversational partner. It is designed to review familiar language and to stimulate the pupils to interact in many ways.

In activity 3, pupils have to choose their favourite champion and to write a short paragraph about him. They can refer to the table provided in activity 1 and select one of the players. The dialogue in activity 2 can be very helpful for the pupils to produce their own paragraph because the questions can be used to write their outline. The learners are supposed to transform their thoughts into concrete sentences.

The three assigned activities are individual, where each learner is responsible for his own success, but can resort to the teacher for guidance and information. Table and dialogue completion and paragraph writing are the tasks pupils are engaged in. The lesson tackles the four skills. Activity 1 involves listening and speaking. Activity 2 encompasses all the skills. And activity 3 includes writing. The teacher is a facilitator and feedback provider in all the designed activities.

On table 35 above, out of the 41 pupils of 1 AM6 who are present, only 22 (52.38%) have used a large proportion of the time apportioned for writing. And out of the 39 present pupils of 1AM7, only 18 (46.15%) have exploited most of the time set for the paragraph writing.

Contact Summary Form

Setting: Okba Ibn Nafaaa Middle School

Book: Spot Light on English (book 1)

File: Three

Duration: 1 hour

Sequence: 01

Class (es): 1AM 5

Lesson: 03 (Produce)

1) What people, events, or situations involved?

As a facilitator in the classroom, the teacher is assisting 1AM5 pupils who are engaged in an individual paragraph writing about their champion.

2) What were the main themes or issues in the contact?

Activities	Setting	Types of reward interdependence	The use of time
Act 01: Add more words to the list.	Classroom / individual work	Individual verbal reward	

<table>
<tr><td></td><td></td><td></td><td colspan="2"></td></tr>
<tr><td>
<table>
<tr><td>Collective games

• Volleyball
• .....
• ……
• ……</td><td>Individual games

• Boxing
• .....
• …….
• …....</td></tr>
</table>
Act 2: complete the questions who, what, where; then play the roles:
A: .....do you do?
B: I’m a tennisman.
A:.....do you play tennis?
B: In a local club.
</td><td></td><td></td><td>1AM5</td><td>19 pupils out of 41 have used most of the time allotted for paragraph writing (46.34%).</td></tr>
</table>

A:……do you practise it? B: On Monday and Thursday afternoons. A:.....is your coach? B:Mr Smith. Act 3: Read carefully, complete the dialogue, then play the roles A: Where is Zidane from? B:..... A: What is his nationality? B:..... A: How old is he? B: ..... A:What does he play? B:..... A: How often does he practise Football?				

B: ..... A: When does he practise it? B: ..... Act 4: Who is your champion? Write about him or her. • name • age • nationality • sport • club/city/country				

Table 36: The Main Themes or Issues in the Contact (File Three, Sequence 1)

3) What new target questions, speculations, or hunches about the field situations were suggested by the contact?

The pupils of 1AM5 reveal their vital hidden requirement to learn in an interactive atmosphere through peer hidden discussions which are not designed by the teacher. Furthermore, the lack of visual aids results in a total ignorance of those learners who process information visually. Hence, what is the effect of combining cooperative learning and visual aids on teaching writing?

In file three, sequence one, ‘Produce’ (see table 36), activity 1 is a table completion, in which the learners have to provide other names of sports and to classify them in the right column. Classifying words empowers storing and retrieving the learned vocabularies and enriches the pupil’s language. These sports are either collective or individual games.

Activity 2 is a gap filling activity, where the words are provided, and the learners have just to select the right answer. It is a guessing activity that does not require considerable effort. ‘Wh’ questions represent the focal point of the activity. It is also a role play activity, where the learner is assigned the role of a conversational partner. It helps the learners to review the acquired language material and to interact with each other. Natural conversation is also prompted.

Activity 3 is a dialogue completion that highlights providing specific information about a famous footballer such as his country, nationality, age, and his time for practising sport. It is also a role play activity. The learners interact with each other in a natural context. They have the opportunity to practise, to speak and work together. Through this activity, the pupils reinforce what they have learnt.

In activity 4, pupils have to write a paragraph while answering a question assigned by the teacher. This paragraph revolves around selecting a favourite champion. The pupils can rely on the previous activities to write an outline and to brainstorm ideas.

All the activities are individual works, where each learner seeks to accomplish his personal goals. However, the pupils felt the coercive need to rely on group work. Consequently, they worked in pairs when the teacher is not paying attention. The teacher

plays the role of a facilitator while engaging the pupils in table completion, gap filling, dialogue completion and paragraph writing. This lesson involves the four skills. Writing and speaking in activity 1; writing, listening, and speaking in activity 2; reading, listening, and speaking in activity 3; and writing in activity 4.

On table 36 above, out of 41 present pupils, only 19 (46, 34%) have employed a big rate of the time set for the paragraph production.

Contact Summary Form

Setting: Okba Ibn Nafaa Middle School

Book: Spot light on English (Book I)

File: three

Duration: 1 hour

Sequence: 02

Class (es): 1AM6 and 1 AM7

Lesson: 03 (Produce)

1) What people, events, or situations were involved?

Writing cooperatively, 1AM6 and 1AM7 pupil's are observed in the classroom, while describing their school and receiving teacher's assistance.

2) What were the main themes or issues in the contact?

Activities	Setting	Types of reward interdependence	The use of time	
Act 1: listen, then answer these questions: 1) Where are you now? 2) Are you at home? 3) Are you in the playground? 4) What can we say about your	Classroom/ individual work	Individual verbal reward	1AM6	26 pupils out of 41 have used most of the time assigned for paragraph writing (63.41%)
			1AM7	26 pupils out of 39 have

classroom? 5) What has it got? 6) How many windows? 7) What is this?(showing the desk) 8) Where is the desk? 9) Where is the heater? 10 How many tables are there? 11) How many pupils are there? 12)How many boys and girls? Act 2: Read the resulting paragraph on the board. Act 3: What is your school like? Work in groups and describe it in a few lines?	Classroom/ group work			used most of the time assigned for paragraph writing (66.66%)

Table 37: The Main Themes or Issues in the Contact (File Three, Sequence 2)

3) What new target questions, speculations, or hunches about the field situations were suggested by the contact?

For the potent storing of information, the pupils have to rely on drawing a map of their classroom instead of reading the paragraph written by the teacher. Does the transfer of information from verbal to visual empower saving information?

In file three, sequence two, 'Produce' (see table 37.), pupils in activity 1 have to answer twelve questions which turn around their classroom and what it consists of. This sort of activity combines the pedagogical activity with reality. This feature makes the content learnable and not boring. In activity 2, the pupils are required to read the paragraph resulting from the previous answers in activity 1. The focal point of this short passage is classroom description. In activity 3, the pupils are provided with a paragraph writing activity, in which they would describe their school. The pupils have to descry the static relationship between the different parts of the school by reference to the map drawn on the blackboard.

In activity 1 and 2, the pupils work individually, whereas, the last one is a group work activity. The pupils join their groups and start writing in an interactive atmosphere, which affords them an opportunity to exchange ideas and learn from each other. In this lesson, the teacher integrates the four skills. Listening and speaking in activity 1. Reading in activity 2, and all the skills in the last activity. Through out these activities, the teacher is a facilitator and feedback provider.

On the table 37 above, out of the 41 present pupils of 1AM6, only 26 (63.41%) have exhibited their exploitation of a big rate of the time apportioned for the paragraph writing. In the case of 1AM7, out of the 39 present pupils, only 26 (66.66%) have evinced the same result.

Contact Summary Form

Setting: Okba Ibn Nafaa Middle School

Book: Spot light on English (Book I)

File: three

Duration: 1 hour

Sequence: 02

Class (es): 1AM5

Lesson: 03 (Produce)

1) What people, events, or situations were involved?

Under cooperative conditions, 1AM5 pupils are writing a paragraph describing their school and their teacher plays the role of a monitor.

2) What are the main themes or issues in the contact?

Activities	Setting	Types of reward interdependence	The use of time	
Act 1: listen then answer these questions 1) What do you study now? 2) Where do you study it? 3) What number is it? 4) Is your classroom upstairs or	Classroom / group work	Individual verbal reward	1AM5	29 pupils out of 39 have used most of the time assigned for paragraph writing (64.10%).

downstairs? 5) Where is your classroom? Act 2: Draw a map of your school and describe it orally. Act 3: Work in groups. Look at Sue's college of physical education. What is Sue's college like?				

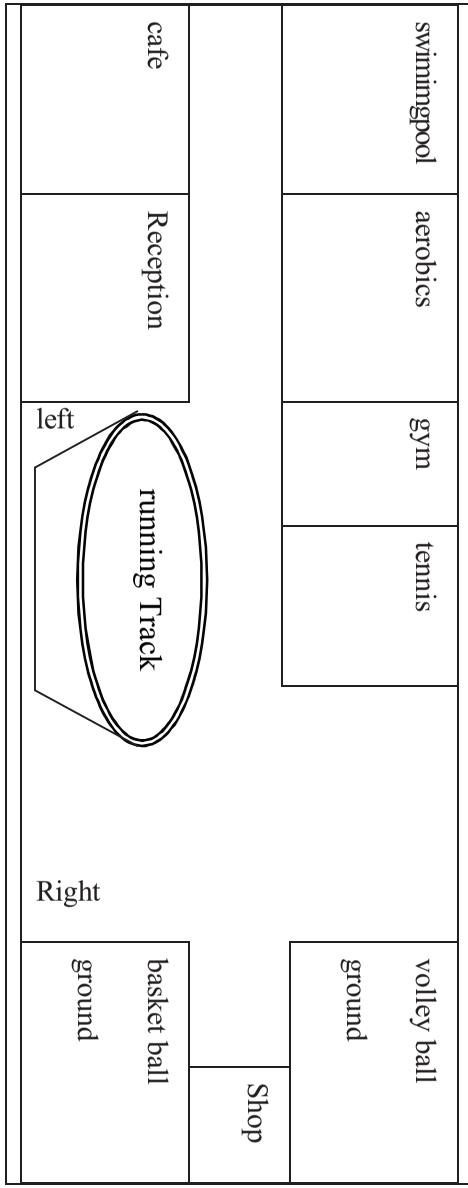

Table 38: The Main Themes or Issues in the Contact (File Three, Sequence 2)

1) What new target questions, speculations, or hunches about the field situations were suggested by the contact?

The teacher needs to combine the four skills for the purpose of creating powerful writing capacities for the learners. Would combining the four skills for teaching writing result in writing good paragraphs?

In file three, sequence two, ‘Produce’ (see table 38), pupils are afforded a questions and answers activity which entails five questions dealing with facts about their classroom. These questions accentuate the subject the pupils’ study, the place where they study it, the number of their classroom and its location in comparison to other places. Extracting the questions from the real world of the learners enrobes these questions a sense of spontaneity and naturalness, and motivates the learners to be involved in the activity.

In activity 2, the teacher supplied a map of the school and asked them to describe it. In this activity, the pupils are required to transfer information from the map to an oral message. They have to provide an explicit description of the entrance, the reception,, the office, the laboratory, the library, the handball ground, the basketball ground, the volleyball ground, and the classrooms. Through this transfer of information, the pupils show their comprehension of the non-verbal message they have been exposed to.

In activity 3, the pupils are afforded a map of the school of physical education; then, they are asked to write a short paragraph about it. This description embraces the reception; the basketball and the volleyball grounds; the tennis, the gymnastics and the aerobics clubs; the running track; the swimming-pool and the cafe. They need to state the static relationship between the different places at the school.

The first two activities are individual. Each pupil is asked to perform the activities separately to achieve his personal goals. However, the last task is a group work activity. In this case, writing takes place in a cooperative atmosphere and the learners pursue shared goals. This lesson involves the four skills: listening and speaking in activity 1, speaking in

activity 2, and all the skills in the last activity. The teacher is always a facilitator and feedback provider.

On table 38 above, out of the 39 present pupils of 1AM5, only 25 (64.10%) have demonstrated a good use of the time set for the paragraph production.

Contact Summary Form

Setting: Okba Ibn Nafaa Middle School

Book: Spot light on English (Book I)

File: three

Duration: 1 hour

Sequence: 03

Class (es): 1AM5 and 1AM7

Lesson: 03 (Produce)

1) What people, events, or situations were involved?

In the classroom, 1Am5 and 1AM7 pupils are engaged in an individual paragraph writing. The focal point of writing is tackling their daily activities and hobbies.

2) What were the main themes or issues in the contact?

Activities	Setting	Types of reward interdependence	The use of time	
Act 1: listen then answer these questions: 1) What is this? (the teacher is showing a clock)	Classroom / individual work	Individual verbal reward	1AM5	20 pupils out of 39 have used most of the time allotted for paragraph writing (51.28%).

2) What do you have at 9:00? 3) What time is it now? 4) What time do you get up in the morning? 5) What time do you have breakfast? 6) What time do you come to school? 7) What time do you start your lessons? 8) What time do you finish school? Act 2: Read the resulting paragraph on the board. Act 3: (act b p 73) Your time table is different from the sportsman write in a paragraph:			1AM7	16 pupils out of 36 have used most of the time assigned for paragraph writing (44.44%).

• When you get up. • When you practise a sport. • When you study English. • When you do your homework. • When you watch television. • When you go to bed.				

Table 39: The Main Themes or Issues in the Contact (File Three, Sequence 3)

3) What new target questions, speculations, or hunches about the field situations were suggested by the contact?

Making decisions instead of the pupils of 1AM5 and 1AM7 and coercing them to write individually led the pupils to work in pairs when the teacher is not paying attention. This implies the necessity to design cooperative writing tasks for the learners. Therefore, what is the effect of allowing the learners to decide on cooperative or individual writing? Furthermore, the reading task has to be accompanied with questions related

to the text. Is cooperative reading beneficial for improving learners' writings? Ultimately, the lack of visual aids signifies the teacher's neglect of visual information processing. Are the teachers aware about the significance of processing the information visually in comparison to the auditive processing?

In file three, sequence Three, produce (see table 39), the pupils have to slove eight questions. The time of doing something is the centre of attention. They are asked about the time of getting up, having breakfast, coming to school and finishing it. The teacher is once again depending on real questions related directly to the daily life of the pupils. This kind of activity weakens boredom and generates a motivating atmosphere among the learners.

In activity 2, the pupils are required to read the small paragraph ensuing from the pupils' answers in activity 1. This piece of writing accentuates the daily activities of a pupil. In this reading activity, the pupils are not required to answer any question. Through exposing the pupils to the same data already introduced in activity 1, they show their comprehension of the material.

In activity 3, the pupils have to look at Sue's timetable, perceiving that it is different from theirs. Logically, before writing the paragraph, the pupils realize their need to design their timetable to be used as an outline. Then, they have to transfer information from the table to the paragraph.

In these activities, the pupils seek to accomplish their goals individually. However, the pupils are engaged in peer discussions which are not planned by the teacher. The teacher is always a facilitator and feedback provider. The tasks pupils effectuate include: a questions and answers activity, a reading activity, and finally, a paragraph writing activity.

On table 39 above, out of the 39 present pupils of 1 AM5, only 20 (51.28%) have employed a big percentage of the time assigned for producing the paragraph. For 1 AM7, out of the 36 present pupils, only 16 (44.44%) who have showed the same use.

Contact Summary Form

Settings: Okba Ibn Nafaa Middle School

Book: Spot Light on English (Book I)

File: Three

Duration: 1 hour

Sequence: 03

Class (es): 1AM6

Lesson: 03 (Produce)

1) What people, events, or situations were involved?

Writing under individual classroom conditions, 1AM6 pupils are guided by the teacher to treat daily activities and hobbies.

2) What were the main themes or issues in the contact?

Activities	Setting	Types of reward interdependence	The use of time	
Act 1: Listen, then answer these questions 1) What is this? (The teacher is showing a clock). 2) What time is it? 3) What do you have at 14:00? 4) After English, what do you	Classroom/ individual work	Individual Verbal reward	1AM6	21 pupils out of 40 have used most of the time assigned for paragraph writing (52.50%).

have? 5) What do you have at 15:05? 6) What time do you finish school? Act 02: Read the resulting paragraph on the board. Act 03: (Act b p.73) Your timetable is different from the sportsman's. write in a paragraph: -when you get up. -when you practice a sport. -when you study English -when you do your homework.				

-when you go to bed.				

Table 40: The Main Themes or Issues in the Contact (File Three, Sequence 3)

3) What new target questions, speculations, or hunches about the field situations were suggested by the contact?

Again, individual writing is not compatible with the learners' needs. This is evinced through their peer interactions which are not planned by the teacher. Is cooperative writing which is not planned by the teacher effective for learning writing? Moreover, activity 1 represents a connection with school and ignores linking the latter to the personal life of the pupil. Thus, what are the effects of joining school and real life on learners' motivation?

In file three, sequence three, ‘Produce’ (see table 40), pupils are supplied with a questions and answers activity. The questions reflect real examples and are related to pupils’ school life. They are asked about the time, the subjects they are studying at 14:00 and 15:00, the recreation period, and the time of finishing school. The posed questions are related to the school life of the pupils.

In activity 2, the pupils are supposed to read the paragraph resulting from the previous questions. This paragraph highlights some of the school activities the pupils of this class have in the afternoon. No questions are following the read piece. It is used to reinforce storing the information presented in activity 1.

In activity 3, the pupils are provided with Sue’s timetable, and asked to write a paragraph following the given guidelines. Affording the pupils Sue’s timetable and informing them that it is different from theirs implies that the pupils need to draw their timetable, on which they have to depend when writing the paragraph. That’s what makes the activity a transfer one. Also, pupils have to deduce some useful information from the previous activities to be exploited when writing the paragraph.

In these activities, the accomplishment of the learners’ goals takes an individual orientation. Yet, the pupils show their intention to break the rule when the teacher is not paying attention. The teacher recognizes the significance of merging the four skills. That’s why; this lesson encompasses all of them. The teacher is a facilitator and a feedback provider. The tasks pupils effectuate involve a questions and answers activity, a reading activity, and a paragraph writing activity.

On table 40 above, out of the 40 present pupils of 1AM6, only 21 (52.50%) have displayed a satisfactory employment of the time determined for the paragraph production. Uplift the page

Contact Summary Form

Settings: Okba Ibn Nafaa Middle School

Book: Spot Light on English (Book I)

File: Four

Duration: 1 hour

Sequence: 01

Class (es): 1AM6 and 1AM7

Lesson: 03 (Produce)

1)What people, events, or situations were involved?

Writing under individual classroom conditions, 1AM6 and 1AM7 pupils are guided by the teacher to treat daily activities and hobbies.

2) What were the main themes or issues in the contact?

Activities	Setting	Types of reward interdependence	The use of time
Act 1: (Act b, p.85; homework). Look at the picture again on page 84. Read and Spot the Wrong Information. Correct.	Classroom/ Individual Work	Individual Verbal Reward	18 pupils out of 42 used most of the time assigned for writing paragraphs (42.85%)

E.g. The girl is dancing / The girl is not dancing. She is sliding. - The girl is dancing. - The two girls are playing tennis. - The boy is riding a horse. - The boy and the girl are walking. - The man is listening to music. - Children are sleeping. Act 2 (Act a, p.86) Who is doing what? Choose the right verb, then ask and answer. E.g. Who is writing? The teacher is.			1AM7	15 pupils out of 39 have used most of the time assigned for writing paragraphs (38.46%).

Act 3: Go back to the previous letter on p.85. Read it and answer these questions: 1- What is Jane doing? 2- What is peter doing 3- What are children doing? 4- What are the Algerian friends doing? Act 4: (Act c p.86) Send a postcard to your friend. Tell him: -where you are. -what places you are visiting. -about the people you are staying with. -what you/ they are doing doing doing.				

Table 41: The Main Themes or Issues in the Contact (File Four, Sequence 1)

3) What new target questions, speculations, or hunches about the field situations were suggested by the contact?

Activities 1, 2, 3, and 4 epitomize a strong connection with the real life. Learners' participation seems to increase. So, what is the relationship between linking tasks with the real life of the pupils and learners' maximum participation? Again, through the unplanned peer discussion, we imply that peer or group writing is requisite to satisfy the learners' needs. Therefore, what are the effects of integrating unplanned peer discussions and connecting tasks with the real life on learners' writing?

In file four, sequence one, 'Produce' (see table 41), pupils in activity 1, are supposed to read, spot and correct the wrong information on the basis of the previous pictures in activity c (p.84). The pupils are required to transfer information from pictures into sentences. In this activity, the pupils practise using the present continuous and transforming sentences from the affirmative form to the negative one.

In activity 2, the pupils are once again transferring information from pictures into sentences. They are supposed to ask questions and give answers by reference to the given pictures. The verbs are provided and the pupils have just to match each picture with the right verb to form the question and afford the right answer. The pupils practise asking questions and providing their answers.

In activity 3, pupils are supposed to read the letter and answer the questions. These questions are 'wh' questions whose answers are provided in the text without needing to make inferences. In the letter, Jane informs her friend Liz about what she, Peter and the Algerian friends are doing. Pupils are asked to read the letter to clarify the difference between it and the postcard. That is acquainting them with a new genre.

In activity 4, the pupils are supposed to produce a postcard following the guiding ideas. The pupils are provided with certain guidelines to be followed. So, it is a sort of guided writing; however, the pupils are free to add more ideas and to be inventive in their writings. Each pupil is required to inform his friends about the town he is staying at, the places he is visiting, the people he is staying with, and the activities he and the others are doing.

The four activities are designed to be accomplished individually. As usual, a peer discussion is established when writing the postcard. The teacher is not making any comments about this situation and revealing comprehension of the learners' needs. Importance of the four skills is revealed through their existence in the lesson. Activity 1 involves reading and writing. Activity 2 integrates reading, listening, and speaking. Activity 3 focuses on reading and speaking. The last one includes writing. The teacher is always a facilitator and feedback provider.

On table 41 above, out of the 42 present pupils of 1AM6, only 18 (42.85%) have used most of the time allotted for producing the paragraph. For 1AM7, out of the 39 present pupils, only 15 (38.46%) have revealed the same outcome.

Contact Summary Form

Settings: Okba Ibn Nafaa Middle School

Book: Spot Light on English (Book I)

File: Four

Duration: 1 hour

Sequence: 01

Class (es): 1AM5

Lesson: 03 (Produce)

1. What people, events, or situations were involved?

Being guided by the teacher and involved in individual classroom writing, 1AM5 pupils are writing a postcard to their friends.

2. What were the main themes or issues in the contact?

Activities	**Setting**	**Types of reward interdependence**	**The use of time**	
Act 1: (Act b, p.85: homework) Look at the pictures again read and spot the wrong information. Correct. E.g. The girl is dancing /the girl is not dancing she is sliding.	Classroom/individual work	Individual verbal reward	1A.M5	20 pupils out of 41 have used most of the time allotted for writing a paragraph (51.21%).

-The girl is dancing. -The two girls are playing tennis. -The boy is riding a horse. -The boy and the girl are walking. -The man is listening to music. -The children are sleeping. Act 2: (Act a, p.86). Who is doing what? Choose the right verb, then ask and answer. E.g., who is writing? The teacher is. Act 3: Go back to the previous letter on p85. Read it, and then answer these questions. 1-What is Jane doing? 2-What are the children doing?				

3-What are the Algerian friends doing? Act 4: Suppose that you are in Constantine. Answer these questions. 1-What places are you visiting? 2-Where are you staying? 3-How about people in Constantine? Are they nice or bad? 4-What are you doing in Elkasba? 5-What is your aunt doing? 6-What is she preparing? Act 5: (Act c, p.86).Send a postcard to your friend, Tell him … -where you are. -what places you are visiting. -about the people you are staying				

with. -what you are doing/what they are doing.				

Table 42: The Main Themes or Issues in the Contact (File Four, Sequence 01)

3) What new target questions, speculations, or hunches about the field situations were suggested by the contact?

For 1AM5 pupils, we can deduce that activity 4 represents a well organized outline for the whole class which facilitates their final production. So, is a unified outline for the whole class effective for the improvement of learners' writings?

For 1AM5 (see table 42), activities 1, 2, and 3 have not seen any change. We notice the addition of another activity; activity 4 which entails a move from the real classroom situation to an imaginary one while answering six questions. These questions accentuate the places the pupil is visiting and staying at, people living there, and the activities he and the other members of the family are doing. These examples epitomize the cardinal ideas of the activity. This imaginative situation makes the lesson an alive meaningful piece.

Activity 5 is the same as activity 4 that has been presented to the other two classes, however, providing activity 4 for 1AM5 makes writing the paragraph an easy mission for the pupils.

The five activities are planned to be worked out individually. The pupils have broken the rule and leaned toward peer writing in activity 5. The teacher did not reveal any objection and his decision exhibited compatibility with the learners' requirements. The lesson covers all the four skills. The teacher is a facilitator and feedback provider.

On table 42 above, out of the 41 present pupils, only 20 (51.21%) have taken advantage from most of the time set for the paragraph production.

Contact Summary Form

Settings: Okba Ibn Nafaa Middle School

Book: Spot Light on English (Book I)

File: Four

Duration: 1 hour

Sequence: 02

Class (es): 1AM5 and 1AM7

Lesson: 03 (Produce)

1) What people, events, or situations were involved?

Cooperative classroom writing is designed by the teacher for 1AM5 and 1AM7 pupils, who are occupied by describing an animal (a horse).

2) What were the main themes or issues in the contact?

Activities	Setting	Types of reward interdependence	The use of time	
Act 1: Find an answer for each question, then write it on your slate: 1-What colour is the pigeon?	Classroom/group work	Individual Verbal reward	1AM5	31 pupils out of 39 have used most of the time assigned for paragraph writing

2-What colour are the bananas? 3-What colour is the raven? 4-What colour is the cow? Act 2: Ask and answer about the underlined words, then write each answer on your slate: 1-The cow/place of living. 2-The cow/food. 3-The cow/sleeping habit. 4-The cow/1.50 m long. 5-The cow/3 years. 6-The cow/100 kg. Act 03: Now, combine your answers and read them. Act 4: Work in groups. Look at the following table, and then write a				(79.48%).
			1AM7	31 pupils out of 37 have used most of the time assigned for paragraph writing (83.78%).

<table>
<tr>
<td>paragraph about the horse.

<table>
<tr><td>Animal</td><td>Name</td><td>age</td><td>Colour</td></tr>
<tr><td>Horse</td><td>Bony</td><td>4yeras</td><td>Brown</td></tr>
</table>

<table>
<tr><td>Size</td><td>weight</td><td>food</td><td>Shelter</td></tr>
<tr><td>1.50m</td><td>200kg</td><td>grass</td><td>Farm</td></tr>
</table>
</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</table>

Table43: The Main Themes or Issues in the Contact (File Four, Sequence 2)

3) What new target questions, speculations, or hunches about the field situations were suggested by the contact?

Teachers' dependence on visual aids and dictation increased the number of the pupils participating in activity 1. This implies that those who rely on visual information processing are stimulated by the pictures and become involved in the activity. On the basis of this observation, is the combination of visual aids and dictation efficacious for increasing learners' engagement in writing paragraphs?

In file four, sequence one, 'Produce' (see table 43), the pupils in activity 1, are supposed to answer the questions while looking at the pictures, and to write each answer on their slates. They have to transfer information from pictures into visible words. Dictation is a reinforcing activity. In this activity, the teacher is making revision about colours, because they are needed for the final description.

In activity 2, the pupils are required to ask and answer questions about the underlined words, then to write each answer on their slates. Dictation is employed again to check their ability to write sentences. Dictation is used to reinforce writing. The questions the pupils require to ask revolve around the place of living of the cow, its food, its sleeping habit, its size, its age, and its weight. These are the separative characteristics for each animal.

In activity 3, the pupils are required to integrate the found answers, then to read them. So, it is a combination of reading and writing. Reading is used to reinforce pupils' comprehension of the learned material. The read piece highlights the essential features of the studied animal. No questions are following the text. Reading is an underpinning activity because in the natural context we do not learn from the first time. Exposing the pupils to the material more than one time ensures storing it.

In activity 4, the pupils are supposed to read the information provided in the table, then to transfer it into a paragraph describing the horse. In this paragraph, the pupils have to shed light on the horse as a domestic animal, his name, age, colour, size, weight, food, and finally his shelter. The pupils have to follow these guidelines. So, it is a sort of guided writing. Yet, the pupils are afforded freedom to add more information.

In activities 1, 2 and 3, an individual work is highlighted by the teacher. The learners pursue their personal goals and neglect the others' goals. However, the last one is a cooperative task. A potent interaction is in operation, and a mutual exchange of ideas is taking place. This lesson is a combination of listening (act 1 and 2), reading (act 3), and writing (act 4). The teacher's role does not shift from facilitating, guiding, and providing feedback.

On table 43 above, out of the 39 present pupils of 1AM5, only 31 (79.48%) have demonstrated an advantageous exploitation of the time planned for producing the paragraph. For 1AM7, out of the 37 present pupils, only 31 (83.78%) evinced the same conclusion.

Contact Summary Form

Settings: Okba Ibn Nafaa Middle School

Book: Spot Light on English (Book I)

File: Four

Duration: 1 hour

Sequence: 02

Class (es): 1AM6

Lesson: 03 (Produce)

1) What people, events, or situations were involved?

Being monitored by the teacher, 1AM6 are absorbed by cooperative classroom writing while describing an animal from the vet's chart.

2) What were the main themes or issues in the contact?

Activities	Setting	Types of reward interdependence		The use of time
Act 1: look at the picture of these animals. Name the domestic animals. Act 2: Find an answer for each question, then write it on your slate:	Classroom/ group work	Individual/ verbal reward	1AM6	32 pupils out of 38 have used most of the time assigned for paragraph writing (84.21%).

1-What colour are the bananas? 2-What colour is the orange? 3-What colour is the raven? 4-What colour is the pigeon? 5-What colour is the cucumber? 6-What colour is the apple? 7-What colour is the cow? Act 3: Ask and answer about the underlined words and write each answer on your slate: 1-the cow/ place of living. 2-The cow /food. 3-The cow / sleeping habit (8 hours). 4-The cow / size. 5-The cow / age. 6-The cow / weight.				

Name	Rex	Dolly	Snow White	Act 4: Work in groups. Choose an animal from the vet's chart and write a paragraph about it.
Age	2 years	4years	6years	
Fur	Brown and white	Black	White	
Size	70cm	1.50m	90cm	
Weight	8Kilos	100kilos	60kilos	
Food	meat	grass	Leaves/grass grass	
Shelter	doghouse	cowshed	barn	

Table 44: The Main Themes or Issues in the Contact (File Four, Sequence 2)

3) What new target questions, speculations, or hunches about the field situations were suggested by the contact?

For 1AM6, we treat learners' decision to write about a particular animal. With this class, the pupils are provided with three choices out of which they have to select one. The pupils of this class show a salient improvement in their use of the time allotted for writing. Therefore, what are the effects of learners' free choices on their use of the time allotted for writing?

In file four, sequence two, 'Produce' (see table 44), the pupils, in activity 1, have to look at the picture, then to name the domestic animals. The pupils have to transfer knowledge from the picture into concrete meaningful words. This activity is planned by the teacher to consolidate names of animals that have been learnt in the previous lessons.

In activity 2, the pupils are supposed to answer each question by reference to the shown pictures and write each answer on their slates. The questions revolve around the colours of some fruit, vegetables and animals. This activity is designed for making revision about colours.

In activity 3, the pupils are supposed to ask and answer questions about the underlined words. Then, their answers have to be written down on their slates. Dictation is a reinforcing tool to writing. The underlined words concern the shelter of the animal, its food, its sleeping habit, its size, its age and its weight. This activity helps them put into practice the conventions of writing and reinvest what they have learnt in the previous lessons.

In activity 4, the pupils are provided with the vet's chart, from which they have to choose an animal and describe it. The pupils transfer information from the chart into a meaningful paragraph. While writing the paragraph, the pupils rely on the previous provided information and infer a new pertinent data to be used in their production.

Activities 1, 2, and 3 are individual ones. The fulfillment of each learner's objectives is totally distinguished from the other classmates' objectives. Individual success is the center of attention, whereas group success is disregarded. The last one is a cooperative activity. Group experiences seem to stimulate learners' involvement in the learning process and foster

interaction between group members, which in itself diminishes the immense distances between them. The teacher is again a facilitator and a feedback provider.

On table 44 above, out of the 38 present pupils of 1AM6, only 32 (84.21 %) have benefited from most of the time programmed for the paragraph production.

Contact Summary Form

Settings: Okba Ibn Nafaa Middle School

Book: Spot Light on English (Book I)

File: Four

Duration: 1 hour

Sequence: 03

Class (es): 1AM5 and 1AM6

Lesson: 03 (Produce)

1) What people, events, or situations were involved?

Playing the role of a facilitator and a monitor, the teacher guides 1AM6 and 1AM5 pupils while carrying out a cooperative classroom writing, whose cardinal issue is to deal with present and everyday activities.

2) What were the main themes or issues in the contact?

Activities	Setting	Types of reward interdependence	The use of Time	
Act 1: What do you do every morning? Act 2: Substitute Selma by Salim and read the paragraph.	Classroom / group work	Individual/ verbal reward	1AM5	22 pupils out of 40 have used most of the time allotted for paragraph writing (55%).

Act 3: Work in groups. a) Add the missing pieces to the puzzle. Then read the message. Salim ☐ gets up early. — prefers He ☐ going to work. — By bus ☐ He is very lazy. — Always b- Substitute Salim by yourself and complete the message. Act 04: work in groups, then look at the pictures and tell in a paragraph what every member of the family does in the forest.			1AM6	20 pupils out of 39 have used most of the time assigned for paragraph writing (51.28%).

Table 45: The Main Themes or Issues in the Contact (File Four, Sequence 3)

3) What new target questions, speculations, or hunches about the field situations were suggested by the contact?

In the four tasks preceding the final production, the teacher integrates the four skills. Listening and speaking in activity 1, reading in activity 2, reading and writing in activity 3, and guided writing in activity 4. Thus, is integrating the four skills alone potent enough to lower learners writing anxiety?

In file four, sequence three, 'Produce' (see table 45), the pupils in activity 1, are asked to inform the teacher and the other colleagues about the activities they perform every morning. These activities involve everyday cleanliness, combing hair, wearing clothes, having breakfast, and going to school. Dealing with such activities leads the pupils to realize the link between school and home and that school is an extension of their social life.

In activity 2, the pupils are no longer talking about themselves, but rather inform the other pupils about Salim's every morning activities. It is a substitution activity as the pupils have to replace themselves by Salim. The teacher writes the pupils' answers on the board, and then asks them to read the resulting paragraph. In this activity, the teacher integrates reading and speaking.

Activity 3 is a sort of puzzle. It entails two parts. In part (a), the pupils are supposed to add each piece to the puzzle in a pertinent way. This task can be considered as an extension of activity 2 because we are still dealing with the same personality. In part (b), each pupil is required to substitute Salim by himself and to make the necessary changes.

In activity 4, the pupils are supplied with a picture of a family in the forest and are asked to tell what every member of the family is doing. The pupils have to transfer information from the picture into a concrete paragraph. The pupils have to make verbal what the father is doing near the river, what his son and his daughter are doing and what the mother is preparing for lunch.

Activities 1 and 2 are individual ones. The accomplishment of each learner's objectives is independent from the objectives of the other members of the class. Activities 3 and 4 are

group work activities. They are carried out in a cooperative atmosphere, where the learners share common objectives and success is for all or for none. The teacher is, no longer, an authoritarian, but a facilitator and a feedback provider.

On table 45 above, out of the 40 present pupils of 1AM5, only 22 (55%) have showed a beneficial exploitation of most of the time appointed for the paragraph writing. For 1AM6, out of the 39 present pupils of 1AM6, only 20 (51.28%) have used most of the assigned time.

Contact Summary Form

Settings: Okba Ibn Nafaa Middle School

Book: Spot Light on English (Book I)

File: Four

Duration: 1 hour

Sequence: 03

Class (es): 1AM7

Lesson: 03 (Produce)

1) What people, events, or situations were involved?

The teacher creates an interactive classroom atmosphere through cooperation for 1AM7 pupils who are writing a paragraph about present and everyday activities.

2) What were the main themes or issues in the contact?

Activities	Setting	Types of reward interdependence	The use of time	
Act 1: What do you do every morning? Act 2: What does Kenza do every morning? Act 3: Complete using usually,	Classroom / Group work	Individual/ verbal reward	1AM7	22 pupils out of 34 have used most of the time assigned for paragraph writing (64.70%).

likes and on: My father ….goes to work. He ……going …….foot. Act 4: look at your timetable, and then answer these questions. 1-What do you usually study on Saturday at 8 o'clock? 2-What about English? 3-When do you have Arabic? 4-When do you have sport? Act 5: Work in groups, then look at the pictures and tell in a paragraph what every member of the family does in the forest.				

Table46: The Main Themes or Issues in the Contact (File Four, Sequence 3)

3) What new target questions, speculations, or hunches about the field situations were suggested by the contact?

Activity 3 is a gap filling one; the pupils are required to put the learnt words into a meaningful context. This strategy is called placing new words into a context (Oxford, 1990: 60). This strategy is effective for the creation of mental linkages for the learnt words. Are the teachers aware about the existence of 'grouping', 'associating/elaborating', and 'placing' new words into a context' as potent strategies for the creation of mental linkages for the heard or read vocabulary?

In file four, sequence three, 'Produce' (see table 46), activity 1 is the same as the one presented to 1AM5 and 1AM6. In activity 2, the pupils are, no longer, talking about themselves, but rather inform the other pupils about Kenza's every morning activities. It is a substitution activity as each pupil has to substitute himself by Kenza. In activity 3, the pupils have to complete the sentences using particular words. It is a gap filling activity. The pupils have just to guess and choose the right answer and then copy them on their copybooks. In activity 4, the pupils have to transfer information from the table to form complete meaningful sentences. Affording examples related to the pupils' school life makes the task more engaging. In activity 5, the pupils are required to look at a picture of a family in the forest and to describe the activities every member of the family is doing.

Activities 1, 2, and 4 are individual ones. The learners try to descry strategies that lead them to personal success. However, activities 3 and 5 are cooperative ones, where the success of each member is conditioned by the success of the whole group. In this case, the pupils seem to unify their efforts while discussing to exchange ideas and reach a consensus. The role of the teacher has shifted from authoritarianism to the facilitation of the provided material and the provision of feedback.

On table 46 above, out of the 34 present pupils of 1AM7, only 22 (64.70%) have provided an employment of most of the time designed for producing the paragraph.

5. Findings and Comments

The results gained from the classroom observation have actually paved the way for affording the questionnaire to these pupils to check the effects of combining reward and cooperative learning in teaching writing on their intrinsic motivation to write English paragraphs. On the basis of the gained results, we attempt to exhibit some comments that would contribute to improve the teaching of writing and make it successful and efficient.

5.1 People and Situations Involved

The present observational study involves one experienced teacher of English and his first-year middle school pupils. The teacher carried out the teaching of writing paragraphs through 'Produce' sessions. There is a balance between the number of individual and cooperative writing lessons which ascertains the fact that the teacher is aware of the importance of engaging the pupils in both types.

In file three, sequence one, 'Produce', the pupils of the three classes are engaged in a classroom individual writing through which they are required to describe their preferable champion. In sequence two, the classroom atmosphere is turned into a cooperative motivating one. The pupils are asked to describe their school while interacting in small heterogeneous groups. In sequence three, however, an individual classroom setting is designed for the pupils to deal with daily activities and hobbies.

In file four, sequence one, 'Produce', each pupil performs an individual classroom writing task whose focal point is to pen a postcard to a friend informing him/her about the places and the people he/she is visiting. In sequences two and three, a cooperative classroom writing climate is planned by the teacher. In the first one, the cardinal issue of the paragraph is

the description of an animal. However, in the second one, present and everyday activities epitomize the center of attention.

5.2 The Main Themes or Issues in the Contact

Under this title we attempted to shed light on the activities designed for teaching writing paragraphs, the setting, types of reward interdependence and the use of time.

5.2.1 Activities

In the Bangalore project proposed by Prabhu *et. al*. (1987, in Nunan, 1991), activities are divided into three types: information gap activities, reasoning gap activities and opinion gap activities. An information-gap activity is one that accentuates the transfer of information from one person to another or from one form to another or from one place to another. A reasoning-gap activity is one that includes extracting unknown information from provided information by relying on inferring, deducing, using practical reasoning, or by perceiving the relationships or patterns. An opinion-gap activity is one that encompasses displaying a personal preference, feeling, or attitude.

From what has been observed, more than 30 activities that precede production are information-transfer activities in which the pupils either transfer information to the teacher or to the other classmates (from one person to another), or from table into sentences (from one place to another). Moreover, four reasoning-gap activities and one opinion-gap activity that precede the final production are assigned. The final activity, in each lesson, which concerns production, is a combination of information-transfer, reasoning-gap, and opinion-gap activities. It is an information-transfer activity because the pupils are put in a situation which entails transmitting knowledge from the pupil to his classmates and the teacher (the audience). It is also a reasoning-gap activity since the pupils require extracting new information from the

previous provided data. It is an opinion-gap activity as the pupils reveal their personal feelings and attitudes through writing their paragraphs.

5.2.2 The Setting

The subjects are first-year pupils attending Okba Ibn Nafaa Middle School in Mila. The produce sessions are carried out in the classroom either through individual or group work. The teacher appeared to equilibrate both types in the final activity which concerns production. When performing individual activities, pupils are autonomous and independent from the other members of the class. Each pupil is highlighting his personal goals and not paying any attention to the other classmates. Yet, when performing a cooperative activity which is set for production, pupils write together to accomplish common goals. The pupils seem to pursue outcomes that are beneficial to themselves and useful to all group members. The pupils work in small heterogeneous groups that involve from three to six pupils. These groups afford them an opportunity for effective interaction, giving help to each other and exchanging each other material. From what has been observed, cooperative work is carried out through the think/pair/share structure developed by Kagan (1994**).** The teacher assigns the topic for the pupils, who engage in writing individually, then cooperate in pairs to exchange ideas, interact with each other as well as provide feedback, reward, and encouragement to each other. Ultimately, the members of the pair cooperate with the other members of the group. In this way, the pupils tend to communicate in a more organized way. The teacher's selection of this cooperative activity looked very successful due to its compatibility with the learners' level.

We have also noticed that each cooperative production is preceded by individual tasks. Hosenfled (1977) suggests equalizing the use of cooperative and individual work for the purpose of stimulating cooperation and independence. Thus, the teacher is merging both types

on purpose and is aware about the usefulness of combining them. This sort of awareness helped the teacher and his pupils to reveal success in cooperative situations.

5.2.3 Types of Reward Interdependence

For Deutsch (1949), reward interdependence has three types: cooperative, competitive, and independent. The obtainment of cooperative rewards is conditioned by their attainment by all the group members, competitive rewards are those rewards whose obtainment by one person reduces the chance of another to obtain them. Independent rewards are those that are given to an individual without taking into consideration the others' performance.

Therefore, when the teacher is carrying out a cooperative work, cooperative rewards have to be in operation. However, individual work compels the teacher to dispense independent rewards. In this research, we have witnessed the teacher's reliance on independent reward in cooperative and individual activities. Reward takes the form of verbal praise which is always accompanied by nonverbal communication of approval. The teacher always looked smiling when affording verbal praise.

The teacher is affording group rewards on an individual basis and regarding the amount of individual's performance. This is what is labelled differential rewarding. The teacher is displaying a total agreement with Miller and Hamblin (1963) who evince that differential rewarding and task interdependence influence performance in a positive way.

5.2.4 The Use of Time

Throughout this exploratory observation, we noticed that first-year middle school pupils revealed an improvement in their use of the time assigned for the production when writing cooperatively and receiving verbal reward.

When writing under cooperative conditions and receiving verbal reward, a considerable number of the pupils are spending more time on the task (production). This demonstrates that there is an enhancement in their intrinsic motivation to write English paragraphs.

These results are obtained through the comparison between individual writing combined with verbal reward and cooperative writing accompanied by the same reward. More than half of the number of the pupils, who are engaged in cooperative writing and receiving verbal reward are using a large percentage of the time allotted for writing the paragraph. Out of 346 pupils who are present and carrying out a cooperative work and receiving verbal reward, 239 pupils which represent 69.07%, are using a big rate of the time assigned for the paragraph writing. In addition, out of 358 pupils who are present and engaged in individual writing and receiving verbal reward, only 169 pupils; that is, 47,20%, are accomplishing the work and spending more time on it. The comparison between the results of the two methods is culminated by 70 pupils who are spending more time on the task when writing under cooperative learning and verbal reward conditions, which indicates 21.87%. This percentage symbolizes a big difference between the two instructional methods.

To sum up, under cooperative learning which is combined with verbal reward, the pupils reveal an improvement in their use of the time allotted for producing paragraphs; i.e.,

they spend a large proportion of the time assigned for accomplishing the piece of writing, which in itself, implies an increase in learners' intrinsic motivation to write English paragraphs**.** Slavin (1995: 64) explained that CL increased time on task, and this is attributed to the students' engagement and their increased motivation to learn. Seidel *et. al*. (2005) regarded the amount of time on task as one of the significant factors that impacted learning. They reported that time on task and learning the target material are strongly correlated. This result affords the basic idea that within cooperative atmospheres which are merged with verbal reward, pupils' anxiety is lowered, and they feel relaxed; that is why they are engaged in the task and motivated to write. From the other angle, when writing individually and receiving verbal reward, the pupils feel the competitive atmosphere under which they carry out writing; that is why, pupils' anxiety is increased and feel working under pressure. For this reason, they are not engaged in the task of writing and not motivated to write.

5.3 New Target Questions

This tentative observation which encompasses twelve lessons is culminated by a number of new questions which can be the foundation for future research in order to contribute to the improvement of the teaching of writing. It seems that the power of the research has expanded to involve new problems which are resulting in a steadfast stream of new research questions desired during the exploratory study.

The first resulting question is: do learners always need to write in a cooperative atmosphere? This question implies that if learners are in a continuous requirement to write within a cooperative atmosphere, teachers have to get rid of individual writing activities, and even the balance between the two methods will be useless. This leads us to the following question: what is the effect of allowing the learners to decide on cooperative or individual

writing? That is to say, if the learners are free to opt for one of these types of learning, things will be different. The learners will not exhibit any objection since they are not following orders, and perhaps will lean toward each type when they feel the need for it. Moreover, bestowing the learners the freedom to select the type of learning increases their responsibility as learners and as future citizens. Consequently, is cooperative writing which is not planned by the teacher effective for learning? In this case, we distinguish between cooperative writing which is designed by the teacher, and the other kind which is planned and chosen by the learners. We believe that the rate of teacher's authority has a negative effect on the instructional technique he is imposing on the learners, because the learners may feel pressured and learn under anxiety. So, what are the effects of integrating unplanned peer discussions and connecting tasks with the real life of the learners on their writing? First, this point is based on the belief that learners participate actively when tasks highlight pupils' real life. This is what is stated in the following question: what is the relationship between linking tasks with the real life of the pupils and learners' maximum participation? To put it in another way, what are the effects of joining school and life activities on learners' motivation? Learners' active participation is a pivotal result of learners' motivation because learners acquire confidence in approaching learning a foreign language as it is connected with something concrete. Second, it is erected on the assumptions that peer or group discussions are unavoidable to serve the learners' needs. Joining the two assumptions is a questionable issue that deserves considerable regard if the improvement of teaching writing really matters.

In addition, is cooperative reading beneficial for improving learners' individual writings? Research has evinced that good writers are good readers. This alludes to the fact that reading and writing are interactive and interdependent. Therefore, depriving learners from the ability to read leads to dispossess them from the ability to translate their thoughts into

words. And as creating a potent interactive learning environment for the teaching of reading seems to echo positive results for the teaching of writing, we believe that cooperative reading would have positive conspicuous effects on individual writing.

The next major purposive questions concern making the use of visual aids discernible to teachers of second and foreign language, so they can capacitate learners to improve their learning. The focus of the first question is teacher's awareness about the significance of processing the information visually in comparison to the auditive processing. This idea has burst out from the fact that the capacity of the mind to save information visually overlaps its capacity to save it verbally. Therefore, does the learners' transfer of information from visual to verbal empower saving information? Our suggestion entails storing the information verbally, but retrieving it through a visual form. The question that has to be under investigation tackles the possibility of invigorating the verbal storing of language material when put under the visual extraction.

The next question sheds light on the effect of combining cooperative learning and visual aids in teaching writing. Since through our classroom observations, cooperative learning seems to be necessary for learners; and as an immense number of data is processed visually in comparison to the auditive processing, we believe that merging cooperative learning and visual aids would improve learners' writings.

As a painful activity, writing brings about learners' boredom and disengagement while producing paragraphs. Consequently, is the combination of visual aids and dictation efficacious for increasing learners' engagement in writing paragraphs? Since dictation accentuates sound symbol relationship, spelling, punctuation and capitalization. It is regarded

as a reinforcing tool for the teaching of writing and one of the measures of testing it. The integration of visual aids and dictation is an integration of verbal and visual representation of the same material which alludes to the double processing of the information exhibited to the learners, and that guarantees the successful storing of the language data. We believe that feeling armed with the necessary knowledge would enhance learners' engagement in writing.

Another possibility for encouraging the learners to improve their writings and more specifically their use of the time allotted for writing lies in sharing responsibility with their teachers to decide on some aspects of the topic they are supposed to discuss. As many pupils exhibit a considerable gap between their expressive levels in writing. Some find it not too complicated, others realize it as a demanding task. Therefore, is a unified outline for the whole class effective for the improvement of learners' writings? We believe that a single outline serves to avoid frustration and disappointment among the learners who perceive writing as a painful activity and to create equal opportunities for all the learners. As a consequence, an observable improvement in learners' writings can be anticipated.

Finally, personality plays a significant role in writing. For instance, those who feel inhibited when starting writing, find it very difficult to produce a complete paragraph or a full composition. Perhaps the main cause lies in the learners' anxiety. However, is the integration of the four skills alone potent enough to lower learners' anxiety? We believe that if learners have to write with clarity and precision, teachers have to give them opportunities to acquire confidence in their ability to write lowering their anxiety through the combination of the four skills.

To sum up, good writing will not develop from void, but rather from the considerable number of the research questions resulting from the problems encountered by the teachers and learners or previous tentative studies. Most of these questions highlight that opportunities for good writing should be in operation as soon as possible, especially when the emphasis of the research interests seems to involve the what and how dimensions of learning a foreign language.

6. The Learners' Questionnaire

6.1 Description of the Learners' Questionnaire

The pupils' questionnaire is designed to investigate the effects of cooperative learning and verbal reward on pupils' intrinsic motivation to write English paragraphs. It includes ten items presented in one section. The pupils are asked to select one of the five options which are never, seldom, sometimes, often, and always.

6.2 Results of the Learners' Questionnaire

In order to investigate the effects of cooperative learning and the use of verbal reward on learners' motivation toward writing, we provided the pupils with five options following each statement. The questionnaire was written in Arabic and administered one time at the end of the observational study.

Item 01

I like writing in English because it is interesting to write cooperatively and to receive verbal reward.

a- Never ☐

b- Seldom ☐

c- Sometimes ☐

d- Often ☐

e- Always ☐

Options	N	%
Never	00	00
Seldom	00	00
Sometimes	00	00
Often	00	00
Always	122	100
Total	122	100

Table 47: Pupils' Attitudes towards Cooperative Learning and Verbal Reward in Writing

As shown in table 47, all the pupils revealed a tendency towards liking writing English paragraphs under cooperative learning and verbal reward conditions. This could imply that these tow conditions increase the learners' active involvement in the learning experience which fosters their interest and motivates them to perform writing tasks.

Item 02

I feel very happy when we are writing cooperatively and receiving verbal reward.

a- Never ☐

b- Seldom ☐

c- Sometimes ☐

d- Often ☐

e- Always ☐

Options	N	%
Never	00	00.00
Seldom	00	00.00
Sometimes	02	01.64
Often	04	03.28
Always	116	95.08
Total	122	100

Table 48: Pupils' Positive Feelings towards Cooperative Learning and Verbal Reward in Writing

From the data provided in the table above, it is clear that the pupils displayed increased pleasure related to cooperative writing and verbal reward. This leads to the deduction that these two factors create a relaxed atmosphere which ruins pupils' stress and anxiety in the classroom and elicit high levels of happiness. Such feelings of enjoyment are significant in determining what is learned and when learning takes place because they instigate the pupils to take on the responsibility of their own learning.

Item 03

I think my writing skill is developing when I write cooperatively and receive verbal reward.

a- Never ☐

b- Seldom ☐

c- Sometimes ☐

d- Often ☐

e- Always ☐

Options	N	%
Never	00	00
Seldom	00	00
Sometimes	02	01.64
Often	01	00.82
Always	119	97.54
Total	122	100

Table 49: Pupils' Evaluation of their Writing Ability Under CL and Verbal Reward

As a response to this item, pupils believe that the development of their writing skill is conditioned by cooperative writing and verbal reward. This indicates the pupils' awareness about the significance of each factor in the learning process. Pupils' optimistic perspectives towards their ability to write stem from their desire to feel competent and their intensive interaction in the learning environment.

Item 04

I feel bored when writing cooperatively and receiving verbal reward.

a- Never ☐

b- Seldom ☐

c- Sometimes ☐

d- Often ☐

e- Always ☐

Options	N	%
Never	122	100
Seldom	00	00
Sometimes	00	00
Often	00	00
Always	00	00
Total	122	100

Table 50: Pupils' Feelings towards Cooperative Writing and Verbal Reward

The table above indicates that the pupils have positive attitudes towards cooperative writing and verbal reward. This is due to the resulting environment which encourages pupils' interaction and makes writing an interesting task. Feelings of interest and enjoyment can be brought about by the positive connection between challenge and personal ability. It seems that when the tow mentioned motivational factors are in operation the target connection is facilitated.

Item 05

When writing cooperatively and receiving verbal reward, I pay more attention to the writing lessons.

a- Never ☐

b- Seldom ☐

c- Sometimes ☐

d- Often ☐

e- Always ☐

Options	N	%
Never	00	00
Seldom	00	00
Sometimes	02	01.64
Often	08	06.56
Always	112	91.80
Total	122	100

Table 51: Pupils' Attention to the Writing Lessons under Cooperative Writing and Verbal Reward

Under cooperative learning and verbal reward conditions, pupils show more attention to the teacher's writing lessons. This is a clear demonstration of teacher's role as a facilitator who helps his pupils understand what is vague, as a guide whose role is to orientate his pupils' ideas, and as an organizer of the cooperative writing tasks.

Item 06

When writing cooperatively and receiving verbal reward, is it not difficult to write in English?

a- Never ☐

b- Seldom ☐

c- Sometimes ☐

d- Often ☐

e- Always ☐

Options	N	%
Never	00	00.00
Seldom	00	00.00
Sometimes	02	01.64
Often	07	05.74
Always	113	92.62
Total	122	100

Table 52: Pupils' Feelings of Competence under Cooperative Writing and Verbal Reward

The pupils' responses in table 52 indicate that the pupils experience less difficulty under cooperative writing and verbal reward. The resulting feeling is that of competence which involves ability and confidence to reach the desired outcomes and to avoid the negative ones. This is due to the pupils' interaction which lowers their anxiety, raises their self-esteem and facilitates writing.

Item 07

When writing cooperatively and receiving verbal reward, I like writing in English because I am interested in the activity itself and not in obtaining grades.

a- Never ☐

b- Seldom ☐

c- Sometimes ☐

d- Often ☐

e- Always ☐

Options	N	%
Never	00	00.00
Seldom	00	00.00
Sometimes	05	04.10
Often	17	13.93
Always	100	81.97
Total	122	100

Table 53: Pupils' Justification for their Positive Attitudes towards Writing under Cooperative Writing and Verbal Reward

The results mentioned in the table above suggest that the pupils are confirming their positive attitudes towards writing through assigning interest in writing and excluding grades as ends in themselves. The learners' answers confirm that they are intrinsically motivated to write English paragraphs.

Item 08

When writing cooperatively and receiving verbal reward, would you wish to have extra writing sessions?

a- Never ☐

b- Seldom ☐

c- Sometimes ☐

d- Often ☐

e- Always ☐

Options	N	%
Never	00	00.00
Seldom	00	00.00
Sometimes	04	03.28
Often	18	14.75
Always	100	81.97
Total	122	100

Table 54: Pupils' Interest in Writing under Cooperative Writing and Verbal Reward

Table 54 reports significant results. The pupils feel the need for more writing sessions. Their desire to learn and attain a goal seems to reach high levels in order to energize, orient, and maintain the learning behaviour. Pupils' persistence is clearly voiced in this answer as they display a need for more language learning material. This is a clear suggestion that they are highly motivated by cooperative learning and verbal reward.

Item 09

I hate writing under cooperative learning and verbal reward.

a- Never ☐

b- Seldom ☐

c- Sometimes ☐

d- Often ☐

e- Always ☐

Options	N	%
Never	122	100
Seldom	00	00
Sometimes	00	00
Often	00	00
Always	00	00
Total	122	100

Table 55: Pupils' Feelings towards Cooperative Writing and Verbal Reward and the Justification for Writing under them

The results in table 55 reflect that the pupils never hate writing. This suggests that they are not coerced by any external force to complete the task as it should be. Their seriousness stems from their own motivation to learn writing.

Item 10

When writing cooperatively and receiving verbal reward, I like writing and my English teacher.

a- Never ☐

b- Seldom ☐

c- Sometimes ☐

d- Often ☐

e- Always ☐

Options	N	%
Never	00	00
Seldom	00	00
Sometimes	00	00
Often	00	00
Always	122	100
Total	122	100

Table 56: Pupils' Attitudes towards their Teacher under Cooperative Writing and Verbal Reward

It appears that when writing cooperatively and receiving verbal reward, pupils have a positive attitude towards their teacher. Therefore, their motivation to write led them to like the teacher himself who is, no longer, an authoritative person. As a facilitator, the teacher reduces the rate of control he exerts over the pupils and proves to be more friendly and supportive. This new role facilitates acquiring the new introduced material and yields positive impacts on pupils' perception of their teacher and learning in general.

To sum up, item 1(see p: 226-227) which concerns pupils attitudes towards writing cooperatively and receiving verbal reward indicates that all the pupils revealed a tendency toward liking writing English paragraphs under the target conditions. Item 2 (see p: 227-228) which deals with pupils' positive feelings towards cooperative learning and verbal reward in writing displays that an increased pleasure is related to cooperative writing and verbal reward. Responses to item 3 (see p: 288) evince that the pupils believe that the development of their writing skill is taking place under the influence of the two motivators. Item 5 (see p: 230-231) reveals that the pupils show more attention to the writing lessons under the target motivators.

Item 7 (see p: 232-233) demonstrates that the pupils like writing because they are interested in the activity itself and not in obtaining grades. Item 8 (see p: 233-234) sheds light on the pupils' need for more writing sessions. These results allude to the fact that the pupils' intrinsic is enhanced under the mentioned motivators.

Conclusion

In conclusion to this chapter, we can state that the teachers' and learners' questionnaires and the classroom observation we followed demonstrate that combining the use of reward and cooperative learning in teaching writing increases learners' intrinsic motivation to write English paragraphs. Moreover, the results display an improvement in the pupils' writings and an enhancement in their persistence to write in English. We can also conclude that combining both of reward and cooperative learning can be a potent way to deal with the problems of interest, anxiety and engagement in foreign language writing. Indeed, a cooperative writing lesson which involves verbal reward would result in creating comfortable and non-pressured atmosphere in which learners could produce more effective paragraphs.

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CHAPTER SIX

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Introduction

The results obtained from the teachers' and learners' questionnaires and the observational research accentuate the need of teaching writing through cooperation and verbal reward increasingly over time. Relying on these results, we attempt to introduce some pedagogical implications to the learning and teaching of writing under cooperation and reward conditions. The underlying implication is that writing encompasses treating the transmission of meaning to a particular audience. When writing, writers do not only transform their thoughts into a concrete message but also take into consideration that this message has to be communicated to an audience. This problem can be solved through realizing that writing is a process, and rewarded cooperative learning is a necessity.

1. The Process of Writing

Generally, this study indicates that writing is not a final product where the efficient transmission of the purpose is assigned more worth than the formal characteristics of the text. Providing ample opportunities to practise writing through the process approach would enable learners to foster their skills in planning, composing and reviewing strategies. Teachers should pay attention to the fact that the pupils give equal consideration to each stage in the process of writing. When the pupils fluctuate their attention from one stage to another, this

would result in the restriction of the development of ideas in their paragraphs. For instance, when the pupils change their focus from revision to editing, this problem can be worked out through guided revision activities, and the teacher should teach them how to gain benefits from feedback.

The low achievement pupils exhibit reliance on their teachers and peers in the revision of their writing. They are affected by the ideas of their peers than by those of their own. Yet, this exchange of ideas leads them to improve their future writing capacities. However, high achievement pupils are less linguistically constrained, and they are less reliant on the others. Indeed, their cognitive capacities represent a strong motivator for the low achievement pupils to release more energy and to exploit more effort to reach a good level.

2. Integrating Reading and Writing

Integrating reading and writing represents opportunities to put into practice reading and writing in a concurrent way because many of the strategies are employed in both reading and writing. This integration contributes to raise learners' realization of the similitudes between the processes of bringing back the written communication while reading and generating it through writing. Therefore, the combination would back up the construction of meaning through each skill, and what is learnt in reading can be useful in enhancing the writing skill development. Integrating the two skills orientates the pupils to realize this fact and to afford more value to reading as it contributes to improve the writing performance. Thus, for the pupils, integrating reading and writing activities symbolize suitable circumstances to internalize how to exploit knowledge from reading that can take part in their writings. In other words, reading practice and knowledge can be referred to as patterns and stockpiles for their writing practices. In addition, knowledge resulting from writing can reinforce the

development of the reading skill. In conclusion, combining reading and writing together is a potent learning and an instructional option that promotes the development of both skills. It also stimulates the conscious engagement of the learners in learning.

3. Time Exploitation

In short, this study indicates that the use of reward and cooperative learning in teaching writing leads the pupils to allocate a big portion of the time assigned for writing paragraphs. Through developing an improvement in their exploitation of the time, the pupils evince their engagement in writing paragraphs under cooperative and reward conditions. This engagement is likely to be potent for strengthening their writing abilities.

4. Feedback

Writing assignments can be considered as a form of support for gaining proficiency. It is likely that this is simply an opportunity to practise writing. The feedback the pupils are receiving on their writing tasks highlights content rather than form. It is implied that with a combined focus on both content and form, the use of feedback has the potential to bring about a potent writing instruction. This can be achieved through prioritizing comments about content. Then, to avoid hindering the pupils to write, the teacher can provide comments about grammar whose importance seems to be secondary. Making fluency superior over accuracy provides a good choice for language learners to express what they have learned.

The writing process can be an estimable learning experience for most language learners only when the flux of ideas is of paramount significance for teachers, and this will, in turn, nurture the development of the writing skill. Middle school teachers seem to adopt the same view. For them, these are adequate opportunities to erect the learners' writing skills. In short,

it looks logical to state that the role middle school teachers play in enhancing middle school writing skill proves to be an underpinning one through providing precise and concise feedback. Long feedback which exceeds three lines proves to be quite useless. Thus, effective feedback has not to be general but specific. The comments have to tackle a particular point in the pupils' writing to be helpful to the pupils to undergo the necessary changes in the next drafts.

Moreover, the teacher seems to be heedful to the pupils' strengths and weaknesses. Such a balance makes feedback a constructive one because it does not only imply negative aspects of the pupils' writings. The positive nature of feedback plays a motivating role for the pupils to ameliorate their writings; however, the negative comments indicate where the weaknesses lie to enable learners to carry out the necessary improvements.

Ultimately, in this study, the teacher does not rely on model paragraphs for feedback. Raising the possibility for the pupils to take advantage of model paragraphs is based on selecting models that are suitable to the pupils' level and that share similarities with the pupils' paragraphs to facilitate evaluating the characteristics and the substance of writing. The main reason behind these model paragraphs is that the pupils can notice specific language qualities to be exploited in their writings; therefore, variety in the use of models is an inevitable tool.

5. Cooperative Learning

The results of this study imply that cooperative learning is one of the teaching methods that can be exploited in a successful way to improve learners' writings. It is an effective instructional strategy that creates a healthy learning environment that impacts foreign

language learning and teaching. Through cooperative learning, the structuring of positive social interdependence becomes an inevitable truth in the classroom as it supplies learners with crucial skills that will be estimable in their future social life and profession.

For getting more benefits, teachers have to be involved in cooperative learning training workshops to build up their learning experiences, knowledge and to secure positive attitudes toward this teaching method. The main reason for training is to prepare teachers to use CL pertinently and to raise their awareness about its richness and its positive impacts.

In this research, the teacher relies on the Think Pair Share method through the whole year which is helpful for the teacher and his learners. He avoids the 'cafeteria approach' which implies using various cooperative learning methods within a limited period of time. The basic idea behind this avoidance is to afford enough time for the teacher to master one major method rather than the fast exposure of the teacher to various techniques which may not be internalized.

In addition, the project work which is the core of learning to write is not written in the classroom, and it has to be so in order to avoid plagiarism. These projects have to be accomplished in small heterogeneous groups. Each member has to be assigned a role in the project and the group members show dependence on each other while performing the allotted tasks. Group members have to discuss, plan and write the project under the heedful monitoring of the teacher. The pupils have to resolve conflicts to reach a consensus.

6. The Use of Reward

Offering verbal rewards at such early stages of language learning helps build in the pupils' writing habit and support their motivation to learn. These verbal rewards seem to have a salient impact as they are merged with nonverbal communication such as facial expressions like smiling. This feature provides learners with more sincerity and spontaneity. Moreover, establishing clear objectives for the lessons and making the performance and the quality of improvement the end of these rewards bestow them an underpinning essence. Ultimately, practical verbal reward that is unavoidable is the one that indicates acknowledging pupils' efforts which evince to what extent knowledge and skills are internalized.

The heterogeneous groups in this study, being middle school pupils in a classroom setting, looked very willing to cooperate mainly due to task demands. However, the teacher affords verbal rewards on an individual basis. Individual rewards may reduce the kind of cooperation treated in this study. Therefore, it is highly recommended to bestow group rewards to enhance cooperation to a level where the group is skillful to accomplish the determined task.

From this investigation, it is implied that the significance of reward does not rely on the reception of any type of reward but rather on the attitude the pupils construct toward the afforded type of reward. This accentuates the importance of selecting the appropriate reward for the individual. If the teacher's intention is to evince to his pupils how much he esteems them and their efforts, rewards can be a potent substantiation of his goal. However, it is not satisfactory for the instructor to provide any type of reward, but the reward must be the one the pupils value. This signifies that rewards which are preferred and remembered will enhance learners' assumptions that they are esteemed by the instructor. Since the avails of rewards are

reliant on the purpose behind using them and their way of presentation; thus, to gain the best possible advantage from reward, it would be expedient for teachers to decide which rewards are desired by their learners. Besides this, teachers should be heedful to the nature of rewards, their manner of exhibition, and the results the learners would reach. In addition, verbal rewards which are informational and not controlling are effective as they do not undermine IM when delivered in an informational manner; consequently, teachers need to elude tangible rewards accompanied by ignoring the degree of performance, and rewards have to hold the sense of a prop and not a goal.

7. Cooperation and Reward

Results of the current study imply that cooperative learning when combined with verbal reward can be successfully used to enhance learners' engagement in writing paragraphs. These results insinuate that verbal rewards are sufficient when integrated with cooperative learning to motivate the learners to write and to enhance their internalization of knowledge. Since tangible rewards are not required to improve pupils' learning, instructors do not require wasting time and money assigned for their provision against correct responses. As a result, diminishing the types of rewards which are superfluous would decrease the possibility of the pupils' dependence on them.

Conclusion

This chapter has encompassed some pedagogical implications whose main focus is the teaching of writing under cooperative and reward conditions. Accordingly, teachers require assigning more importance to the teaching of writing as a process involving a number of stages that deserve a careful consideration by the learners to be culminated by a final product. In addition, they have to construct a thorough understanding of cooperative learning before its

implementation in their classes and to acquaint themselves with the short and long-term effects of reward taking into account learners' personalities and individual differences.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

Intrinsic motivation is a significant variable to consider when teaching writing. Therefore, it is necessary for instructors to enhance intrinsic motivation so that learners can achieve more success and enjoy their learning experience in which they show a deep involvement. Furthermore, they become life-long-learners. The focal problem of this study revolves around learners' reluctance to write in English which is one of the attitudinal obstructions to learners' successful writing. Thus, the main aim of the research is to determine the impact of using CL and verbal reward on pupils' intrinsic motivation. Thus, it was hypothesized that if writing is taught under cooperative learning and verbal reward conditions, pupils' intrinsic motivation to write English paragraphs would be increased.

This study necessitated using the true or false test of knowledge about cooperative learning, the classroom observation as well as the teachers' and learners' questionnaires. The selection of one teacher for the observation relied on the true or false test of knowledge and the teachers' questionnaire. The observational contact summary forms which are followed represent a helpful tool to record the "Produce'' lessons of three first year classes, at Okba Ibn Nafaa Middle School, in Mila. This observation is made to find out which lessons pupils seem to be more engaged in—individualistic or cooperative ones, and to see how CL and verbal reward are implemented in the classroom. The teachers' and learners' questionnaires are used to collect the necessary quantitative and qualitative data to investigate the influence of CL and verbal reward on learners' intrinsic motivation.

The teachers' and learners' questionnaires mirror influential effects of the studied factors on learners' intrinsic motivation. Results of question 23 (see p: 145-146) evinces clearly that 92.30% of the teachers believe in the efficiency of cooperative writing. Responses to question 24 (see p: 146) which are concerned with the reasons behind the efficacy of the target method state that 92.30% of the teachers report that it enhances pupils' writings and increases their intrinsic motivation to write. Question 30 (see p: 150) which seeks to evaluate the pupils' intrinsic motivation reveals that 100% of the teachers opted for the informational reward as an influential factor which fosters learners' intrinsic motivation. The provided answers for question 33 (see p: 152) demonstrate that verbal reward improves pupils' ability to write. Moreover, item 1 (see p: 226-227) shows that all the pupils lean toward liking writing English paragraphs under CL and verbal reward. Responses to item 2 (see p: 227-228) clarifies that an increased pleasure is related to the previous motivators. Results of item 3 (see p: 228) indicate that the writing skill is developing due to the target motivators. The provided answers for item 5 (see p: 230-231) report that the pupils show more attention to the writing lessons mainly due to the selected factors. Item 7 (see p: 232-233) proves that the pupils like writing because they are interested in the activity itself and not in obtaining grades. Item 8 (see p: 233-234) makes clear that the pupils need more writing sessions. These results have shown that pupils who write under CL and verbal reward display an increase in their intrinsic motivation to write.

Moreover, the classroom observation has shown that out of 115 present pupils who write under CL and verbal reward, only 79 pupils which represent 69.07% are using a big rate of the time assigned for the paragraph writing. In addition, out of 119 present pupils who are engaged in individual learning and receive verbal reward, only 56 pupils; that is 47.20% are using more time on it. The comparison between the two methods results in 21.87% which

symbolizes a big difference between the two instructional methods and which according to Slavin (1995) indicates an enhancement in learners' intrinsic motivation to write.

The obtained results have confirmed that the pupils who studied under CL and verbal reward have benefited from the two motivators and have shown an increase in their intrinsic motivation to write. Hence, the conclusion drawn from this study has confirmed the correctness of the proposed hypothesis.

The dependence on cooperative learning and verbal reward appears to help the pupils enhance their motivation to write English paragraphs. This implies that pupils who are lucky to learn in an interactive social atmosphere and to receive verbal reward recognize that the environment is more propitious, and that is why they display engagement in writing. Such a motivational atmosphere helps learners to get rid of laziness, lack of interest, and the sense of coercion.

Therefore, verbal reward and CL are effective instructional motivators which need to be valued by foreign language researchers who are expected to direct their attention to more profound studies about the implementation and the impact of these motivators in the classroom writing environment, moreover, they are invited to test the influence of such motivators on listening, speaking and reading.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX (A)

THE ORIGINAL COPY OF BOUAS TEST

The original copy of the true / false test developed by Bouas (1993)

Teacher name:

TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGR OF "COOPERATIVE LEARNING" AS A TEACHING STRATEGY

Directions: Circle the "T" in front of the items that you believe are true about cooperative learning (working in small groups on an assigned task in a classroom). Circle the " F " in front the items that you believe to be false regarding cooperative learning. If you do not know whether the item is true or false circle " DK " for don t know.

T F DK 1. Students' academic achievement suffers as a result of group work..

T F DK 2. Cooperative learning results in students having a more positive attitude toward school.

T F DK 3. Cooperative learning deters racial prejudice among students.

T F DK 4. Cooperative learning leads to decreased students' productivity because students socialize more and do not stay at work.

T F DK 5. Cooperative learning causes frustration in brighter learners because they are "held back in making progress" by the presence of slower learners in a given group.

T F DK 6. Cooperative learning encourages a positive attitude toward academic work.

T F DK 7. Self-esteem of low level students suffers in cooperative learning activities.

T F DK 8. Cooperative learning improves peer relations among students of different ability levels.

T F DK 9. Group work causes students to be less dependent on the teacher for their learning.

T F DK 10. The reward and structure of the group task should be interwined in order for group work to be most effective.

APPENDIX (B)

THE TRUE OR FALSE TEST DEVELOPED BY THE RESEARCHER

THE TRUE/FALSE TEST OF KNOWLEDGE

Developed by Sabah Bouguerne based on Bouas test

Name:

Middle School Teacher's Knowledge about "Cooperative Learning" as a Teaching Strategy

---

Directions: Please circle the right letter in front of each statement:

"T" Corresponds to items that you believe are true about "Cooperative Learning" (Students working Together in small heterogeneous learning groups to achieve common goals, and receive reward on the basis of the group performance).

"F" Corresponds to items that you believe are false about "Cooperative Learning".

"DK" Corresponds to items that you do not know about "Cooperative Learning".

1. Students develop a positive perspective towards learning as a result of cooperative learning	**T F DK**
2. Cooperative learning increases students' predilection of school.	**T F DK**
3. Cooperative learning results in diminishing students' productivity because of the importance they assign to socialization in comparison to the task.	**T F DK**
4. Group work has a negative impact on students' academic achievement.	**T F DK**

5. Cooperative learning lessens the self-esteem of low achievement students.	**T F DK**
6. Cooperative learning leads students with different ability levels to maximize their learning.	**T F DK**
7. Students achieve more intellectual independence from the teacher as a consequence of group work.	**T F DK**
8. Cooperative learning facilitates communication and strengthens the relations between students having miscellaneous intellectual capacities.	**T F DK**
9. Cooperative learning hinders high achievement students and restrains their development due to low achievement students' participation in the group.	**T F DK**
10. The effectiveness of the group work relies strongly on amalgamating reward and the frame work of the group activity.	**T F DK**
11. Combining reward and Cooperative learning improves students' use of the time assigned for completing the task.	**T F DK**
12. Group work empowers students' creativity and their responsibility for learning.	**T F DK**

APPENDIX (C)

The Teachers' Questionnaire

The Teachers' Questionnaire

Name:……. **Years of experience:……**

Dear participants,

This is a brief questionnaire designed to investigate the effects of using cooperative learning and reward on learners' motivation to write English paragraphs. We would be so grateful if you could take part in it. Your responses will be used for the research only.

Please tick the appropriate answer and justify it whenever necessary. If you have any ambiguity, please do not hesitate to ask me for clarification.

Section one: Teaching writing

Question 1

Do your pupils rely on prewriting, drafting, revising, and editing?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Question 2

What kind of help do you give to your pupils?

a- You discuss the topic with your pupils. ☐

b- You allow them to use written sources of information about their topic. ☐

Question 3

If so, how helpful is it?

……

……

……

……

Question 4

Do your pupils know what their audience expects?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Question 5

How often do your pupils care about your expectations?

a- Always ☐

b- Often ☐

c- Sometimes ☐

d- Rarely ☐

e- Never ☐

Question 6

Is teacher feedback important?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Question 7

If yes, what kind of feedback do you offer?

……

……

……

…….

Section Two: Cooperative learning

Question 8

Do you help your pupils increase their learning through:

a- Individual tasks? ☐

b- Group work tasks? ☐

c- Pair work tasks? ☐

d- both of them? ☐

Question 9

How often do you ask your pupils to work in groups?

a- Always ☐

b- Often ☐

c- Sometimes ☐

d- Rarely ☐

e- Never ☐

The Cooperative Learning Center (1991) developed the following questions on the use of cooperative learning.

Question 10

What group sizes do you currently use in your classroom?

a. Two (2) students per group. ☐

b. Three (3) students per group. ☐

c. Four (4) students per group. ☐

d. Five (5) students per group. ☐

e. Six (6) or more students per group. ☐

Question 11

How do you assign students to cooperative learning groups?

a. Students choose who they want to work with. ☐

b. I assign students of the same ability to a group. ☐

c. I assign students of different abilities to a group. ☐

d. Students are randomly assigned to groups. ☐

Question 12

When students work in groups, how are the groups physically arranged?

a. Students can see and hear group members. ☐

b. Groups are physically separated so that they do not interfere with each others' learning. ☐

c. I can easily move from group to group. ☐

d. Groups sit where and in whatever arrangement they want to. ☐

Question 13

What materials are distributed to group members?

a. Each student within the group has a set of materials. ☐

b. Group members share one set of materials. ☐

c. Each group member has a different piece of the materials set. ☐

Question 14

What methods do you use to establish interdependence in groups?

a. Each member in the group must reach their goal in order for the group to reach their goal (e.g. one paper from the group). ☐

b. Bonus points are added or some other reward is given to all group members when everyone in the group achieves the established criteria. ☐

c. Group members are assigned complimentary roles to complete a task (e. g. experimenter, record-keeper). ☐

d. Groups are placed in competition with other groups. ☐

e. Students establish a mutual identity through a name, identity, flag or motto. ☐

f. Groups are placed in a fantasy situation in order to complete the task. ☐

Question 15

How do students interact with other students in their cooperative group?

a. Students in groups work individually and turn in their work together. ☐

b. Students compete within the group to do the most work. ☐

c. Students share ideas and materials making sure that all group members are actively involved. ☐

Question 16

When solving problems or answering questions, how do students reach a consensus in cooperative groups?

a. Students make little attempt to reach a consensus and turn in separate answers. ☐

b. A few leaders dominate the group and their point of view is accepted without challenge. ☐

c. Students argue their point of view and change their minds only on the basis of the data. ☐

d. All students share information and agree on one answer quickly. ☐

e. Students share ideas or seek information (in appropriate ways) from other groups. ☐

Question 17

How do you promote the mastery of interpersonal and group skills by students?

a. Students are told the social skills they need to use in cooperative groups, but little feedback is given to them on their use. ☐

b. The social skill is defined and practiced. Groups are observed and feedback given to them. ☐

c. The social skill is defined, practiced, and monitored. ☐

Question 18

How are group activities monitored in your classroom?

a. Formal observation of group functioning by teacher (e.g., by classroom or special education teacher or aid.). ☐

b. Feedback by teacher or group observations. ☐

c. Students observe their own groups and provide feedback for each other. ☐

d. Others. ☐

Question 19

What do you do while students are working in groups?

a. I do not interfere with group work and work quietly at my desk. ☐

b. I move from group to group and tell students how they can better complete the task. ☐

c. I move from group to group and occasionally consult with students on ways to complete the task and work effectively with each other. ☐

Question 20

How is group processing conducted in your classroom?

a. My schedule does not allow for time for groups to process. ☐

b. My students discuss how well they worked with each other. ☐

c. I have several structured ways for students to process in groups (e.g. rating scale continuum). ☐

d. I structure the processing as part of the lesson and have students turn in processing assignments with their other work. ☐

Question 21

How do you evaluate students' work?

a. Norm-referenced evaluation system where individual students' performance is compared to the performance of other students. ☐

b. Criteria-referenced evaluation system where students' individual work is compared against a preset criteria. ☐

c. Criteria-referenced evaluation system where a single group product is compared against a preset criteria. ☐

d. Criteria-referenced evaluation system where students are evaluated on the basis of individual work and the combined efforts of the members of their group, using a preset criteria (i.e. bonus points). ☐

Section Three: Cooperative Writing

Question 22

Cooperative writing requires teacher's experience.

Yes ☐

No ☐

Question 23

Do you believe in the effectiveness of cooperative writing?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Question 24

If yes, why?

……

……

……

……

Question 25

What motivates pupils to write?

a- When you select a topic to write about. ☐

b- When you allow them to select what to write about. ☐

c- When you give them an opportunity to write with others. ☐

Question 26

Do your pupils like writing?

a- in small groups. ☐

b- in pairs. ☐

c- individually. ☐

Question 27

Does cooperative writing result in good performance?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Question 28

If yes, why?

……

……

……

……

Section Four: Reward in Cooperative Writing

Question 29

How do you react towards pupils' good cooperative writing performance?

a- you give verbal reward. ☐

b- you give tangible reward. ☐

c- you give no reward. ☐

Question 30

Your pupils are intrinsically motivated by verbal reward in cooperative writing:

a- when it is informational. ☐

b- when it is controlling. ☐

Question 31

You offer verbal reward to reflect:

a- the quality of the cooperative writing performance. ☐

b- the completion of the cooperative writing task. ☐

c- the participation in the cooperative writing task. ☐

Question 32

Do you offer verbal reward on:

a- a group basis. ☐

b- an individual basis. ☐

c- a group then on an individual basis. ☐

Question 33

Does verbal reward improve pupils' cooperative writings?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Thank you for your participation!

APPENDIX (D)

FORMATION OF THE GROUPS ON THE BASIS OF THE FIRST TERM TEST N° 1

1AM5 GROUPS

GROUP1

E_5	18 :00
F_2	06 :00
A_1	16 :00
G_5	10 :00
A5	14:00

GROUP2

G_4	19:00
D_4	06:00
B_1	16:00
G1	10:00

GROUP3

B_3	18:00
C_4	07:00
H_3	15:00
G_2	13:00

GROUP4

E_4	18:00
D_3	10:00
B_2	16:00
E_4	13:00

GROUP5

H_2	20:00
B_4	07:00
B_5	17:00
G_3	11:00

GROUP6

H_1	19:00
H_5	06:00
D_1	17:00
H_4	13:00

GROUP7

I_1	18:00
A_3	10:00
D_2	17:00
F_3	13:00

GROUP8

D_5	20:00
C_5	05:00
C2	14:00
A_2	14:00

GROUP9

E_1	18:00
F_4	08:00
F_1	16:00
C_3	14:00

GROUP10

E_3	19:00
E_2	08:00
C_1	15:00
F_5	12:00

1AM6 GROUPS

GROUP1

A_1	19 :00
E_5	06 :00
A_4	13 :00
F_5	11 :00

GROUP2

B_5	16 :00
H_3	08 :00
D_2	14:00
C_1	10 :00

GROUP3

B_2	16:00
H_1	08:00
B_1	14:00
C_3	10:00

GROUP4

C_2	16:00
H_4	07:00
E_1	15:00
D_4	10:00
D_5	13:00
B_4	12:00

GROUP5

C_5	19:00
C_4	05:00
F_1	13:00
H_5	10:00

GROUP6

H_2	19:00
B_5	07:00
D_1	15:00
G_3	10:00

GROUP7

E_1	17:00
F_4	07:00
G_5	15:00
A_5	10:00

GROUP8

E_4	18:00
F_3	07:00
G_4	15:00
A_2	08:00

GROUP9

E_3	17:00
G_2	07:00
F_5	13:00
I_2	12:00

GROUP10

D_3	15:00
I_1	06:00
G_1	13:00
A_5	12:00

1AM7 GROUPS

GROUP1

A_2	15 :00
B_5	11 :00
D_3	15 :00
A_4	11 :00

GROUP2

A_3	16 :00
H_4	10 :00
C_2	14:00
C_3	12 :00

GROUP3

E_2	17:00
G_5	07:00
H_3	14:00
F_2	13:00

GROUP4

B_2	16:00
F_4	11:00
A_5	15:00
E_1	12:00

GROUP5

B_4	15:00
B_3	11:00
H_2	15:00
D_5	11:00

GROUP6

G_4	16:00
F_1	10:00
C_5	15:00
G_5	07:00

GROUP7

G_1	18:00
B_1	09:00
D_2	15:00
D_1	11:00

GROUP8

G_2	19:00
F_5	05:00
A_1	13:00
C_4	12:00

GROUP9

D_4	19:00
H_1	07:00
G_3	13:00
F_3	12:00

GROUP10

E_4	18:00
E_5	07:00
E_3	14:00
C_1	11:00

APPENDIX (E)
THE LEARNERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

The Learners' Questionnaire

Dear pupils,

This questionnaire is designed to assess your motivation to write English paragraphs under the influence of cooperative learning and verbal reward. Please respond to the following questions as accurately as possible.

Item 01

I like writing in English because it is interesting to write cooperatively and to receive verbal reward.

a- Never ☐

b- Seldom ☐

c- Sometimes ☐

d- Often ☐

e- Always ☐

Item 02

I feel very happy when we are writing cooperatively and receiving verbal reward.

a- Never ☐

b- Seldom ☐

c- Sometimes ☐

d- Often ☐

e- Always ☐

Item 03

I think my writing skill is developing when I write cooperatively and receive verbal reward.

a- Never ☐

b- Seldom ☐

c- Sometimes ☐

d- Often ☐

e- Always ☐

Item 04

I feel bored when writing cooperatively and receiving verbal reward.

a- Never ☐

b- Seldom ☐

c- Sometimes ☐

d- Often ☐

e- Always ☐

Item 05

When writing cooperatively and receiving verbal reward, I pay more attention to the writing lessons.

a- Never ☐

b- Seldom ☐

c- Sometimes ☐

d- Often ☐

e- Always ☐

Item 06

When writing cooperatively and receiving verbal reward, is it not difficult to write in English?

a- Never ☐

b- Seldom ☐

c- Sometimes ☐

d- Often ☐

e- Always ☐

Item 07

When writing cooperatively and receiving verbal reward, I like writing in English because I am interested in the activity itself and not in obtaining grades.

a- Never ☐

b- Seldom ☐

c- Sometimes ☐

d- Often ☐

e- Always ☐

Item 08

When writing cooperatively and receiving verbal reward, would you wish to have extra writing sessions?

a- Never ☐

b- Seldom ☐

c- Sometimes ☐

d- Often ☐

e- Always ☐

Item 09

I hate writing under cooperative learning and verbal reward.

a- Never ☐

b- Seldom ☐

c- Sometimes ☐

d- Often ☐

e- Always ☐

Item 10

When writing cooperatively and receiving verbal reward, I like writing and my English teacher.

a- Never

b- Seldom ☐

c- Sometimes ☐

d- Often ☐

e- Always ☐

Thank you for your participation!

استبيان للمتعلمين

هذا الإستبيان مصمم لإختبار دافعيتك لكتابة فقرة باللغة الإنجليزية تحت تأثير التعلم الجماعى و المكأفاة الشفهية.

من فضلك أجب على الأسئلة التالية بدقة قدر الإمكان.

س1

أحب الكتابة باللغة الإنجليزية لأنه من المهم ان أكتب جماعيا واتلقى المكافأة الشفهية.

ا- أبدا ☐

ب- نادرا ☐

ج- أحيانا ☐

د- غالبا ☐

ه- دائما ☐

س 2

أشعر بأنني سعيد جداعندما أكتب جماعيا و أتلقى المكافأة الشفهية.

-أبدا ☐

ب- نادرا ☐

ج- أحيانا ☐

د- غالبا ☐

ه- دائما ☐

س 3

أعتقد بأن مهارتي الكتابية في تطور عندما أكتب جماعيا و أتلقى المكافأة الشفهية.

- أبدا ☐

ب- نادرا ☐

ج- أحيانا ☐

د- غالبا ☐

ه- دائما ☐

س 4

أشعر بالملل عندما أكتب جماعيا وأتلقى المكافأة الشفهية.

- أبدا ☐
ب- نادرا ☐
ج- أحيانا ☐
د- غالبا ☐
ه- دائما ☐

س 5

عندما أكتب جماعيا وأتلقى المكافأة الشفهية أبدي إنتباها أكثر لدروس الكتابة.

- أبدا ☐
ب- نادرا ☐
ج- أحيانا ☐
د- غالبا ☐
ه- دائما ☐

س 6

عندما تكتب جماعيا وتتلقى المكافأة الشفهية ألا يكون من الصعب ان تكتب بالإنجليزية؟

- أبدا ☐
ب- نادرا ☐
ج- أحيانا ☐
د- غالبا ☐
ه- دائما ☐

س 7

عندما أكتب جماعيا وأتلقى المكافأة الشفهية أحب الكتابة باللغة الإنجليزية لأنني أهتم بالنشاط نفسه و ليس للحصول علي درجات.

- أبدا ☐
ب- نادرا ☐
ج- أحيانا ☐
د- غالبا ☐
ه- دائما ☐

س 8

عندما تكتب جماعيا و تتلقى المكافأة الشفهية هل تتمنى أن يكون لك حصص إضافية للكتابة؟

- أبدا ☐
ب- نادرا ☐
ج- أحيانا ☐
د- غالبا ☐
ه- دائما ☐

س 9

لا أحب الكتابة جماعيا و تلقي المكافأة الشفهية.

- أبدا ☐
ب- نادرا ☐
ج- أحيانا ☐
د- غالبا ☐
ه- دائما ☐

س 10

عندما أكتب جماعيا وأتلقى المكافأة الشفهية أحب الكتابة و أستاذ اللغة الإنجليزية.

- أبدا ☐

ب- نادرا ☐

ج- أحيانا ☐

د- غالبا ☐

ه- دائما ☐

شكرا لمشاركتكم.

ملخص

يعد الحافز الداخلي أحد العوامل المهمة فى الكتابة الناجحة، ولهذا يحتاج الأساتذة إلى توفير دوافع مناسبة لاحتياجات التلاميذ. ويعالج هذا البحث مشكلة عزوف التلاميذ عن الكتابة باللغة الإنجليزية. تتمثل النقطة الأساسية في استعمال المكافأة الشفهية كدافع خارجي و العمل الجماعي كدافع داخلى فى تعلم الكتابة. إذن الهدف الأساسى هو تحديد أثر إستعمال المكافأة الشفهية والعمل الجماعي على الدافعية الداخلية لتلاميذ السنة الأولى متوسط فى كتابة فقرة بمتوسطة عقبة إبن نافع بولاية ميلة. وينبني هذا البحث على الفرضية التالية: إذاعلّمنا الكتابة تحت شرطي العمل الجماعي والمكافأة الشفهية، سنزيد من الدافعية الداخلية للتلاميذ عند كتابة فقرة باللغة الإنجليزية. ولتحقيق هدف الدراسة اعتمدنا على إختبار المعرفة الذي يتمحور حول العمل الجماعي و إستبيان للأساتذة لاختيار أستاذ واحد لإجراء الملاحظة التي اعتمدت للحصول على نظرة جلية حول التلاميذ و أسئلة الدراسة. ولقد حولت الملاحظات الميدانية إلى إستمارات ملخص الإتصال واختيرت ثلاثة أسئلة مهمة للدراسة وهى: 1) من هم الأشخاص، وما هي الأحداث والحالات المدرجة في الدراسة؟ 2) ما هي المحاور و المسائل الأساسية في الدراسة؟ 3) ما هي الأسئلة المستهدفة، التأملات و الأفكار الجديدة المقترحة؟ أخيرا كان الهدف من الإستبيانين الموجهين للأساتذة و التلاميذ التأكد من صحة الفرضية. و قد بينت نتائج هذا البحث بأن التلاميذ الذين يكتبون تحت شرطي العمل الجماعي والمكافأة الشفهية أظهروا زيادة في دافعيتهم الداخلية لكتابة فقرات باللغة الإنجليزية. هذه النتيجة الإيجابية تعكس فعالية دمج المحفزات الداخلية و الخارجية كإستجابة لإحتياجات المتعلمين و المساعدة على وضع مقترحات متواضعة لمساعدة الأساتذة للحصول على نتائج فعالة عند تعليم الكتابة.

Résumé

Cette étude vise à résoudre les problèmes liés à la desaffection des élèves pour la production écrite en Anglais. L'idée centrale de l'étude est fondée sur l'usage de la récompense verbale comme facteur exogène d'une part et le travail collectif comme facteur endogène d'autre part dans l'apprentissage de la production écrite. Le but principal consiste à déterminer l'impact du recours aux deux facteurs pré-cités (la récompense verbale et le travail collectif) sur la motivation intrinsèque d'un groupe d'élèves du CEM Okba Ibn Nafaa de Télèghma , Mila qui ont été sollicités pour l'élaboration d'un paragraphe. Cette étude est basée sur le postulat suivant : l'apprentissage de l'écriture en fonction du facteur de la récompense verbale et de celui du travail collectif va accroitre la motivation intrinsèque des élèves pour la rédaction d'un paragraphe en Anglais. Pour atteindre l'objectif de cette étude, l'accent a été mis sur un test de connaissances qui s'articule autour d'un travail collectif ainsi que l'élaboration d'un questionnaire destiné aux enseignants. Les observations émises ont été transformées en un formulaire synthétique qui comprend selon Miles (1984) cinq questions dont trois d'entre elles ont été retenues car jugées nécessaires à la présente étude et qui sont : 1) Quels sont les sujets, les évènements et les situations qui font l'objet de cette étude ? 2) Quels sont les principaux thèmes et la problématique de l'étude ? 3) Quelles sont les questions visées, les impressions et les nouvelles idées proposées ? Les questionnaires destinés aux élèves et aux enseignants ont pour but de vérifier la validité du postulat de départ. Les résultats de l'étude ont montré que les élèves qui écrivent en fonction des deux facteurs sur-cités ont fait preuve d'un accroissement de leur motivation pour la rédaction des paragraphes en Anglais. Le résultat positif démontre l'efficacité de l'intégration des facteurs de stimulation endogènes et exogènes comme réponse aux

attentes des apprenants et permet de suggérer des pistes qui aideront les enseignants à réaliser des résultats probants dans l'apprentissage de l'expression écrite.