The Impact of Stability on Students’ Motivation
Teachers’ permanence as an Agent of Maintaining Interest
The Case Study of 1st & 2nd Year Students in Djemil El Arbi
Secondary School in Sédrata

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Magister Degree in Applied linguistics
and Foreign Language Teaching

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DEDICATION

To my Father and Mother
To my wife and son
To my Brothers and Sisters
To my closest Friends

To my colleagues at Farhat Abbes University
To all those who encouraged me, supported me, and prayed for me
To those who contributed in the elaboration of this modest work
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This study investigates and analyzes secondary school teachers and students’ perceptions of the teacher characteristics and its impact on students’ motivation. The investigation/analysis explores 27 teaching elements grouped under three major sections including teacher learner rapport, teacher personality and teacher teaching style. Participants for the study were selected through random sampling from four secondary schools in Sédrata-SoukAhras- at the end of the academic year 2009-2010. A total number of 200 participants was surveyed. The same questionnaire was administered to 21 secondary school teachers. The questionnaire has elicited the opinions of both students and teachers to find out which teaching practices both groups believe foster students’ motivation in the foreign language classroom. From the analysis, it is clear that students find teaching practices related to the teacher’s rapport and personality traits more motivating than those related to the teacher’s teaching style. Although teachers recognize rapport as a crucial factor, they place emphasis on their teaching style as a motivating element followed by characteristics related to personality traits. This therefore implies that motivating learners requires a teacher to strike a good balance between his teaching methodology and his personality characteristics.
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

L2: Second Language

FL: Foreign Language

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

SDT: Self Determination Theory

IM: Intrinsic Motivation

EM: Extrinsic Motivation

OIT: Organismic Integration Theory

EPLOC: External Perceived Locus of Control

LLM: language Learning Motivation

SLE: Second Language Education

SE: Socio-educational
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INTRODUCTION

1. Background of the Study

Learning English as a foreign language seems challenging, motivating and interesting at the same time for learners who come to the secondary school. Depending on what they have learnt previously in the middle school, learners feel more motivated and confident to perform better in the secondary school. In a teaching/learning environment, it is important to assist the learners to keep their motivation and efforts as driving forces to achieve their success.

Previous research has identified motivation as a determinant factor in learning a second or a foreign language. Motivation is a desire to achieve a goal, combined with the energy to work towards that goal. Many researchers consider motivation as one of the main elements that determine success in developing a second or a foreign language; “it determines the extent of active, personal involvement in L2 learning.” (Oxford & Shearin, 1994:12).

Indeed, secondary school teachers have noticed that the majority of pupils who come to the secondary school are highly interested and motivated to study English at least in their first year. Pupils do their best to speak and write the language through active participation in the class, doing homework and working on projects. Yet, with the passage to the second and third year, and with the involved changes, students start to lose this desire which fades away along their secondary course.

It is currently assumed that the success or failure in learning a foreign language depends on some fundamental factors such as: The learner’s social context, the learner’s personal characteristics, the learning process and conditions under which learning takes place.

Teaching English as a foreign language and as a compulsory curriculum subject in a non-supportive environment seems to depend very much on the didactic treatment applied by the teacher and the strategies and techniques employed in the classroom. Moreover, not only the didactic treatment in itself is important, the personal characteristics and personality traits of the person who applies that treatment in the classroom, his/her teaching style, attitudes and personal qualities are also of crucial importance.

feel loved, respected and secure and that they can achieve success by concentrating on
the teacher’s comprehensible input and tasks. Keeping motivation of students at a high
level. Offering a relaxing atmosphere for learning.”

views of good and bad language teachers and found out that “students like teachers to
be friendly, know how to treat them, be forceful but not strict, be educated, be funny,
believe in students, be proud of students, have a personality of their own, good advisers,
be experienced and dislike teachers to be very strict, too authoritarian, very serious,
bad tempered, talk too much, speak flat, distant from students, treat kids like objects,
be too sarcastic and ironic and make them feel anxious.”

We believe that all these attitudes-and others-towards the foreign language
teacher have a strong influence on the student’s motivational state because motivational
factors determine to a great extent the degree of learning success.

Research on the relationship between teachers’ characteristics and teachers’
effectiveness has recently gained ground among various educators and researchers. Yet,
huge efforts have been made in linking teacher quality with factors related to rapport
with learners, his/her personality and teaching style.

In spite of the acknowledged significance of teachers’ influence on learning,
studies on L2 motivation have not given enough thought to learner motivational change
in relation to teacher influence (Dörnyei, 1998). However, in the education friendly
orientation, SLE researchers have attempted to incorporate this teacher-specific factor
into the research. Dörnyei & Csizér (1998) investigated teachers’ interpretation of their
own impact on learner motivation and carried out a nation-wide survey study among
200 Hungarian teachers of English from diverse contexts to learn about their attitudes
toward various motivational techniques and the frequency with which they implemented
them in their own teaching practice. The results revealed that the participants considered
the teacher’s own behaviour to be the most important motivational factor. At the same
time, the study also showed that it is one of the most underused motivational resources
in their classroom practice.

By the same token, Chambers (1999, cited in Dörnyei, 2001) conducted research
employing questionnaires and interviews in a different context. He examined British
secondary school learners of German, and came to the conclusion that of all the possible
factors contributing to the students’ positive or negative appraisal of L2 learning,
teachers were the key. In other words, he arrived at the same conclusion as that of the Dörnyei and Csizér’s study.

Additionally, Dörnyei (1998) conducted research with 50 secondary school student participants identified as being demotivated by their teachers or peers, in various schools in Budapest, Hungary, studying German or English as an L2. He found that factors involving the teacher were most influential, especially when it came to teacher’s personality, commitment to the work, attention paid to the students, competence, teaching method, style, and rapport with students. Moreover, Dörnyei (1998) mentioned, although indirectly, that teacher dominance within a classroom could influence students’ declining motivation. This means that the teacher has undoubtedly something to do with the learners’ motivation.

More recently, Lantolf and Genung (2002, cited in Tanaka, T., 2005:54) conducted a case study of a graduate student learning Chinese as a foreign language in a summer intensive course. By analysing the learner’s diary and her retrospective written commentary, they found that the learner became demotivated because of the teacher’s authoritative use of power. Although the student completed the course and yielded to the teacher’s power by shifting her goals for learning the language in order to finish the course, the teacher did make a negative impact on her motivation.

In 2005, Ushioda carried out a study and investigated the role of students’ motivation and attitudes in second language (L2) study within an online language course context. Students’ attitudes and motivation were examined within a socioeducational framework while learning contexts were examined based on Dörneyi’s (1994a) components of foreign language learning motivation. The findings indicated that teachers can be influential in affecting students’ motivation and attitudes and in creating a learning community in which students can study a language with less anxiety.

Furthermore, the quality of learning engagement in the classroom does not depend on students’ cognitive abilities alone, but is also influenced by complex motivational and affective factors. Extensive research in the fields of L2 motivation and educational psychology has generated two important premises: first, the classroom environment is powerful in activating motivational beliefs of the students, which, in turn, affect their learning outcomes and second, teachers play a crucial role in creating motivating learning environments by employing a number of conscious and proactive motivational strategies (Dörnyei, 2001). Yet, recently, a number of motivational
researchers have highlighted the need to explore L2 motivation grounded in concrete classroom situations.

Significantly enough, research on student perceptions of teachers has revealed a range of preferred teacher qualities. Effective teachers have been perceived to be “human”, whilst also “professional”, and “subject centred as well as student centred” McCabe (1995, cited in Joan, S.B., Rhonda, O., David, H., Marilyn, P., Lynelle, W., 2008:30). Most of the research regarding the perception of the good teacher has pointed to two important components of the ideal teacher: “professional knowledge, both of the subject taught and of didactic knowledge and an appropriate personality” Arnon & Reichel, (2007, cited in Melek Ç, 2009:75).

All this suggests that teaching is a very important issue. From this point, it can be inferred that teachers have a crucial role in effective teaching and learning process. As mentioned in the study conducted by Rushton, Morgan & Richard (2007, cited in Melek Ç, 2009:75), “the single most important factor in determining student academic success is the classroom teacher.” Additionally, Patricia, Lori, and Glenda. (2011) stated “The conclusion that individual teachers can have profound influence on student learning even in schools that are relatively ineffective, was first noticed in the 1970’s, researchers Jere Brophy and Thomas Good (1986) commented: “The myth that teachers do not make a difference in student learning has been refuted” (P: 3). Put another way, factors affecting the learning of students are cumbersome and complex. However, the teacher stands as one of the most crucial factors influencing the learning of students. “Teachers have a powerful, long-lasting influence on their students. They directly affect how students learn, what they learn, how much they learn, and the ways they interact with one another and the world around them. Considering the degree of teacher’s influence, we must understand what teachers should do to promote positive results in the lives of students with regard to school achievement, positive attitudes towards school, interest in learning, and other desirable outcomes. (William & Burden, 1997: ix).

Introduction

Research has heavily concentrated on motivation and recently motivational research has shifted focus to include the crucial role of the teacher and the various practices and strategies that he or she uses to motivate learners to learn the language. In this way, Bernaues has claimed “Even though a considerable amount of research on student affective variables has been accomplished, to date, relatively little research has
been carried out on the factors that might affect students’ motivation, such as the teacher.” (1995:11). Much more recently, motivational research has placed much emphasis on data gathered from both teachers and learners to have a full view of the teaching and learning process of the language. The present study aims to provide some insights into how the students and teachers perceive the important teacher factors and characteristics that influence students’ motivation in learning English. Their perceptions function as a mirror that can be used by both teachers and students to reflect upon their learning and teaching, hence enhancing their understanding of teaching and increasing its outcome.

Teachers do their best and maximize their efforts to motivate learners to learn the language. Conversely, learners seem unmotivated and rather lose interest for learning. Thus, an investigation of their teaching and learning classroom context is an inevitable task.

2. Statement of the Problem

During our few years of experience in teaching E.F.L as a secondary school teacher, we have noticed that the majority of first year learners come with high interest and motivation to study the English language but they don’t maintain their interest and motivation for the next two years.

Secondary school teachers have noticed as well that these learners lose interest in studying English in the second and third year and forget about all what they have already learnt. In line with this, Lumsden (1994) has stated that as children grow their interest in and passion for learning deteriorates. Teachers have also encountered pupils with a considerable lack of motivation, especially when dealing with topics demanding more explanation and practice due to their extensiveness and importance. Pupils lose their motivation, which becomes a serious learning handicap, particularly at the expense of the desire to acquire permanent knowledge. Pupils are not motivated, and teachers find themselves at a loss for ways of stirring up their motivation. In the same vein, Martin Lamb (2008:1) has cited that “Most teachers recognize that motivation ebbs and flows, in classes as well as in individuals.” Pintrich (2003, cited in Martin, L., 2008:2) has made it clear, the overall direction is downward: “Over the course of the school years, student motivation on the average declines or becomes less adaptive, with a large drop as students enter the junior high school or middle school years”. Very recently, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) cited “when we talk about sustained long-term activities such as learning a foreign language, motivation does not remain constant during the
course of months, years or even during a single lesson. It ebbs and flows in complex ways in response to various internal and external influences.”(P: 14).

Then, one would question what might be the possible reasons behind such a decline in our students’ interest to learn English. What could be done so as to keep our second and third year secondary students as motivated as they used to be in their first year?

It is accepted for most fields of learning that motivation is essential to success and we have to want to do something to succeed at it. Without such motivation we will certainly fail to make the necessary effort. If motivation is so important, therefore, it makes sense to try and develop our understanding of it and more importantly of the teacher’s role in motivating students.

Generally speaking, in a foreign language learning context, the language is taught in school just for a few hours a week, and has no status as a daily medium of communication. Therefore, classroom experience will be one of the influential determinants for the quality of learners’ learning experience, which in turn will affect their motivation. The teacher is the prime source of the new language, in contrast with the natural setting where exposure is often genuinely situational. In line with this, Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier and Ryan (1991) have stated that it is the responsibility of teachers and the school to provide the atmosphere in which motivation can flourish. “Ideal school systems are ones that succeed in promoting in students a genuine enthusiasm for learning and accomplishment and a sense of volitional involvement in the educational enterprise.” (P: 325). Nakata (2006) is of the opinion that “The teacher is the one who is responsible for creating the appropriate learning environment and for continuously making efforts to create better learning environment.”(P: 18). Indeed, the teacher is “a complex and key figure who influences the motivational quality of learning” Dörnyei (2001a, cited in Tanaka, T., 2005:52), and “plays a pivotal role in mediating the growth of motivation” (Ushioda, 2003: 96).

Learning is facilitated when a close, positive relationship exists between teacher and pupil. Sometimes this relation becomes so intense that it resembles to the identification phenomenon that brings a boy to emulate characteristics of his father, or a girl to imitate her mother. Pupils who identify with their teacher not only adopt his mannerisms, and speech, and feel a desire to be close to him, they also work hard to follow his directions to be good members of his group and to earn and deserve his respect. In accordance with this, Yang, Y. (2008) has stated “In the development of
teacher-student rapport, various learning experiences occur and these positive/negative experiences have strong impacts on students who develop their interest and confidence because they are appreciated by the language teacher rather than feeling frustrated and discouraged due to failure and humiliation as language learning is a ‘soft and slippery area.” (P: 97).

The attitude of a pupil towards his teacher can also hamper the learning process. If a pupil hates his teacher, or is irritated by his teacher’s voice or some mannerisms, he may really be unable to perform at his optimum level. As Pine and Boy (1997, cited in Xu and Huang, 2010:192-193) have expressed that “pupils feel the personal emotional structure of the teacher long before they feel the impact of the intellectual content offered by that teacher.” This means that teachers’ performance at class will give an influence for their students.

Gardner (1985) has also considered the importance of the attitudes of students towards the course and their language teachers. He has noted that because “the language teacher would be regarded as the focus of the language, it is reasonable to assume that the teacher was the only language user they knew and the only place they possibly use the language would be the classroom. Consequently, the course and the teacher can become closely associated with the language material, and attitudes towards them could thus become highly influential. In contrast, in other subject areas, the material has some link with the individual’s own culture; hence, the course and the teacher are not the only focuses” (Gardner, 1985:7).

Moreover, “Students’ own views of their schooling are important as they impact on their lives” Krueger (1997, cited in Joan, S.B et al, 2008:30). Their views can also give teachers and teacher educators a better understanding of preferred teacher characteristics, teaching styles and schooling experiences. Equally important, “Teacher behaviours have significant bearing on students’ motivation, goal setting, selection of learning strategies or interest in the course” Wang, Gibson & Slate (2007, cited in Joan, S.B et al, 2008:30). Effects on students resulting from teacher behaviour can be positive or negative. “Students can blossom or wither because of the affects, behaviours, and methods of a particular teacher” Wang et al, (2007, cited in Joan, S.B.et al, 2008:30). In addition, teacher behaviours can affect student motivation and interest in a subject or course and their approach to learning (Wang et al, 2007).

It follows from this that the quality of learning engagement in the classroom does not depend on students’ cognitive abilities alone, but is also influenced by complex
motivational and affective factors as it has been previously mentioned. Significantly enough, Williams and Burden (1997) noted that “All learners are likely to be influenced by their personal feelings about their teachers. Their perceptions of their teachers and of the interactions that occur between them affect their motivation to learn” (P: 133). Therefore, we can hypothesize that there is a strong link between learners’ motivation and their teacher’s influence. In other words, external factors such as: teacher’s rapport with pupils, his/her personality and teaching style seem to have a great impact on learners’ motivation. That is, Learners would feel motivated to study the English language if teachers have/owe good motivational components such as: teacher’s rapport, personality and teaching style.

So it appears to be important to discover what teacher characteristics suit pupils to motivate them to learn the English language as well as to understand what profile they expect in a competent teacher. This thesis represents an effort in this direction.

3. Aim of the Study

For many years, educators and researchers have debated which teacher-specific characteristics influence students’ motivation. A great deal of suggestions in this field has been made so as to reach a better and effective educational outcome. Since classroom learning climate is based on interaction, it is of great importance to account for which teacher characteristics are more influential than others in terms of rapport building with learners, personality traits, and the teaching style on learners’ motivation.

It is a well established belief that motivation is one of the most important factors in language learning. That is why teachers of foreign languages have always attempted to find new approaches or strategies that introduce practical uses of EFL in the classroom. “Motivation provides the primary impetus to initiate learning foreign language and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process. Without sufficient motivation, even individuals with the most remarkable abilities cannot accomplish long-term goals, and neither are appropriate curricula and good teaching enough to ensure students achievement. On the other hand, high motivation can make up for considerable deficiencies both in one’s language aptitude and learning conditions” (Zoltan Dörnyei, 1998: 117).

The primary concern of this research is to investigate and elicit the opinions of both teachers and learners about the influence of some teacher practices which are related to the teacher’s external factors namely: rapport with pupils, personal traits and
teaching style that will influence on their motivation. In attempting to investigate these factors, this study raises several interrelated research questions.

4. Research Questions

In connection with the aim of this study, we have addressed the following research questions.

a. Which teacher’s characteristics are the most influencing ones on learners’ motivation?

b. Which teacher’s characteristics are seen as the least motivating ones by learners?

c. Which teacher’s factor is the most important one for learners amongst the three?

d. Does learners’ level of study stand as a criterion to affect their opinions about which teachers’ factor is the most important one?

e. Which level of study that most strongly influences learners’ motivation?

f. What teachers’ factor is perceived as the most motivating one by teachers?

g. What teachers’ characteristics are perceived as the most motivating ones by teachers?

h. What teachers’ characteristics are perceived as the least motivating ones by teachers?

i. How do teachers and pupils’ perceptions of teacher’s factor compare?

j. How do teachers and pupils’ perceptions of teachers’ most important characteristics compare?

k. How do teachers and pupils’ perceptions of teachers’ least important characteristics compare?

5. Significance of the Study

The underlying objectives of this study are to identify the qualities in teachers which the students prefer to help secondary school teachers gain valuable insights into improving their teaching effectiveness and emphasize to teachers that they can influence students learning and motivation by their teaching approach and characters. The study is also intended to contribute to the growing literature on effective teaching methodologies and teacher characteristics.

It is proposed in the present study that the classroom climate influenced by the teacher has a major impact on pupils’ motivation and attitude towards learning, that is to say, for teachers, being equipped with pedagogical and professional characteristics would not be adequate enough to establish a positive, learnable, and teachable classroom climate that impacts on learners’ motivation to learn. Besides, teachers
should be aware of personal characteristics and how they are important to students’ motivation and interest in learning the English language. More specifically, “the characteristics that best facilitate student learning and increase their motivation are considered to be the ones that are described as being kind, friendly, honest, tolerant, helpful, patient, and seldom shows nervousness and anger”. Aksoy (1998, cited in Yu-Jung Chen & Shih-Chung Lin, 2009:226).

Such a climate boosts learning and motivation of students and their attitudes towards learning process. Furthermore, Research indicates that certain personality characteristics influence student evaluations of teachers. “From the students’ points of view, teacher-expressive characteristics such as warmth, enthusiasm, and extroversion apparently separate effective from ineffective teachers” (Basow, 2000; Basow & Silberg, 1987; Best &Addison, 2000; Bousfield, 1940; Cravens, 1996; Feldman, 1986; Guerrero & Miller, 1998; Marsh & Roche, 1997; Radmacher & Martin, 2001, cited in Arbuckle, Julianne; Williams& Benne D.,2003:507).

6. Organization of the Dissertation

This thesis comprises three chapters along with a bibliography and some appendixes at the end. The first chapter succinctly introduces the background of the present study, the statement of the problem, the aim of the study and its significance, and a number of research questions. The limitations of the study and the research methodology are added. The chapter introduces as well a brief review of Krashen’s affective filter hypothesis and the role of affect in language learning. Then, motivation will be defined and its sources will be described. Following this part, the different theories of motivation will be explored.

The second chapter briefly deals with motivation in the classroom context. The major issues presented in this chapter, in more details, are: the factors affecting learners’ motivation such as: teacher rapport with learners, teacher personality and his or her teaching style and their implications on learners’ leaning and motivation.

The third chapter brings out the research design and methodology of the present study which describes the criteria of sampling, instrumentation, List of secondary schools selected for investigation, data collection procedures and a number of recommendations and suggestions for future research are recommended. At the end of the thesis, a bibliography and some appendixes are placed.
7. Research Methodology

The nature of the research, the sample under investigation and the collected data determine the use of a specific method. Concerning our research, the descriptive method seems to be the relevant one. The main investigation is carried out through a questionnaire. The questionnaire consists of twenty seven statements grouped under three sections. These three sections are teacher learner rapport, teacher personality and teacher style. Second and third year secondary school students for the academic year 2009-2010 have been chosen to be the population of the study. The questionnaire for the investigation was administered to 200 participants who accepted to answer the questionnaire. The same questionnaire has been distributed to 21 secondary school teachers. The crucial aim behind the administration of both questionnaires is to elicit the opinions of both teachers and learners about the role that teacher characteristics play in motivating their learners to engage in the learning of the English language and to establish a baseline for suggesting recommendations.

7.1. Scope of the Study

This study is about learners’ and teachers’ perceptions of the use of certain teacher practices that are related to rapport building with learners, personality traits and the teaching style and their implications on learners’ motivation.

7.2. Population and Sampling

The sample population concerns second and third year learners of English at four secondary schools which are as follows: Elarbi Djemil, Ali Ben Dada, Redjaimia Alawa and Salhi Athmen. A number of 50 students was surveyed from each school. The student participants in this study were enrolled in two different levels. Pupils from Ali Ben dada and Salhi Athmen were enrolled in the second year while students from Elarbi Djemil and Redjaimia Allawa were enrolled in the third year. The main reason behind including two different levels is to check if learners’ level could be considered as a criterion and impacts on learners’ perception of teacher’s motivating characteristics. The sample study is chosen randomly from the whole secondary schools population.

7.3 Limitation of the Study

The results obtained do not seek any generalization because they concern the study of the sample under investigation. A more sizeable sampling in terms of teachers or learners may lead to other findings. We are perfectly aware that other factors such as: classroom management, allocated time for each language /subject matter, teachers’ motivation, the over importance of the content subjects may interfere and influence on
learners’ perception of the teacher motivating practices. So the case study results are not generalizable but may be so only if we have accumulated sufficient amount of other results in other researches conducted under the same circumstances.

In fact, there were four main limitations to the current study. The first is that the study was conducted at four secondary schools. Gathering data from multiple secondary schools would provide a larger sample variety in order to get more data to answer the research questions. The small number (N=200) of respondents represents another potential limitation of the study. Had more students responded, the population of foreign language students would have been better represented. Moreover, few teachers responded to the survey, especially in comparison to the numbers of student respondents. It is difficult to predict how the results might have differed if teachers had been better represented. The final limitation to the study is that data were collected from students enrolled in two different levels.
CHAPTER ONE:  
THEORETICAL ISSUES ABOUT MOTIVATION

1. Introduction

This chapter will begin with a brief review about the role of affect in language learning and Krashen’s affective filter hypothesis. Then, motivation will be defined and its sources will be described. Following this part, the different theories of motivation will be explored to have a global view of motivational theories and concepts. Key concepts are described with reference to the different theories of motivation that endeavoured to explain this crucial component in individuals’ behaviour and actions.

2. The Role of Affect in Language Learning

It is well known among second (L2) or foreign language (FL) teachers and researchers as well that affective variables are no less important than cognitive ones in L2 learning. Affective aspects of Foreign Language learning are a complex area whose importance is now well established. The number of affective learner factors considered in research is on the increase. New learner emotional characteristics are emerging as potentially important in order to understand and explain the process of language learning. They were more difficult to define and measure because they seemed to be more elusive as constructs. “Concepts like attitudes, motivation and anxiety were not considered to be important at all. Today, much of this has changed, and one sometimes gets the impression that affective variables are considered to be the only important ones” (Gardner, 2001:1). In the same respect, Bernaus has stated “A considerable amount of research has been directed at investigating the influence of student affective variables with respect to both on second or foreign language acquisition and their interaction with cognitive variables. Among others, attitudinal and motivational variables in second or foreign language acquisition have been identified as relevant factors and as predictors of students’ language achievement.” (1995:11). In a similar way, Bernaus (2010) has indicated that interest in affective factors in education is not new. According to him, it was already implicit in the writings of Dewey, Montessori, and Vygotsky in the first part of the 20th century, and it gained importance with the growth of the humanistic psychology. Significantly enough, Eccles, wigfield, and schiefele (1998, cited in Dörnyei, 2000:520) have stated “As we approach the 21st century, the role of the affect and less conscious processes is reemerging as a central theme. Complementing this more complex view of the psychology of motivation,
researchers interested in the contextual influences on motivation are also adopting more complex and multicontextual frameworks.”

Yet, interest in the affective aspects of learning was prompted, among other things, when it was realized that the whole personality of the learner needs to be involved in education and that learners do not automatically develop emotionally as they may intellectually. Affect came to be considered as a very important contributing factor to success in learning. Some even went so far as to stress that affect was more important than cognitive learner abilities because without, say, motivation to learn cognitive learner abilities would not even start to be engaged in the process of learning. The best known theoretical proposal has been Krashen’s affective filter.

3. Krashen’s Affective Filter Hypothesis and Affect in Language Learning

In his theory of second language acquisition, Krashen (1985a) proposed the affective filter hypothesis. This hypothesis stipulates that motivation is one of the affective variables that play a facilitative, but non-causal role in second language acquisition. Krashen (1985b) claims that students with high motivation and low anxiety are better disposed to acquire a second language. However, low motivation and high anxiety can all together raise the affective filter and lead into a “mental block” that prevents “comprehensible input” from being used for acquisition. In other words, when the filter is “up,” it makes the individual unreceptive to language input and hinders language acquisition.

Hence, what one concludes is that affect does play a very important role in second language acquisition. It needs to be taken into consideration by L2 teachers and they have to make sure that the learner’s affective filter is low at all times in order for proper learning to take place.

4. Definition of Motivation

Although the word “motivation” might appear simple and easy, it is in fact very difficult to define. In the literature on motivation, very rarely is one single, integrated definition of motivation included. Thus, it seems to have been impossible for theorists to reach consensus on a single definition. “Motivation, like the concept of gravity, is easier to describe (in terms of its outward, observable effects) than it is to define. Of course, this has not stopped people from trying it.” Martin Covington (1998, cited in Dörnyei, 2001:7). “I begin by making the obvious observation that motivation is a very complex phenomenon with many facets.”(Gardner, 2007: 10). Zimmerman & Schunk (2001) have stated that “The issue of motivation is a complex one that must be
considered at several levels.” (P: 23). Very simply, “Motivation cannot be explained by a single definition. Because of the complexity in defining the term, there has been a paradigm shift in our understanding of motivation over the last 50 years.” (Nakata, 2006: 24).

According to Gardner (1985), motivation is concerned with the question, “Why does an organism behave as it does?” Moreover, “motivation involves four aspects: a goal, an effort, a desire to attain the goal, and a favorable attitude towards the activity in question” (Gardner, 1985:50). Motivation is also defined as “the impetus to create and sustain intentions and goal seeking acts” Ames & Ames (1989, cited in Ngeow, 1998:1). It is important because it “determines the extent of the learner’s active involvement and attitude toward learning” (Ngeow, 1998: 1). Interestingly, many researchers consider motivation as one of the main elements that determine success in developing a second or a foreign language. According to Oxford and Shearin (1994), motivation determines the extent of active, personal involvement in L2 learning. In Pintrich and Schunk’s view, motivation involves various mental processes that lead to the initiation and maintenance of action; as they define it, “Motivation is the process whereby goal-directed activity is instigated and sustained” (1996, cited in Dörnyei, 1998:122).

Dörnyei comments, “Although ‘motivation’ is a term frequently used in both educational and research contexts, it is rather surprising how little agreement there is in the literature with regard to the exact meaning of the concept” (1998:117). Researchers still do not agree on its components and the different roles that these components play. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) point out that, even though almost every text has a chapter on motivation, it is used more as a general catch-all rather than a precise construct. McDonough (1981, cited in Faris K., 2009) refers to the term ironically, calling it a dustbin that is used to “include a number of possibly distinct components, each of which may have different origins and different effects and require different classroom treatment”.

Dörnyei (2001:9) argues that “motivation is indeed an umbrella-term involving a wide range of different factors”. According to him, this explains why researchers disagree about everything that relates to the concept of motivation; spending huge efforts in the past to reduce the multitude of potential determinants of human behaviour by identifying a relatively small number of key variables that would explain a significant proportion of the variance in people’s action. Heckhausen (1991, cited in
Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998:64) sees motivation as “a global concept for a variety of processes and effects whose common core is the realisation that an organism selects a particular behaviour because of expected consequences, and then implements it with some measure of energy, along a particular path”. Weinstein, C.E., Husman, J., & Dierking, D.R (2000, cited in Yunbao, Y., Huaying, Huaying Z., & Jianghui, W., 2009:89) provided similar features for motivation. In their terms, motivation has the key features of being: “goal directed”; “intentionally invoked”; and “effort demanding”. Similarly, Dörnyei & Ottó (1998) noted that people may have a variety of wishes, hopes and desires which remain “day dreams” unless the people are motivated to convert the dreams into realities. “In a general sense, motivation can be defined as the dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritised, operationalised and (successfully or un successfully ) acted out”(P:65). Dörnyei (2001) later described how desires are converted into goals then into intentions before accomplishment of the goal and finally the achievement is evaluated. Dörnyei (2001) highlighted the importance of effort on the part of the language learner, noting that in the classroom all have an equal chance to succeed in learning language and those who are successful expend effort in doing so. He also noted there was a potential negative side to emphasize language aptitude.

Other L2 motivation researchers provide an elaborate definition of motivation, “Motivation may be construed as a state of cognitive and emotional arousal, which leads to a conscious decision to act, and which gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort in order to attain a previously set goal (or goals)” (Williams & Burden, 1997 cited in Dörnyei, 1998:126). Motivation is also defined as “the process that initiates, directs and sustains behavior to satisfy physiological and psychological needs” Arkes (1981, cited in Zuria M., & Mohammed Y., 2007:94).Very recently, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) stated that “The word motivation derives from the Latin verb movere meaning ‘to move’. What moves a person to make certain choices, to engage in action, to expend effort and persist in action – such basic questions lie at the heart of motivation theory and research”. They added that “these deceptively simple questions have generated a wealth of theory and research over the decades, provoked considerable debate and disagreement among scholars, spawned numerous theoretical models encompassing different variables and different understandings of the construct of motivation, and produced few clear straightforward answers.”(P: 11).
Furthermore, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) define the term motivation as follows: “Perhaps the only thing about motivation most researchers would agree on is that it, by definition, concerns the direction and magnitude of human behaviour, that is: the choice of a particular action, the persistence with it, the effort expended on it. In other words, motivation is responsible for why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity, how hard they are going to pursue it.” (P: 12).

Finally, we come to the conclusion that although the concept of motivation has received a myriad of definitions due to the absence of a universal consensus, many researchers acknowledge it as one of the key predictors of success in second/foreign language learning and that large quantity of research has been carried out in order to probe what constitutes motivation and how it functions. Despite the fact that there is a discrepancy amongst them regarding exactly what encompasses motivation but by basing ourselves on the preceding definitions, we can come up with the following: motivation involves a goal, an effort, a desire, energy, active involvement, and persistence.

5. Sources of Motivation

The role of motivation in explaining people’s behaviours and actions is undeniable as all researchers and scholars agree about the crucial importance of motivation. Gardner (2001) states that “There is considerable interest today in the notion of motivation to learn a second or foreign language, but it wasn’t always this way.” (P: 1). However, what researchers and scholars seem to disagree about are the sources of motivation, its mechanisms, its aspects, and how to promote it. The reason behind this disagreement lies in the fact that human behaviour is of such a complexity and instability resulting from the influence of surrounding factors. In this vein, Dörnyei (2001) states that human behaviour is very complex, influenced by a great number of factors ranging from basic physical needs through well-being needs to higher level values and beliefs. In a similar vein, Dörnyei (2001) adds “The term ‘motivation’ is a convenient way of talking about a concept which is generally seen as a very important human characteristic but which is also immensely complex.” (P: 6).

Intrinsic motivation deals with acts or behaviour performed to experience pleasure or satisfying one’s curiosity, whereas extrinsic motivation involves a behaviour to receive some extrinsic reward (e.g.-good grades, employment) or to avoid punishment and it can serve as an interim source of motivation for a demotivated learner. A student who is intrinsically motivated undertakes an activity “for its own sake, for the enjoyment it provides, the learning it permits, or the feelings of accomplishment it evokes” Mark Lepper (1988, cited in lumsden, 1994:1). Interestingly, Ryan & Deci (2000) consider intrinsic motivation as the most important kind and point out that “intrinsic motivation is defined as the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfaction rather than for some separable consequence” (P: 56). Furthermore, according to Littlejohn (2001): While teachers and school systems have drawn on both of the first two sources of motivation, the third source is perhaps under-exploited in language teaching. This is the simple fact of success, and the effect that this has on our view of what we do. As human beings, we generally like what we do well, and are therefore more likely to do it again, and put in more effort ... In the classroom, this can mean that students who develop an image of themselves as ‘no good at English’ will simply avoid situations which tell them what they already know – that they aren’t any good at English. Feelings of failure, particularly early on in a student’s school career, can therefore lead to a downward spiral of a self-perception of low ability – low motivation – low effort – low achievement – low motivation – low achievement, and so on. (P: 3).

6. Theories of Motivation

The long history of motivation research has witnessed the development of many motivation theories, each of which has been put forward in an attempt to define motivation, and all of them describe motivation as complex construct. Each theory, however, considers motivation from a different perspective as it seeks to provide a comprehensive description of this phenomenon. Furthermore, each of these approaches presents a number of concepts that are related in one way or another to motivation, and very often, the same concept or component is found under more than one approach. This is, in fact, evident that no single approach to motivation can provide a full image of what motivation is because of its multidimensionality. In this respect, Robert Hogan (2004) says “Despite the importance of motivational terms for explaining social behavior, the concept of motivation is badly muddled.”(P: 6).

Motivation has been explained in terms of different theories: the behavioral, cognitive, cognitive developmental, achievement motivation, psychoanalytic,
humanistic, social cognition and transpersonal/spiritual theories. In our study, we limit ourselves only to the most common ones.

6.1. Behavioral Theories

According to the behaviorists, motivation is explained in terms of external stimuli and reinforcement. The physical environment and actions of the teacher are of prime importance. For instance, if the teacher compliments a student for a good comment during a discussion, there is more of a chance that the teacher will hear comments from the student more often in the future. Three theories fall under the umbrella of the behavioral. Firstly, the Classical Conditioning (Pavlov). This theory states that biological responses to associated stimuli energize and direct behaviour. Secondly, we have Instrumental/Operant Learning (Skinner). This theory states that the primary factor is consequences: reinforcers are incentives to increase behaviour and punishers are disincentives that result in a decrease in behaviour. Thirdly, Observational/Social Learning (Bandura). This theory suggests that modeling (imitating others) and vicarious learning (watching others have consequences applied to their behaviour) are important motivators of behaviour. In this vein, Peter Mortimore (1993) states “American research on learning theory has long been much influenced by behaviourism. Work by psychologists such as Thorndike (1898), Skinner (1938) and Hull (1952) and social theorists such as Bandura (1974) has contributed to the view that learning can occur simply as a result of a response to a particular stimulus.”(P: 292). Weiner (1990) points out that behavioral theories tend to focus on extrinsic motivation (rewards) whereas cognitive theories deal with intrinsic motivation.

6.2. Humanistic Theories of Motivation

Humanists stress the need for personal growth. They place a great deal of emphasis on the total learner. They also maintain that learners need to be empowered and have control over the learning process. The teacher becomes a facilitator. Three theories fall under the umbrella of the “humanistic” theories of learning. These are:

6.2.1. Hierarchy of Human Needs (Maslow, 1954) the best-known humanistic theory of motivation. It is based on two groupings: deficiency needs and growth needs. Within the deficiency needs, each lower need must be met before moving to the next higher level. The first four levels (Deficiency Needs) are: Physiological. Hunger, thirst, bodily comforts, etc.; Safety/Security. Out of danger; Belonging and Love. Affiliate with others, be accepted; and Esteem. To achieve, be competent, gain approval and recognition.
Therefore, according to Maslow, an individual is ready to act upon the growth needs if and only if the deficiency needs are met. The remaining four levels (Growth Needs) are: Cognitive. To know, to understand, and explore; Aesthetic. Symmetry, order, and beauty; Self-Actualization. To find self-fulfillment and realize one’s potential; selfactualized people are characterized by: Being problem-focused; Appreciating life; Showing concern about personal growth; Showing ability to have peak experiences. Transcendence. To help others find self-fulfillment and realize their potential. The essence of the hierarchy is the notion of “pre-potency”, which means that you are not going to be motivated by any higher-level needs until your lower level ones have been satisfied.

6.2.2. Hierarchy of Motivational Needs (Alderfer, 1972)

Maslow recognized that not all personalities followed his proposed hierarchy. While a variety of personality dimensions might be considered as related to motivational needs, one of the most often cited is that of introversion and extroversion.

Reorganizing Maslow’s hierarchy based on the work of Alderfer and considering the introversion/extroversion dimension of personality results in three levels, each with an introverted and extroverted component. This organization suggests that there may be two aspects of each level that differentiate how people relate to each set of needs. Different personalities might relate more to one dimension than the other. For example, an introvert at the level of other/Relatedness might be more concerned with his or her own perceptions of being included in a group, whereas an extrovert at that same level would pay more attention to how others value that membership.

6.2.3. The Self Determination Theory (SDT)

The self-determination theory is one of the most influential theories in motivational psychology (Dörnyei, 2001b, 2003, 2005). The theory distinguishes between two kinds of motivations: intrinsic and extrinsic. The first refers to an individual’s motivation to perform a particular activity because of internal rewards such as joy, pleasure and satisfaction of curiosity. Whereas in extrinsic motivation the individual expects an extrinsic reward such as good grades or praise from others.

According to this theory, external regulation refers to actions that individuals pursue and that are determined by sources that are external to the individual, such as tangible benefits and costs. If learning the language is made for such an external incentive and this incentive is removed the activity of learning will halt. The second, less external regulation, is introjected regulation, which refers to activities performed
due to some external pressure that the individual has incorporated into the self. This is still not a self-determined activity since it has an external rather than an internal source. For example, a person who learns the language in order not to feel ashamed if he does not know it. At the end of the continuum, resides the identified regulation. Individuals who possess such a regulation are driven by personally relevant reasons in which the activity is important for achieving a valued goal.

Recently, Noels (2000) and her colleagues, referring to Vallerand (1997) and later works by Vallerand and colleagues, classify the two types of motivations, within education, into different categories. The intrinsic motivation (IM) could be one of three kinds: IM-Knowledge (the pleasure of knowing new things), IM-Accomplishment (the pleasure of accomplishing goals), and IM-Stimulation (the pleasure sensed when doing the task).

Another concept that is fundamental to the self-determination theory is the concept of amotivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000:237). Amotivation, or learned helplessness, is the situation in which people lack the intention to behave. They see no relation between the efforts they make and the outcomes they get. This happens when they lack self efficacy or a sense of control on the desired outcome.

6.2.3.1. The Dichotomy of Intrinsic Motivation versus Extrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic and extrinsic types of motivation have been widely studied, and the distinction between them has shed important light on both developmental and educational practices. In our study, we revisit the classic definitions of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in light of contemporary research and theory. Intrinsic motivation remains an important construct, reflecting the natural human propensity to learn and assimilate. However, extrinsic motivation is argued to vary considerably in its relative autonomy and thus can either reflect external control or true self-regulation. The relations of both classes of motives to basic human needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness are also discussed.

According to the SDT, to be motivated means to be moved to do something. A person who feels no impetus or inspiration to act is thus characterized as unmotivated, whereas someone who is energized or activated towards an end is considered motivated. Everyone who works or is in contact with others is concerned with motivation. How much motivation every person has for a task and how to foster it is a question that practitioners face. In fact, People have not only different amounts, but also different kinds of motivation. That is, they vary not only in level of motivation (i.e., how much
motivation), but also in the orientation of that motivation (i.e., what type of motivation). Orientation of motivation concerns the underlying attitudes and goals that give rise to action—that is, it concerns the why of actions. In accordance with the theory, this can be well exemplified as follows: a student can be highly motivated to do homework out of curiosity and interest or, alternatively, because he or she wants to procure the approval of a teacher or parent. A student could be motivated to learn a new set of skills because he or she understands their potential utility or value or because learning the skills will yield a good grade and the privileges a good grade affords. In these examples, the amount of motivation does not necessarily vary, but the nature and focus of the motivation being evidenced certainly does.

Under the Self-Determination Theory Deci & Ryan (2000) distinguish between different types of motivation based on the different reasons or goals that give rise to an action. However, the most crucial distinction is between intrinsic motivation, which refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable, and extrinsic motivation, which refers to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome.

6.2.3.1. a. Intrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic motivation (IM) is defined as “the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfactions rather than for some separable consequence” (Ryan & Deci, 2000:56). This means that the intrinsically motivated person is moved to act for something without any external pressures or rewards.

According to White(1959,cited in Ryan & Deci, 2000:56) “The phenomenon of intrinsic motivation was first acknowledged within experimental studies of animal behaviour, where it was discovered that many organisms engage in exploratory, playful, and curiosity-driven behaviors even in the absence of reinforcement or reward”.

“In humans, intrinsic motivation is not the only form of motivation, or even of volitional activity, but it is a pervasive and important one. From birth onward, humans, in their healthiest states, are active, inquisitive, curious, and playful creatures, displaying a ubiquitous readiness to learn and explore, and they do not require extraneous incentives to do so” (Ryan & Deci, 2000:56). This means that when someone acts on his or her inherent interests that person develops in terms of knowledge and skills.

Although, in one sense, intrinsic motivation exists within individuals, in another sense intrinsic motivation exists in the relation between individuals and activities.
People are intrinsically motivated for some activities and not others, and not everyone is intrinsically motivated for any particular task.

Ryan & Deci (2000) have stated that because intrinsic motivation exists in the relation between a person and a task, some authors have defined intrinsic motivation in terms of the task being interesting while others have defined it in terms of the satisfactions a person gains from intrinsically motivated task engagement. In part, these different definitions derive from the fact that the concept of intrinsic motivation was proposed as a critical reaction to the behavioral theories which have already been mentioned and which were dominant in empirical psychology from the 1940s to the 1960s and which have maintained that all behaviors are motivated by rewards (i.e., by separable consequence such as food or money), intrinsically motivated activities were said to be ones for which the reward was in the activity itself. Thus, researchers investigated what task characteristics make an activity interesting. In contrast, because learning theory asserted that all behaviors are motivated by physiological drives (and their derivatives), intrinsically motivated activities were said to be ones that provided satisfaction of innate psychological needs. Thus, researchers explored what basic needs are satisfied by intrinsically motivated behaviors.

The approach of the SDT focuses primarily on psychological needs—namely, the innate needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness—but at the same time it recognize that basic need satisfaction accrues in part from engaging in interesting activities. This is the reason why, they speak of intrinsically interesting activities and tasks that many people find to be intrinsically interesting. The theory states that there is considerable practical utility in focusing on task properties and their potential intrinsic interest, as it leads toward improved task design or selection to enhance motivation.

6.2.3.1. b. Extrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic motivation (EM) is a second form of motivation set by the Self-Determination Theory. Although intrinsic motivation is clearly an important type of motivation, most of the activities people do are not, strictly speaking, intrinsically motivated.

Ryan and Deci (2000:60) identify extrinsic motivation as “a construct that pertains whenever an activity is done in order to attain some separable outcome”. That is, this type of motivation is very often related to the presence of external factors. Extrinsic motivation thus contrasts with intrinsic motivation, which refers to doing an activity simply for the enjoyment of the activity itself, rather than its instrumental value.
Yet, viewing extrinsic motivation from this angle may mean that the autonomy component is rather absent from this type of motivation. However, SDT proposes that extrinsic motivation can vary greatly in the degree to which it is autonomous (Ryan and Deci, 2000). Ryan and Deci illustrate clearly this point by exemplifying as follows: a student who does his homework only because he fears parental sanctions for not doing it is extrinsically motivated because he is doing the work in order to attain the separable outcome of avoiding sanctions. Similarly, a student who does the work because she personally believes it is valuable for her chosen career is also extrinsically motivated because she too is doing it for its instrumental value rather than because she finds it interesting.

They further add that both examples involve instrumentalities, yet the latter case entails personal endorsement and a feeling of choice, whereas the former involves mere compliance with an external control. Both represent intentional behaviour, but the two types of extrinsic motivation vary in their relative autonomy. Given that, many of the educational activities prescribed in schools are not designed to be intrinsically interesting, a central question concerns how to motivate students to value and self-regulate such activities, and without external pressure, to carry them out on their own. “This problem is described within SDT in terms of fostering the internalization and integration of values and behavioral regulations” (Deci & Ryan, 2000:60).

Internalization is defined in the SDT as the process of taking in a value or regulation, and integration is the process by which individuals more fully transform the regulation into their own so that it will emanate from their sense of self. The concept of internalization is thought of as a continuum that describes how one’s motivation for behavior can range from amotivation or unwillingness, to passive compliance, to active personal commitment. With increasing internalization (and its associated sense of personal commitment) come greater persistence, more positive selfperceptions, and better quality of engagement.
Within SDT a second subtheory, referred to as Organismic Integration Theory (OIT), was introduced to detail the different forms of extrinsic motivation and the contextual factors that either promote or hinder internalization and integration of the regulation for these behaviours (Deci & Ryan, 1985 cited in Ryan & Deci, 2000:61).

Figure 1 above illustrates the OIT taxonomy of types of motivation, arranged from left to right in terms of the extent to which the motivation for one’s behaviour emanates from one’s self.

At the far left is amotivation, which is the state of lacking an intention to act. “Amotivation results from not valuing an activity” (Ryan, 1995 cited in Deci & Ryan, 2000: 61), “not feeling competent to do it” (Deci, 1975 cited in Ryan & Deci, 2000:61), “or not believing it will yield a desired outcome” (Seligman, 1975 cited in Ryan & Deci, 2000). From the Figure above, one can see that to the right of amotivation are various types of motivation that have been organized by Ryan and Deci to reflect their differing degrees of autonomy or self-determination.

Just to the right of amotivation, is a category that represents the least autonomous forms of extrinsic motivation, a category that Deci & Ryan label as external regulation. Such behaviours are performed to satisfy an external demand or obtain an externally imposed reward contingency. “Individuals typically experience externally regulated behavior as controlled or alienated, and their actions have an
According to the SDT, external regulation is the only kind of motivation recognized by operant theorists and it is this type of extrinsic motivation that was typically contrasted with intrinsic motivation in early lab studies and discussions.

A second type of extrinsic motivation is introjected regulation. Introjection describes a type of internal regulation that is still quite controlling because people perform such actions with the feeling of pressure in order to avoid guilt or anxiety or to attain ego-enhancements or pride.

A more autonomous, or self-determined, form of extrinsic motivation is regulation through identification. Here, the person has identified with the personal importance of a behavior and has thus accepted its regulation as his or her own. A boy who memorizes spelling lists because he sees it as relevant to writing, which he values as a life goal, has identified with the value of this learning activity.

Finally, the most autonomous form of extrinsic motivation is integrated regulation. In line with the SDT, integration occurs when identified regulations have been fully assimilated to the self. This occurs through self-examination and bringing new regulations into congruence with one’s other values and needs. The more one internalizes the reasons for an action and assimilates them to the self, the more one’s extrinsically motivated actions become self-determined. Integrated forms of motivation share many qualities with intrinsic motivation, being both autonomous and unconflicted. However, they are still extrinsic because behavior motivated by integrated regulation is done for its presumed instrumental value with respect to some outcome that is separate from the behavior, even though it is volitional and valued by the self.

From the figure mentioned on page 25 previously, it can be seen that intrinsic motivation is placed at the far right hand end. According to the SDT, this placement emphasizes that intrinsic motivation is a prototype of self-determined activity.

In the opinion of the SDT, the process of internalization is developmentally important, as social values and regulations are continually being internalized over the life span. SDT explains that some behaviours could begin as introjects, others as identifications. It provides the following examples to enhance our understanding. A person might originally get exposed to an activity because of an external regulation (e.g., a reward), and (if the reward is not perceived as too controlling) such exposure might allow the person to experience the activity’s intrinsically interesting properties,
resulting in an orientation shift. Or a person who has identified with the value of an activity might lose that sense of value under a controlling mentor and move “backward” into an external regulatory mode. Thus, while there are predictable reasons for movement between orientations, there is no necessary “sequence.” Developmental issues are, however, evident in two ways: (1) the types of behaviours and values that can be assimilated to the self increase with growing cognitive and ego capacities and (2) it appears that people’s general regulatory style does, on average, tend to become more “internal” over time, in accord with the general organismic tendencies towards autonomy and self-regulation (Ryan, 1995 cited in Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Ryan and Connell (1989, cited in Ryan & Deci, 2000) tested the formulation that these different types of motivation do indeed lie along a continuum of relative autonomy. They found that the four types of regulation were intercorrelated according to a quasi-simplex (ordered correlation) pattern, thus providing evidence for an underlying continuum of autonomy. Subsequent studies have extended these findings concerning types of extrinsic motivation.

“Because extrinsically motivated behaviors are not inherently interesting and thus must initially be externally prompted, the primary reason people are likely to be willing to do the behaviors is that they are valued by significant others to whom they feel (or would like to feel) connected, whether that be a family, a peer group, or a society. This suggests that the groundwork for facilitating internalization is providing a sense of belongingness and connectedness to the persons, group, or culture disseminating a goal, or what in SDT we call a sense of relatedness” (Ryan & Deci, 2000:64).

In classrooms context, this means that students’ feeling respected and cared for by the teacher is essential for their willingness to accept the proffered classroom values. In support of this, Ryan, Stiller, and Lynch (1994, cited in Ryan & Deci, 2000) found that relatedness to teachers (and parents) was associated with greater internalization of school-related behavioral regulations.

A second issue in SDT concerns perceived competence. Adopting as one’s own an extrinsic goal requires that one feel efficacious with respect to it. Students will more likely adopt and internalize a goal if they understand it and have the relevant skills to succeed at it. Thus, in SDT, they theorize that supports for competence (e.g., offering optimal challenges and effectance-relevant feedback) facilitate internalization.
According to the SDT approach, a regulation that has been internalized may be only introjected, and that type of regulation could well leave people feeling satisfaction of their needs for competence and relatedness. However, to only introject a regulation and thus to be controlled by it will not leave the people feeling self-determined.

Consequently, the SDT suggests that autonomy support also facilitates internalization; in fact, it is the critical element for a regulation being integrated rather than just introjected. Controlling contexts may yield introjected regulation if they support competence and relatedness, but only autonomy supportive contexts will yield integrated self-regulation. To fully internalize a regulation, and thus to become autonomous with respect to it, people must inwardly grasp its meaning and worth. It is these meanings that become internalized and integrated in environments that provide supports for the needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy.

7. Attribution Theory

The attribution theory of student motivation was largely influential in the 1980s (Dörnyei, 2003). The uniqueness of the theory stems from its ability to link individuals’ achievements to past experiences through the establishment of causal attributions as the mediating link. “The theory does not look at the experiences that people undergo but at how they are perceived by people themselves” (Williams & Burden, 1997:104). Broadly speaking, the theory hypothesizes that the reasons to which individuals attribute their past successes or failures shape to a great extent their motivational disposition (Dörnyei, 2001). In a school context, learners tend to ascribe their failure or success (locus of causality) to a number of reasons: ability and effort, luck, task difficulty, mood, family background, and help or hindrance from others. The previously cited reasons can be placed on a continuum of internal vs. external reasons depending on whether the individuals see themselves or others as the causes of their actions. Locus of control, however, refers to peoples’ perception of how much they are in control of their actions. In a classroom environment, the importance of the kind of attribution is of special significance. This can be exemplified in the following way. On the one hand, if learners attribute their failure to a lack of ability which is considered as an internal cause over which they have no control, then their motivation to learning the language is likely to decrease or even vanish completely. If, on the other hand, they believe that their failure is the result of their laziness or lack of effort that is seen as an internal cause over which they have control, then they have good chances to increase their motivation if they double their efforts. In Weiner’s words “Attribution theory is now ending its third
decade as a dominant conception in motivation, social psychology, and educational psychology. To survive this length of time indicates that it not only has had strong empirical support, but also that it has been responsive to empirical challenges and has changed in order to meet objections and problems”. (2000:1).

8. Expectancy-Value Theories

In motivational psychology the most influential conceptualizations during the last four decades have tended to adopt an expectancy-value framework, beginning with Atkinson’s classic achievement motivation theory (e.g. Atkinson & Raynor, 1974 cited in Dörnyei, 1998) and subsequently further developed in various guises by a number of researchers. Expectancy-value theories state that motivation to perform various tasks is the product of two key factors: Firstly, the individual’s expectancy of success in a given task and secondly the value the individual attaches to success in that task. In Dörnyei’s (1998) words “The greater the perceived likelihood of goal-attainment and the greater the incentive value of the goal, the higher the degree of the individual’s positive motivation” (p: 119). By contrast, if either factor is missing it is unlikely that effort will be invested in a task. In other words, if the individual is convinced that he/she cannot succeed no matter how hard he/she tries or if the task does not lead to valued outcomes then effort will not be invested in the task.

8.1. Expectancy of Success

An interesting question can be raised in the vein of expecting success. How does an individual develop his or her expectancy for success? In fact, researchers emphasize various different factors that form the individual’s cognitive processes such as processing past experiences, judging one’s own abilities and competence, and attempting to maintain one’s self-esteem.

Attributional processes are one of the most important influences on the formation of students’ expectancies. The guiding principle in attribution theory as it has been cited previously stresses on the way humans explain their own past successes and failures that will significantly affect their future achievement behaviour. For example, failure that is ascribed to stable and uncontrollable factors such as low ability decreases the expectation of future success more than failure that is ascribed to controllable factors such as effort (Weiner, 1979 cited in Dörnyei, 1998).

Self-efficacy theory refers to people’s judgement of their capabilities to carry out certain specific tasks, and, accordingly, their sense of efficacy will determine their choice of the activities attempted, as well as the level of their aspirations, the amount of
effort exerted, and the persistence displayed. In this respect, Bandura (2000) states “Human behaviour is extensively motivated and regulated anticipatorily by cognitive self-influence. Among the mechanisms of self-influence, none is more focal or prevailing than belief of personal efficacy.”(P: 120). Bandura (1993, cited in Dörnyei, 1998:119) also summarizes, “people with a low sense of self-efficacy in a given domain perceive difficult tasks as personal threats; they dwell on their own personal deficiencies and the obstacles they encounter rather than concentrating on how to perform the task successfully. Consequently, they easily lose faith in their capabilities and are likely to give up. In contrast, a strong sense of self-efficacy enhances people’s achievement behaviour by helping them to approach threatening situations with confidence, to maintain a task- rather than self-diagnostic focus during task involvement, and to heighten and sustain effort in the face of failure.”

According to Covington’s (1992, cited in Dörnyei, 1998:120) self-worth theory of achievement motivation, the highest human priority is the need for self-acceptance and therefore “in reality, the dynamics of school achievement largely reflect attempts to aggrandise and protect selfperceptions of ability” (Covington & Roberts, 1994: 161, cited in Dörnyei, 1998:120). This indicates that the basic need for self-worth generates a number of unique patterns of motivational beliefs and behaviours in school settings.

8.2. Value

The second component of expectancy-value theories, value, has been labelled in a number of ways by various psychologists: valence, incentive value, attainment value, task value, achievement task value, etc. As Eccles and Wigfield (1995, cited in Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998:53) point out, “until recently most theorists using the expectancy-value model have focused on the expectancy component, while paying little attention to defining or measuring the value component”. In an attempt to fill this hiatus, Eccles and Wigfield have developed a comprehensive model of task values, defining them in terms of four components: attainment value (or importance), intrinsic value (or interest), extrinsic utility value, and cost. The first three value types are attracting characteristics, making up the positive valence of the task. Attainment value refers to the subjective importance of doing well on a task with reference to one’s basic personal values and needs. Intrinsic interest value is the enjoyment or pleasure that task engagement brings about, whereas extrinsic utility value refers to the usefulness of the task in reaching future goals. The fourth value type, cost, constitutes the negative valence of a task, involving factors such as expended effort and time, and emotional costs (e.g. anxiety,
The overall achievement value of a task, then, will be made up of the interplay of these four components, and this value is believed to determine the strength or intensity of the behaviour.

9. Goal Theory

Goals are fundamental to the study of motivation. Originally, the concept of goal has replaced that of need which was introduced by Maslow’s hierarchy of needs (Dörnyei, 2001). Goal theories focus on the reasons or purposes that students perceive for achieving. Thus, in goal theories the cognitive perceptions of goal properties are seen as the basis of motivational processes (Dörnyei, 1998). There are four mechanisms by which goals affect individuals’ performance. Firstly, goals serve a directive function as they direct attention and effort toward goal-relevant activities and away from irrelevant activities. Secondly, goals have an energising function and they help individuals regulate their effort to the difficulty of the task. Thirdly, they positively affect persistence and fourthly goals affect action indirectly by leading to the arousal, discovery, and/or use of task-relevant knowledge and strategies. (Locke and Latham, 2002:706-7). There are two goal theories that have been particularly influential in the study of motivation: the goal setting theory and the goal orientation theory.

The goal setting theory was mainly developed by Locke and Latham (1990) within industrial and organizational psychology with frequent references to workplace settings (Pagliaro, 2002). The goal setting theory is built on three fundamental pillars (Locke, 1996): it is philosophically sound for it is in line with the philosophical theories that assume individuals’ control of their actions; it is in line with the introspective evidence revealing that human action is normally purposeful; and it is practical.

According to the theory, people must have goals in order to act since human action is caused by purpose and for action to take place, goals have to be set and pursued by choice (Dörnyei, 1998). The theory suggests that goals have two aspects: internal and external. They are ideas (internal aspect), and they refer to the object or condition sought (external). Ideas serve as guides for obtaining the goals (Locke, 1996).

Unlike the goal-setting theory, the goal orientation theory was developed in a classroom context in order to explain children’s learning and performance (Dörnyei, 2001:27), and it might now be one of the most vigorous motivation theories within the classroom (Pintrinch & Shunck, 1996). According to this theory, an individual’s performance is closely related to his or her accepted goals. An important contribution of the theory resides in its distinction between two types of goal orientation: performance
vs. mastery (or learning) orientations. Learners possessing the first orientation, are primarily concerned with looking good and capable, those possessing the second are more concerned with increasing their knowledge and being capable.

**Conclusion**

As it has been developed so far in this study, the concept of motivation as a force behind behavior proves to be complex since it takes a respectable number of different disciplines to arrive at a reasonable understanding of its different facets. Its complexity resides as well in its endeavours to explain individual’s actions and behaviours. It has been noted that a plethora of motivational theories help to explain that motivation influences what people do—meaning their choice of actions, how they act, the intensity, persistence, and the quality of their actions. A number of key concepts have been stated with special reference to their respective theories. In accordance with this, Nakata says, “What is motivation? How do humans get motivated? What specifies motivation in language learning? I would venture to say that many of the researchers at least in the field of language learning motivation(including myself)seem to have been working in this complex field without knowing exactly what it is (not with crystal clarity at least).” (Nakata, 2006: 23). He further adds that there has been a paradigm shift in our understanding of motivation over the last decades. In Nakata’s (2006) view, researchers such as: Eccles; Wigfield and Schiefele (1998) explain this shift as follows: “The view of motivation has changed dramatically over the last half of the twentieth century, going from a biological based drive perspective to a behavioral-mechanistic perspective, and then a cognitive-mediation/constructivist perspective. The conception of the individual as a purposeful, goal-directed actor who must coordinate multiple goals and desires across multiple contexts within both short-and long-range time frames currently is prominent. As we approach the twenty first century, the role of affect and less conscious processes is reemerging as a central theme. Complementing this more complex view of the psychology of motivation, researchers interested in the contextual influences on motivation are also adopting more complex and multicontextual frameworks. After all, motivation theories intend to explain nothing less than why humans think and behave as they do, and it is very doubtful that the complexity of this issue can be accounted for by a single theory (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).
CHAPTER TWO:
MOTIVATION IN THE CLASSROOM CONTEXT

1. Introduction

The second chapter of the dissertation deals with motivation in the classroom context. So, it commences with a brief discussion about the shift of focus on motivation to the foreign language classroom. Then, a review of related literature about the factors affecting learners’ motivation will be introduced. Finally, we will have a look at the three main factors in detail namely: the teacher learner relationship, the teacher personality and the teacher teaching style and their implications on learners’ learning and motivation.

Today, there is a considerable interest in the notion of motivation to learn a second or a foreign language and the pressing question that foreign language teachers endlessly ask is “What can we do so as to motivate our students?” Crucially, Dörnyei (2001b) says “From a practicing teacher’s point of view, the most pressing question related to motivation is not what motivation is but rather how it can be increased.” (P: 52). He further adds “It is an unflattering indication of the detachment of research from classroom practice that very little work has been done in the L2 field to devise and test motivational strategies systematically” (P: 52). Motivation is undoubtedly an essential element of every teacher’s teaching practice, yet this is an issue that poses a problem on a daily basis in the classroom. In this vein, Y. K., Singh & R. Nath. (2005) state “Motivation occupies a central place in the teaching – learning process. It is in fact, indispensable to learning. Every teacher, at one time or another is faced with the problem of motivating his students to learn. Therefore, it is essential to think of the ways and means for achieving motivation in the classroom situation.”(P: 97). Additionally, Stephen and Sherria (2003) point out “Lecturers frequently bemoan the lack of student motivation and ask what they can do to improve this.”(P: 69). Research has suggested different ways of motivating students to learn; however, it is only recently that researchers and educators have started to concentrate on the classroom. In line with this, Dörnyei (1994a) says “I believe that the question of how to motivate students is an area on which L2 motivation research has not placed sufficient emphasis in the past.”(P: 274). Gardner (2001) cites “…to me, motivation is a central element along with language aptitude in determining success in learning another language in the classroom setting” (P: 2). “Motivation is crucial for L2 learning, and it is essential to understand what our students’ motivations are.” Oxford and Shearin (1996:122). More
recently, Nakata (2006) states that “Motivation plays a particularly crucial role in an EFL situation where learners are separated logistically and physiologically from the target culture”. (P: 19).

Indeed, motivating students has been an ongoing challenge to educators for many years. “Motivation is, without question, the most complex and challenging issue facing teachers today.” Scheidecker and Freeman (1999, cited in Dörnyei, 2001:1). In the same respect, Vallerand, Pelletier, Balis, Brière, Senécal, and Vallieres (1992) state that one of the most important psychological concepts in education is certainly that of motivation. Recently, teachers and researchers have been concerned with what role the teachers play in increasing students’ motivation to learn. Particularly, how can teachers adapt their teaching practices in a way that will foster students’ motivation to succeed at learning a foreign language. Teachers are more interested than ever in finding out what they can do to overcome deficits in students’ motivation to learn since learners’ motivation seems to shrink as they grow. More specifically, teachers are eager to find ways of increasing the quantity and quality of students’ engagement in learning activities, since students’ active participation in class helps everyone learn more efficiently, and makes life more pleasant in the classroom. “The real problem with motivation, of course, is that every one is looking for a single and simple answer. Teachers search for that One pedagogy that, when exercised, will make all students want to do their home work, come in for after-school help, and score well on their tests and report cards. Unfortunately, and realistically, motivating students yesterday, today, and tomorrow will never be a singular or simplistic process.” Scheidecker and Freeman (1999, cited in Dörnyei, 2001:13). In the same respect, Wen (1993, cited in Yang.X, 2006:77) “listed motivation as one of the modifiable learner variables, which means that both the teacher and the learner can do something to enhance the motivation to learn English”. Very recently, Michael Fullan (2011) stated that “Motivated people do get better implementation, but interestingly the reverse can be more powerful. Helping people accomplish something that they have never accomplished before causes motivation to increase deeply. Such newly found motivation is tantamount to passionate commitment that is further contagious to others.”(P: 52).
2. Language Classroom Motivation

Previous research has identified a number of factors as determinants in learning a second or foreign language. Learners’ motivation is amongst them. Indeed, it is one of the most highly studied issues of cognition within the field of Second Language Education (SLE), and is widely acknowledged as a principal determinant in learning a second/foreign language by a wide range of researchers and scholars. In Nakata’s words “Most of us would not disagree with the statement that motivation is largely responsible for determining human behaviour, and thus those who are really motivated to learn a foreign language will be able to become proficient to a certain degree regardless of their intelligence or language aptitude.” (2006:23).

One of the seminal works and pioneering orientations in motivation studies is the model of language learning that was developed in the early sixties and through the eighties of the previous century by Gardner, following studies carried out by him and associates. The model came to be known as the Socioeducational Model (Gardner, 1985). The initial construct of their motivational model classified motivation into two orientations, namely: integrative orientation in which Learners may be positively drawn to the culture of the target language and may desire to integrate into that culture; and instrumental orientation in which individuals may wish to study a language in order to achieve an end, such as getting a job, obtaining a salary increase, or having a competitive edge over another, professionally. In fact, this approach has proposed the most famous concepts, integrative and instrumental orientations with much emphasis on the former.

The reviewed literature disclosed that this study was one of the first demonstrations of social psychology’s importance to language learning and exerted a great deal of influence upon most of the subsequent motivation studies. MacIntyre (2004, cited in MacIntyre, P. D., Mackinnon, S. P., & Clément, R., 2009) argued that the SE model can be considered unique, even ahead of its time in significant ways, especially as compared to motivation theories in the field of psychology. Dörnyei (1994a) has stated “I would like to acknowledge once again the seminal work of Robert Gardner and his colleagues. Gardner’s theory has profoundly influenced my thinking on this subject and I share Oxford and Shearin’s assertion that: “The current authors do not intend to overturn the ideas nor denigrate the major contributions of researchers such as Gardner, Lambert, Lalonde, and others, who powerfully brought motivational issues to the attention of the L2 field”(p:274). Dörnyei (1994b) has claimed “I believe that the
most important milestone in the history of L2 motivation research has been Gardner and Lambert’s (13; 14) discovery that success in L2 is a function of the learner’s attitudes towards the linguistic-cultural community of the target language, thus adding a social dimension to the study of motivation to learn L2.” (P: 519). More recently, Dörnyei (2001b) has said “The first three decades of L2 motivation research until about the early 1990s was largely inspired and fuelled by the pioneering work of social psychologists in Canada, most notably Robert Gardner, Wallace Lambert, Richard Clément, and their associates” (p:43). Gonzales (2010) has stated that “Although Gardner and Lambert studies have been used as the anchor of further studies on motivation in FL and L2 learning and acquisition, the search to further define, redefine and conceptualize motivation in FL and L2 continued up to the present and even revisited by many researchers” (p:4).

In the early 1990s, however, because of the provocative article by Crookes and Schmidt (1991) calling for education-friendly L2 motivation research when reopening the research agenda and in response to this call, an educational shift in L2 motivation research took place and the field became somewhat more expansive. In this sense, Ushioda has stated “A provocative article by Crookes and Schmidt (1991) called for a new research agenda involving L2 learning motivation.” (2005: 53). Their call yielded a series of publications that explored the topic from both theoretical and practical perspectives (Dörnyei, 1994a, 1994b; Oxford and Shearin, 1994, 1996; Ushioda, 1994, 1996) and eventually redirected its focus to the applicability of motivational theories in the classroom. Oxford & Shearin (1996) have stated that “The best known theory of L2 learning motivation, a theory based on social psychology, does not cover all the possible reasons for learning a new language.” (P: 122). Dörnyei (1994a) has cited “While acknowledging unanimously the fundamental importance of the Gardenerian social psychological model, researchers were also calling for a more pragmatic, education-centred approach to motivation research, which would be consistent with the perceptions of practicing teachers and which would also be in line with the current results of mainstream educational psychological research”. (P: 273). In Dörnyei’s (2001) view, “The 1990’s brought about a change in scholars’ thinking about L2 motivation.” (P: 16). In Crookes and Schmidt’s words, it was “so dominant that alternative concepts have not been seriously considered” (P: 501). “…by the beginning of the 1990s, there was a growing conceptual gap between motivational thinking in the second language field and in educational psychology and the time was ripe for a new
phase in L2 motivation research” Dörnyei (2005:71). In line with this, Ushioda (2006) has stated “It is generally recognised that the study of language learning motivation underwent something of a sea-change during the 1990s, when it emerged from a long history of domination by the social psychological research tradition.” (P: 148). In the same direction, Nakata (2006) has stated “In the 1990s, the dispute over Gardner’s social psychological approach continued. (P: 55). Additionally, Dörnyei (2001b) has expressed “The study of L2 motivation has reached an exciting turning point in the 1990s, with a variety of new models and approaches proposed in the literature; resulting in what Gardner and Tremblay (1994) have called a motivational renaissance.”(P: 43). Then, he has added “The 1990s brought an extraordinary boom in L2 motivation research” (P: 44). Definitely, the 1990’s have been viewed by many as the most significant era for the development of voluminous investigations in the field of motivational research.

Since then, there have been many studies in this new direction and considerable debate and a huge wealth of theory and research have been generated around the issue. In other words, there has been more concentration on issues related to motivation in SLE. Gabriella, M. (2008) has stated that motivation has traditionally been researched with quantitative methods, usually focusing on the antecedents of the construct, and/or linking it to the linguistic outcome. This has changed in the past few decades, thanks, first and foremost, to Crookes and Schmidt’s (1991) seminal paper. MacIntyre, P. D., Mackinnon, S. P., & Clément, R. (2009) cited that although the SE model influenced international conceptualizations of motivation for second language learning for decades, particularly among pedagogues, the model has its detractors. In spite of the fact that Gardner’s socio-educational model was well-grounded in scientific terms, it was not sufficiently broad to include “… a more pragmatic, education-centered approach to motivation, which would be consistent with the perceptions of the practicing teacher and which would also be in line with the current results of mainstream educational psychological research” (Dörnyei, 1994a:273).Significantly enough, Dörnyei (1996:71) stated that “The explicit goal of recent research has been to broaden the scope of language learning motivation and to increase the educational potential of the theory by focusing more on motivation reflected in students’ classroom learning behaviours”. In Ushioda’s (2005) vision, the literature on L2 motivation has two main streams. One stream consists of a series of studies based on Gardner’s socioeducational model. The other stream calls for the implementation of a new “agenda” (Crookes & Schmidt,
1991) for L2 motivation research. While the former studies investigate causal relationships among possible individual-difference variables with various L2 achievement measures, the latter attempts to identify possible variables that could influence learners’ motivations within the immediate L2 learning context. She further added “Crookes and Schmidt claim that motivation is more complex and cannot be measured by a one-shot questionnaire because motivation changes due to a number of environmental factors in addition to integrativeness.” (2005: 54). In the same vein, Ushioda (2006) expressed “During the 1990s, however, in a move towards what Dörnyei (2001a) has called more ‘education-friendly’ approaches to L2 motivation, research attention has increasingly turned to classroom motivational processes and cognitive theories of motivation.” (P: 149). According to her, “The common belief underlying such an educational movement seems to be a focus on motivational sources closely related to the learner’s immediate learning situation rather than their overall attitudes toward the target culture (i.e., integrativeness)” (Ushioda, 2005: 54).

Other researchers such as: Clement, Noels and Dörnyei 1994 (cited in Dörnyei, 1996) designed and carried out projects focusing on some learner traits as well as the learner’s perception of the classroom environment and the dynamics of the learner group. In fact, the results produced evidenced that motivation to learn a foreign language in a classroom environment needs more than a social and pragmatic aspect. In this respect, Dörnyei (1994a) claimed that L2 motivation is an eclectic, multifaceted construct; thus, it needs to include different levels to integrate the various components. Clement et al (1994) identified three distinct dimensions: Integrative Motivation, Linguistic Self-Confidence and Appraisal of Classroom Environment, this is shown in figure two on the next page, and they placed much emphasis on the last one as a novel result of the study. The three aspects of the students’ perception of the classroom assessed were: group cohesion, evaluation of the English teacher in terms of competence, rapport, and teaching style / personality; and evaluation of the English course in terms of attractiveness, relevance, and difficulty.
Based on the Clement et al (1994) study mentioned previously, Dörnyei has broadened its scope and three levels of motivation have been distinguished: the language level, the language learner, and the learning environment which coincide with the three basic constituents of the second language learning process (the target language, the language learner, and the language learning environment).

In figure: 3 on the following page, Dörnyei (1996) has provided a brief characterization of the motivational levels. It is obvious from figure three that the learning situation level is associated with situation-specific motives rooted in various aspects of language learning in a classroom setting. Within this level, three main types of motivational sources can be separated: First, Course-specific motivational components, which are related to the syllabus, the teaching materials, the teaching method, and the learning tasks. Second, Teacher-specific motivational components, which are related to the teacher’s behaviour, personality, and teaching style and last Group-specific motivational components, which are related to the dynamics of the learner group.
| LANGUAGE LEVEL | Instrumental Motivational Subsystem  
Integrative Motivational Subsystem |
|---------------|-----------------------------------|
| LEARNER LEVEL | Need for Achievement  
Self-Confidence  
• Language Use Anxiety  
• Perceived L2 Competence  
• Causal Attributions  
• Self-Efficacy |
| LEARNING SITUATION LEVEL | Interest  
Relevance  
Expectancy  
Satisfaction  
• Course-Specific Motivational Components  
• Teacher-Specific Motivational Components  
• Group-Specific Motivational Components |
| | Affiliative Drive  
Authority Type  
Direct Socialization of Motivation  
• Modeling  
• Task Presentation  
• Feedback  
• Goal-orientedness  
Norm and Reward System  
Group Cohesion  
Classroom Goal Structure |

**Figure 3: Components of Foreign Language Learning Motivation (Dornyei, 1994a,: 280, cited in dornyei, 1996:76-77)**

Williams and Burden (1997, cited in Dörnyei, 1998) have also presented a framework of L2 motivation primarily based on issues relevant to educational psychology. This is presented in figure four on the following page.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INTERNAL FACTORS</th>
<th>EXTERNAL FACTORS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic interest of activity</td>
<td>Significant others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Arousal of curiosity</td>
<td>• Parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Optimal degree of challenge</td>
<td>• Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived value of activity</td>
<td>• Peers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Personal relevance</td>
<td>The nature of interaction with significant others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Anticipated value of outcomes</td>
<td>• Mediated learning experiences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Intrinsic value attributed to the activity</td>
<td>• The nature and amount of feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sense of agency</td>
<td>• Rewards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Locus of causality</td>
<td>• The nature and amount of appropriate praise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Locus of control re: process and outcome</td>
<td>• Punishments, sanctions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Ability to set appropriate goals</td>
<td>The learning environment</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mastery</td>
<td>• Comfort</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Feelings of competence</td>
<td>• Resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Awareness of developing skills</td>
<td>• Time of day, week, year</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Self-efficacy</td>
<td>• Size of class and school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-concept</td>
<td>• Class and school ethos</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Realistic awareness of personal</td>
<td>The broader context</td>
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<tr>
<td>strengths and weaknesses in skills required</td>
<td>• Wider family networks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Personal definitions an judgements of</td>
<td>• The local education system</td>
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<tr>
<td>success and failure</td>
<td>• Conflicting interests</td>
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<td>• Self-worth concern</td>
<td>• Cultural norms</td>
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<td>• Learned helplessness</td>
<td>• Societal expectations and attitudes</td>
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<td>Attitudes</td>
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<td>• To language learning in general</td>
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<td>• To the target language community and culture</td>
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<td>Other affective states</td>
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<td>• Confidence</td>
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<td>• Anxiety, fear</td>
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<td>Developmental age and stage</td>
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**Figure 4: Williams and Burden’s (1997) Framework of L2 Motivation (cited in Dörnyei 1998:126)**
They approached the framework from the perspectives of factors affecting L2 learner motivation, and separated them into two categories; internal and external factors. In their framework, teachers are seen as a part of external factors in the category of significant others, and interactions with teachers, including learning experiences, feedback, rewards, praise and punishments are also seen as relevant factors which may affect L2 learners’ motivation.

Along with the shift of the focus on the research in L2 motivation, one of the recent claims made in the study of motivation is the Process Model introduced by Dörnyei (2000) and Dörnyei & Ottó (2001, cited in Dörnyei ,2003). Though Dörnyei (1994a,cited in Dörnyei, 1996) admits that Gardner and his associates’ early studies contributed extensively to the construction of the foundation work in motivation research in SLA ,as previously mentioned, he has insisted on the need for further development, linking motivation research in SLA with the recent theoretical findings in educational psychology, and has strongly encouraged the introduction of a more comprehensive paradigm for the consideration of the complex nature of motivation for the L2 learning. One of the important claims in the Process Model is to view L2 learner motivation not being static but continuously changing along with the long process of L2 learning. In accordance with this, Shoaib and Dörnyei have stated that “Dörnyei and Ottó’s process model of L2 motivation (1998), which recognizes that language learner motivation is not fixed, but changing under the influence of a variety of factors over time, has revolutionized research in the field. The notion implies a dynamic nature of motivation, which is affected, among other factors, by the learning situation” (2005:23). Significantly enough, Dörnyei (2001b) has cited “During these first decades of research, motivation was primarily seen as a relatively stable learner trait that was, to a large extent, a function of (a) the learner’s social perceptions of the L2 and its speakers, as reflected by various language attitudes; (b) generalized attitudes toward the L2 learning situation, such as the appraisal of the course or the teacher; and (c) interethnic contact and the resulting degree of linguistic self-confidence. The 1990s extended this conception by adding a number of cognitive and situation-specific variables to the existing paradigm (e.g., attributions and group cohesiveness), and there was a shift by some toward viewing motivation as a more dynamic factor that is in a continuous process of evolution and change according to the various internal and external influences the learner is exposed to” (P: 44). Very recently, Bernaus, M., Wilson, A. and Gardner, R.(2009) have stated that “Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) have proposed a
somewhat different perspective referred to as the process model of L2 motivation, based on Heckhausen and Kuhl’s (1985) theory of volition because they wanted to emphasize the dynamic nature of motivation within the classroom context.”(P: 26).

Dörnyei has divided the L2 learning process into three phases; namely the preactional phase, the actional phase, and the postactional phase, and at each phase, different motivational forces may cause different motivational actions. At the pre-actional phase, initial motivation is involved with goal setting, intention formation, and initiation of intention enactment. Executive motivation in the actional phase sustains the intended action of learning the language with continuing appraisal of daily learning events, taking various factors into consideration, which leads to either persistence or termination of learning. Finally in the post-actional phase, motivational retrospection evaluates learning actions by forming causal attributions, and determines an action for further study or termination of learning. In addition, factors that may influence each motivation include cognitive, affective, and situational factors or conditions. In the Process Model, teachers may have the strongest impact on executive motivation at the actional stage, since this is the time when learners’ interaction with teachers is likely to be the primary source of L2 learning.

As review above shows and based on the integration of educational considerations into the study of motivation, some researchers have proposed new constructs of motivation (e.g., Dörnyei, 1998; Williams & Burden, 1997). These constructs have captured a more expansive dimension of motivation and have been developed specifically for use in a language classroom. Yet, learning a second or foreign language (L2) in a classroom context entails as it has been pointed previously more than a socio-educational approach allows for. Among classroom related factors, such as materials, teachers and classroom atmosphere, teacher’s influence on learners’ motivation is widely recognized although its importance has been typically overlooked Dörnyei (2001a cited in Tanaka, T.2005:50).

For this reason, the English teacher’s relationship with learners, his/her personality and teaching style will be taken into consideration in the present case study.
3. Factors Affecting Students Motivation.

Most teachers and researchers would like to know more about the factors which may facilitate students’ involvement in learning and motivate them to learn in the classroom. Indeed, “Over the years, educational researchers have investigated many factors considered to affect student learning. At the heart of this line of inquiry is the core belief that teachers make a difference.” (Wright, Horn, & Sanders, 1997:57). In the opinion of Martin Ford (1992, cited in Dörnyei, 2001:25) “There are no magic motivational buttons that can be pushed to ‘make’ people want to learn, work hard, and act in a responsible manner. Similarly, no one can be directly ‘forced’ to care about something...Facilitation not control, should be the guiding idea in attempts to motivate humans”. In a similar way, Y.K., Singh & R.Nath. (2005) have said “Motivation is a key word and essential requirement for the success of the teaching learning process carried out in the classroom. Unfortunately there is no magic formula set of principles for motivating all students in every teaching learning situation.”(P: 91). Moreover, Nakata (2006) has stated “Motivation to learn is something we can hardly impose but rather have to nurture and support. We have to be aware that we cannot cram it down learners’ throats”. (P: 18). In fact, Studies have identified several factors affecting students’ motivation in the classroom. Such factors include classroom atmosphere, school environment, teaching style, and relevance of the subject matter are all areas in which educators can actively influence student motivation through the effective use of motivational and managerial techniques that are regularly incorporated into their instruction. In line with this, Bernaues has said “Factors such as pedagogical techniques, teaching materials, and the teacher’s personality might interact with the individual difference variables to promote proficiency.” (1995:12). In the same direction, Bernaues (2010) has indicated “What’s more important the relationship between the teacher and learners influences learners’ attitudes toward L2 learning. Therefore, teacher’s personality, behavior, and teaching methods will all have a strong impact on learners.” (P: 185).

In reviewing literature and previous studies, many researchers have conducted studies to investigate the characteristics of effective teachers and their influence on learners’ motivation. In line with this, William and Burden (1997) have pointed out “In recent years, as the field of education has moved toward a stronger focus on accountability and on a careful analysis of variables that affect educational outcomes, the teacher has proven time and again to be the most influential school-related force in
student achievement. Consequently, to develop an understanding of what teachers do to cause significant student learning, researchers have begun to focus on the specific characteristics and processes used by the most effective teachers.”(P: x). In the same respect, Dörnyei (2005) has stated that “The increased shift toward examining classroom-based motivation in the 1990s drew attention to a rather overlooked motivational area, the motivational characteristics of the language teacher.” He added, “There is no doubt that teacher motivation is an important factor in understanding the affective basis of instructed SLA, since the teacher’s motivation has significant bearings on the students’ motivational disposition and, more generally, on their learning achievement.”(P: 115). Characteristics reported in previous studies can be synthesized into three categories: instructional competence, personality and teacher-student relationship. “It was argued by several researchers (e.g., Julkunen 1989; Brown 1990; Crookes and Schmidt 1991; Dörnyei 1994a; Oxford and Shearin 1994) that the classroom environment had a much stronger motivational impact than had been proposed before, highlighting the significance of motives associated with the L2 course, teacher and learner group.” Shoaib, A. & Dörnyei, Z. (2005:23).

Indeed, many researchers have emphasized teacher relationship with learners as a salient factor to establish solid foundations for the teaching and learning process and boost learners’ motivation to take an active role in the classroom to demonstrate teacher caring and creating a positive learning environment to support student learning. As a matter of fact, many researchers have noted that establishing a good relationship with students is important for effective teaching atmosphere. Vries and Beijjard (1999, cited in Melek .Ç, 2009:80) have stated in their research that “most of teachers think that having a good relationship with students is a prerequisite for teaching and learning”. Similar finding was found in the study conducted by Pozo-Munoz, Rebolloso-Pacheco and Fernandez-Ramirez (2000, cited in Melek .Ç, 2009). According to the research of Pozo-Munoz et al. (2000) the characteristics students think the ‘ideal teacher’ should have teaching competency and should have some features such as the relationship between teacher and student. According to Dörnyei (2001) the following three motivational conditions in particular are indispensable for motivational strategies or techniques to be employed successfully: appropriate teacher behaviours and a good relationship with the students; a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere, and a cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms.
Few decades ago, being an effective teacher was confined in expertise in knowledge. However, at present, an effective or “good” teacher is expected to hold many personal traits. Teacher personal traits are seen as effective motivational tools since they attract learners to learn, maximize enjoyment and minimize anxiety and fear. Learning is not only a cognitive work but also an affective work. Volet (1997, cited in Yu-Jung Chen & Shih-Chung Lin, 2009:226) indicated that “individual differences in academic performance cannot be explained as solely the result of differences in general ability but appears as the product of complex and dynamic interactions between cognitive, affective and motivational variables. Teachers, as mediators of the classes, play an influential role on both cognitive and affective aspects of students’ learning.” Gardner (2001) stated that “the teacher must have the training, personality characteristics, and ability to teach the fundamentals of the language to the student but also to encourage them to learn the material, and more importantly to use it” (P: 3).

In recent research, Schaeffer, Epting, Zinn, and Buskit (2003, cited in Yu-Jung Chen & Shih-Chung Lin, 2009:223) investigated students’ perceptions of the most important qualities for effective teaching and reported that “being approachable, creative and interesting, encouraging and caring, enthusiastic, flexible and open-minded, knowledgeable, fair, respectful and holding realistic expectations are the eight of the top ten traits”. “Being enthusiastic in teaching, friendly, open-minded, respecting students and caring about students were the most important characteristics of effective English teachers.” Yu-Jung Chen & Shih-Chung Lin (2009:220). In the same direction, Dörnyei (2001) made it clear “I don’t think it requires much justification to claim that it is important for a motivating teacher to have a positive relationship with the students on a personal and not just on an academic level” (P: 36). He further added “Teachers who share warm, personal interactions with their students, who respond to their concerns in an empathic manner and who succeed in establishing relationships of mutual trust and respect with the learners, are more likely to inspire them in academic matters than those who have no personal ties with the learners.” (P: 36). Bernaus (2010) has cited “personal qualities of the teacher, such as commitment, warmth, trustworthiness, and competence determine the relationship between the teacher and learners. Such qualities may help to create a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere, but others, such as being unapproachable, unreliable, unfriendly, etc, may just have the opposite effect.” (P: 185).
Sheffield (1974, cited in Omo Aregbeyen, 2010) listed out the characteristics of effective teachers most often mentioned which include master of his/her subject or competent, lectures well prepared and orderly, subject related to life or practical, students’ questions and opinions encouraged, enthusiastic about his/her subject, approachable/friendly/available, concerned for students’ progress, has a sense of humour/amusing, warm/kind/sympathetic, and teaching aids used effectively.

In another vein, Broadhead (1987, cited in Yu-Jung Chen & Shih-Chung Lin, 2009:226) stated that “personality is the essential characteristic for an effective teacher”. Janene (1987, cited in Yu-Jung Chen & Shih-Chung Lin, 2009:226) interviewed sixth grade students to find out students’ perceptions of effective teachers. She reported that “personality, such as being patient, sweet, and understanding, is what constituted as a “nice” teacher”. Aksoy (1998, cited in Yu-Jung Chen & Shih-Chung Lin, 2009) investigated elementary students’ perceptions and reported that an effective teacher is kind, friendly, honest, tolerant, helpful, patient, and seldom shows nervousness and anger. More recently, Murphy (2004, cited in Yu-Jung Chen & Shih-Chung Lin, 2009:226) described in a qualitative study with elementary school students as well as pre-service and in-service teachers that “being caring, patient, polite, and amiable, not being boring, shy or strict, are characteristics for effective teachers”.

Colker (2008, cited in Rosle M., Junainah J., Lim Thien S. & Zaiton O., 2009:24) reported that teachers claimed there were four characteristics of an effective teacher which include “having a sound knowledge of subject matter, take personal interest in each student, establish a caring or loving or warm atmosphere and finally to show enthusiasm with students”. He also identified the twelve characteristics of teachers that children believe are integral factors to effective teaching. There are passion, perseverance, willingness to take risks, pragmatism, patience, flexibility, respect, creativity, authenticity, love of learning, high energy and sense of humour.

Teacher’s personality is highly associated with establishing teacher-student relationship. Davis (2001, cited in Yu-Jung Chen& Shih-Chung Lin, 2009) emphasized on the relationship between students and teachers and claimed that this kind of social motivation can promote students’ learning and achievement.

This conveys the idea that the teacher personality is a crucial element of teacher effectiveness and impacts on the way learners learn. Similar results were found in Okpala and Ellis (2005, cited in Yu-Jung Chen & Shih-Chung Lin, 2009:223), where students indicated “the key teacher quality components were caring for students and
their learning, having professional knowledge, teaching skills and verbal skills, and
dedication to teaching”.

Additional approaches include the didactic treatment or rather the teacher’s style. Several studies have investigated characteristics of effective language teachers. Brosh (1996, cited in Yu-Jung Chen & Shih-Chung Lin, 2009) reported that those who are considered as effective language teachers usually (a) teach comprehensibly, (b) master or command the language, (c) make lessons interesting, (d) help students with their independent study, and (e) do not discriminate among students. Penner (1992, cited in Yu-Jung Chen & Shih-Chung Lin, 2009) indicated that effective language teaching lies in the growth and improvement of classroom communication, and effective language teachers should have adequately ability to communicate to students. In line with this, Dörnyei (2001) stated that “Sometimes the best motivational intervention is simply to improve the quality of our teaching. Similarly, no matter how competent a motivator a teacher is, if his/her teaching lacks instructional clarity and the learners simply cannot follow the intended programme, motivation to learn the particular subject matter is unlikely to blossom”. (PP:25-26).

What can be inferred from all what has been cited so far is that teachers have a crucial role in effective teaching and learning process and can serve as motivators for learners. As mentioned in the study conducted by Rushton, Morgan and Richard (2007, Melek .Ç, 2009:75), “the single most important factor in determining student academic success is the classroom teacher”. Many studies have investigated effective teacher or good teacher characteristics. As Korthagen (2004, cited in Melek .Ç, 2009:75) pointed out that “trying to put the essential qualities of a good teacher into words is a difficult undertaking”. Nonetheless, many researchers (Brophy, 1979; Guskey, 1985; Beishuzien, Kutnick and Jules, 1993; Hof, Van Putten, Bouwmeester and Asscher, 2001; Kızıltepe, 2002; Korthagen, 2004; Buchel and Edwards, 2005; Yates, 2005; Elnicki and Cooper, 2005; Küçükahmet, 2006; Kelly, 2007 cited in Melek .Ç, 2009) have also investigated this issue.

Most of the research regarding the perception of the good teacher has pointed to two important components of the ideal teacher: “professional knowledge, both of the subject taught and of didactic knowledge and an appropriate personality” (Arnon and Reichel, 2007 cited in Melek .Ç, 2009:75).

Minor, Witcher; James and Onwueguzie (2002, cited in Melek .Ç, 2009), have examined preservice teachers’ perceptions of characteristics of effective teachers and
concluded that seven themes emerged from these characteristics: student centered, effective classroom and behavior manager, competent instructor, ethical, enthusiastic about teaching, knowledgeable about subject, and professional. Yet, the following part will tackle the afore-mentioned teacher’s affecting factors separately to deepen our understanding.

3.1. Teacher Learner Rapport/Relationship

Learning success relies on both teacher and learner, not on the materials, so establishing good rapport between the teacher and pupils is a very important factor among others considering the complexity of the teaching learning process. M.T., Claridge and T. Lewis (2005) indicated “Rapport is the foundation of the relationships between you as a coach and your learner. Getting good rapport with your learner at the start of coaching is really important. It is a good idea to remember though that every time you have contact with your learner you need to rebuild rapport.” (P: 23). Schon (1987, cited in Yang, 2008:96) stated that “researchers are now realizing that education does not take place in a laboratory but in a ‘soft, slimy swamp.’ Scheidecker and Freeman (1999, cited in Dörnyei, 2001:25) mentioned “Whatever form it takes, however, the motivating process is usually a long term one, built ‘one grain of trust and caring at a time’”. Significantly enough, “Teaching involves multiple, simultaneous decisions related to content pedagogy, student relationships, praise and discipline, materials of instruction, and interactions with colleagues” Griffin(1999, cited in Lauren E. D. & Sara E. R., 2008:46). Put simply, teachers and researchers alike have much to gain from understanding both students’ and teachers’ opinions and their relationship in the foreign language classroom. Ushioda (2006) and Dörnyei (2000) appeal for a more “holistic” approach in motivational research. They suggest that to gain a better understanding of motivation in the language learning classroom, researchers need to examine the relationship between the students and the teacher.

3.1.1. Defining Teacher Learner Rapport/Relationship

Recent research has highlighted the establishment and the importance of the teacher-student relationship in educational practice (Freire, 2003; Shor, 1992; Purpel & McLaurin, 2004 cited in Giles, D. L., 2008). While an increasing concern for the centrality of the teacher-student relationship is apparent, how this relationship is viewed varies considerably. For some researchers, the critical aspect of the relationship is what happens ‘between’ the teacher and student (Hartrick Doane, 2002 cited in Giles, D. L., 2008). The relationship is described as ‘inter-personal’, in that the relationship involves
people, and exists ‘between’ those involved (Buber, 1996 cited in Giles, D.L., 2008). What lies between those relating is variously described as a space, a gap, or a dialectical opening. Inter-personal relating occurs ‘in’ the between and ‘across’ to the other person (Avnon, 1998; Metcalfe & Game, 2006 cited in Giles, D.L., 2008). These inter-actions occur as trans-actions exchanged from one person to the other ‘as’ relating. The relationship is experienced in the form of a “two dimensional, secularized” inter-action (Palmer, 1999, cited in Giles, D.L., 2008). In some cases these exchanges have been likened to a transmission, indicative of the directionality and nature of the exchange (Metcalfe & Game, 2006 cited in Giles, 2008). M.T., Claridge and T. Lewis (2005) have stated “The relationship you have with your learner is fundamental to the success of teaching. A good relationship will increase the learning your client gets, as well as making it much more enjoyable for you as a teacher. Designing the alliance you have with your learner is part of making this successful.”(P: 15). Kathy Paterson. (2005) has expressed “Rapport is that wonderful bond that allows teacher and students to work and learn well together. The powerful teacher creates this relationship early in the year and works to maintain it. When good rapport has been established, students and teachers enjoy one another and the class, and students feel more motivated to do well.”(P: 69).

3.1.2. Teacher Learner Rapport/ Relationship and its Implications on Learners

An effective English learning classroom environment is one in which students and teachers interact in ways that allow students to have an opportunity to maximize how much they learn. Teaching in not as easy as presenting information and assigning work; teaching, like any form of communication, is a two-way street. There needs to be some kind of understood relationship between the teacher and the students so that the exchange of language and information results in students’ actual learning. That is why it is important to build a relationship with students. According to Johnson (1997), effective teaching involves a two-way communicative process initiated by a teacher who is well versed in the subject matter, caring, and able to establish and maintain classroom control and in such a setting students are continually attentive and progress in their learning.

More importantly, “Teacher behaviours have significant bearing on students’ motivation, goal setting, selection of learning strategies or interest in the course” (Wang et al, 2007, cited in Joan, S.B., et al ,2008:30). This indicates that transmitting information to pupils does not necessarily mean that learning is taking place. In order to
determine whether learning is occurring or taking place, there must be good teacher-student relationships along with the instructional interactions.

“Students can blossom or wither because of the affects, behaviours, and methods of a particular teacher” (Wang et al, 2007, cited in Joan, S.B., et al, 2008:30). In addition, “teacher behaviours can affect student motivation and interest in a subject or course and their approach to learning” (Wang et al, 2007, cited in Joan, S.B., et al, 2008:30). Then, the teacher should set a good example to the students and get along well with them. A good teacher should make his classes interesting and vivid. The students will respect their teacher and learn from him since “Teachers universally wish for their students to respect them” Susan, John and Bonnie (2004:25). This can motivate them to learn English hard. Furthermore, the teacher should take good care of the students as his own children. Care everything in their lives; make friends with them. This can facilitate teaching. In line with this, Lowman (2000, cited in Daniel Rogers, 2009:4) stated that “Rapport is established when teachers convey to students, through various means, that are interested in and care about them, and that this concern translates into a desire to help them learn.” In many schools, the teacher operates as the proverbial “sage on the stage” and the didactic lecture is the modal way of teaching. However, learners feel that the teacher is useless for them. This means that students’ deeper understanding can be achieved through dialogue and collaboration with their peers and their teachers. It can as well be argued that student-teachers relationship is fairly important in teaching and learning. In this vein, Daniel Rogers (2009) indicated that “The teaching and learning process is a collaborative endeavor.” (P: 1). Equally important, Aysha Fleming and Clare Hiller (2009) stated “Relationships in the classroom involve complex, dynamic processes of rapport, learning and power which are never fixed or unidirectional.” (P: 92). Positive relationships with teachers are also deemed crucial and influential to students’ learning. Characteristics such as “knowledge, enthusiasm, approachability, consistency, fairness, respect of students and making learning relevant to their lives are consistently identified as important to students” (Groves & Welsh, 2007 cited in Joan, S.B., et al, 2008:30).

A teacher who lacks self-esteem will find it difficult to make self-esteem of his students. A teacher who does not lead a warm atmosphere at class will find low spirits of students to learn. So the teachers’ role is very critical in language teaching. According to Biggs and Tang (2007), effective teaching is establishing a productive classroom climate. Teachers create a learning climate either through formal or informal
interactions with students. This climate is about how a teacher and students feel about and this naturally has strong effects on students’ learning. They further stated that the quality of the relationship set up between teachers and students, or within an institution, is referred to as its climate, the way the students feel about it.

Indeed, previous research has revealed that among different elements of motivation, the experience of the learner is one of the prominent characteristics that affects the interest in learning. Researchers have proved that successful language learners have positive learning experiences while those who fail in learning usually relate to negative experiences.

Nakata (2006) considered that learning success and positive learning experience are correlated. Positive and negative learning experiences are related directly to language learning success because a positive learning experience encourages learners and negative experience proves the defeat in learning. However, positive and negative learning experiences often occur in classroom or classroom-related activities and very often it is a matter of teacher-involvement. This conclusion was reinforced by the observation of Zhou and He (2005, cited in Yang, 2008:98) who investigated the learning of English in almost 100 secondary schools in China. They found that ‘teacher-student rapport’ was one of the most important factors which affected the learning of English in the eyes of students. In a similar respect, Tickle-Degnen and Rosenthal (1990, cited in Wenying and Guy, 2005:48) emphasized that “the presence of a high degree of rapport between individuals has been thought to create powerful interpersonal influence and responsiveness.” Significantly enough, Ehrman (1998, cited in Wenying and Guy, 2005) has quoted a number of learners’ comments from evaluations of language training programs to emphasize the importance of the role of learner-teacher rapport in language learning. Although learners do mention well-designed textbooks and a suitable curriculum as positive forces, their true enthusiasm is reserved for their teachers and the relationships the teacher establishes with them.

“Teachers, either inside the classroom or outside the classroom, exert a great deal of influence on establishing a good quality of teacher-student relationship.” (Barry, 1999 cited in Suxian and Thao, 2004:5). “In such an emotional climate the most important ingredients of effective teaching’ for teachers to build up, are to maintain and improve a positive relationship with students and provide respective materials to cater for students’ needs and interests” (Jones, 2004 cited in Suxian and Thao, 2004:5).
According to Barry (1999, cited in Suxian and Thao, 2004:5), “students are humans first and learners second”. Therefore, teachers need to attune to the feeling of any classroom as a social place where students are individuals and mix with teachers like their peers. They compete against each other, yet are longing to be appreciated and valued as human beings. Since human beings are social beings each student’s sense of well-being depends to a greater extent on interpersonal relationships. In line with this, Haslett (1987: 196) stated that “Establishing close relationship with others is essential for well-being and happiness. Through our interpersonal relationships, we establish our personal identity, express our thoughts and feelings, engage in collaborative activities with others and satisfy our needs for affiliation with others”. (Barry, 1999 cited in Suxian and Thao, 2004) added that teaching is fundamentally a person to person activity—a social happening during which the teacher and student are involved in teaching learning process….only by interpersonal interactions and group interaction can a teacher fulfil the necessary job of teaching. … teaching involves a great deal of person to person contact, and this enables us to be human. Furthermore, in the opinion of Barry (1999, cited in Suxian and Thao, 2004), how good the teacher’s relationship with students is largely decided by the quantity and quality of contact made with each student as an individual. According to Ramsden (1992, cited in Omo.A, 2010:63), “Good teaching means that teachers show great concern and respect for students”.

Similarly, according to Nightingale (1994), principles for enhancing high quality learning are 1) engaging feelings and values as well as intellectual development; 2) establishing an environment (physical and social) to support the achievement of high quality student learning –minimize anxieties and maximize enjoyment. In connection with this, Wenying and Guy (2005) stated that Price’s (1991) study showed that instructors play a significant role in the amount of anxiety each learner experiences in their classes. In answering the question “How can language learning be made less stressful”, Price (1991) offered very concrete suggestions, among which: “the most frequent observation made by these subjects was that they would feel more comfortable if the instructor were more like a friend helping them to learn and less like an authority figure making them perform” Crucially, Joseph Lowman (1995, cited in William and Bryan, 2001) argued that teachers must minimize the extent to which students experience negative emotions, such as anxiety and anger, and must attempt to create positive emotions in students such as self-efficacy and positive self-worth. This approach will help students feel that their teacher cares about them, encourage them to
become motivated to do their best work, and think of their teacher in highly positive ways. The positive effects of rapport do not stop with students—they affect teachers as well.

As teachers, our effective teaching is largely determined by the extent of our relationship skills with students. Students believe that their best learning behaviours occur when their teachers are committed to helping them, take time to know them personally. Similarly, Colker (2008, cited in Rosle M., et al., 2009:24) reported that teachers claimed there were four characteristics of an effective teacher which include “having a sound knowledge of subject matter take personal interest in each student, establish a caring or loving or warm atmosphere and lastly to show enthusiasm with students”. He also reported twelve characteristics of teachers that students believe are integral factors to effective teaching. These include passion, perseverance, willingness to take risks, pragmatism, patience, flexibility, respect, creativity, authenticity, love of learning, high energy and sense of humor.

According to Jones (2004, cited Suxian and Thao, 2004), a significant body of research shows that academic achievement and students’ behaviours are greatly influenced by the quality of the teacher-student relationship. The research suggests that the emotional aspect of the teacher-student relationship is much more important than the traditional advice on methods and techniques of lecturing would suggest (Ramsden, 1992). Ramsden’s (1992) research in Australia showed that interest in undergraduate students’ individual needs, help with difficulties in understanding and learning and creating a climate of trust between teachers and students are fairly important in quality teaching and learning. This means that the quality of the teacher (love, help, trust, concern for students) is more important than other teaching aspects.

“Good teacher-student relationship has openness or transparency, so each is able to risk directness and honesty with the other; caring, when each knows that he is valued by the other; interdependency (as opposed to dependency) of one on the other. Separateness, to allow each to grow and to develop his uniqueness, creativity and individuality; mutual needs meeting, so that neither’s needs are met to the detriment of the other’s needs.” Gordon (1994, cited in Suxian and Thao, 2004:7).

According to Hamre and Pianta (2006) “Student teacher relationships provide a unique entry point for educators and others working to improve the social and learning environments of schools and classrooms.”(P: 49). They added that “Middle school teachers who convey emotional warmth and acceptance as well as make themselves
available regularly for personal communication with students foster the positive relational processes characteristic of support. These supportive relationships help maintain students’ interests in academic and social pursuits, which in turn lead to better grades and more positive peer relationships.” (P: 49). In the same sense, Jones (2004, cited Suxian and Thao, 2004:7), states that “a teacher-student relationship is characterized by almost complete openness, in which we share a wide range of personal concerns and values with students; openness related to our reactions to and feelings about the school environment, with limited sharing of aspects reflecting our out of school life; an almost exclusive focus on a role-bound relationship that is, we share no personal feelings or reaction, but merely perform our instructional duties.”

Teachers’ “caring is much more than simply the creation of warm interpersonal relationships. It also involves encouraging dialogue with students regarding curricular and instructional decisions, listening to students’ concerns, ensuring that all students have an opportunity to experience success, and ensuring that learning is fun and interesting”. (Jones, 2004 cited Suxian and Thao, 2004:7). In a similar way, Stronge (2007) states “Caring is a broad term, maybe as broad as effectiveness itself”. He further adds “One study defines caring as an act of bringing out the best in students through affirmation and encouragement. Obviously, the characteristics of caring go well beyond knowing the students to include qualities such as patience, trust, honesty, and courage. Specific teacher attributes that show caring include listening, gentleness, understanding, knowledge of students as individuals, warmth and encouragement, and an overall love for children.” (P: 23).

Learners also show interest in learning mainly when they feel acknowledged by teachers as it conveys a certain kind of care. Effective teachers care about their students and demonstrate that they care in such a way that their students are aware of it. Several studies exploring what makes a good teacher show the importance of caring in the eyes of teachers and students. This means that it is a priority for teachers to show students that they are caring and supportive. “Caring teachers know students both formally and informally. They cease every and each opportunity in the classroom to keep the lines of communication open.” (Stronge 2007:23). He further adds many educational stakeholders emphasize that effective teachers know their students individually, not only understanding each student’s learning style and needs, but also understanding the student’s personality, likes and dislikes, and personal situations that may affect behaviour and performance in school. “An effective teacher should first of all be willing
to make efforts to understand the students. The more we know about our students, the
easier our teaching will be” (GU 1996, cited in Wang Jun kai, 2008:33).

Effective teachers care for the student first as a person, and second as a student. They respect each student as an individual. Research on caring teachers yields the following important points: Caring teachers who know their students create relationships that enhance the learning process (Peart & Campbell, 1999 cited in Stronge, 2007). Effective teachers consistently emphasize their love for children as one key element of their success (Brophy & good, 1986 cited in Stronge, 2007). Teachers who create a supportive and warm classroom climate tend to be more effective with all students. Caring teachers truly believe that each student has a right to a caring and competent teacher. Caring teachers appropriately respect confidentiality issues when dealing with students. Caring teachers regard the ethic of care and learning as important in educating students to their full potential. “When students are acknowledged in the classroom and feel understood by their teacher, their level of motivation will increase” (Megan Downs 2001, cited in Wang Jun kai, 2008:33). Teachers can create such a classroom environment by calling on students by name. Understanding students’ interests, learning style, language level and creating a classroom environment where students’ can express their opinions, are both valued and incorporated. “Knowing a student’s name can be a powerful motivator” Megan Downs (2001, cited in Wang Jun kai, 2008:33).

Calling pupils’ names is another motivating practice. In the view of Dale Carnegie, “we should be aware of the magic contained in a name and realize that this single item is wholly and completely owned by the person with whom we are dealing and nobody else. Remember that a person’s name is to that person the sweetest and most important sound in any language.” (1981:83). Much more recently, Bernaus (2010) said “Teachers, who address learners by name, talk about personal topics in the class, etc., will form closer relationships, and consequently help to create a cohesive learner group, and enhance learners’ classroom motivation.” (P: 185).

In the same direction, college research indicated that “addressing students by name” is a classroom teaching behavior that correlates positively and significantly with students’ overall evaluation of the instructor (Murray, 1985). In contrast, research on “uncomfortable courses” (i.e., courses most likely to cause “classroom communication apprehension” among students) reveals that such courses are more likely to be taught by
instructors who are perceived by their students as being unfriendly and who did not address students by their first name (Bowers, 1986).

Zhang and Ding (1996, cited in Yang, 2008:97) noted that a desirable disposition of a teacher always attracts students; students often transfer their ‘respect’ of the teacher to ‘fond of’ the course s/he teaches and finally convert this into motivation in learning. Beyond a demonstration of caring, an effective teacher establishes rapport and credibility with students by emphasizing, modeling, and practicing fairness and respect. Respect and equity are identified as the prerequisites of effective teaching in the eyes of students. In fact, students interviewed for their views on effective teachers consistently note the importance of fairness and respect at all levels of schooling—from elementary through high school. The elements of fairness and respect are highlighted in many studies. Moreover, they tell students what they need to do right. Furthermore, students expect teachers to treat them equitably—when they behave as well as misbehave—and to avoid demonstrations of favoritism. Effective teachers continually demonstrate respect and understanding, along with fairness regarding students’ cultural background, and gender. Students’ perceptions of teacher effectiveness emphasize the teacher impartiality in treating all students. The students expect teachers not to allow force to affect their treatment or expectations of students.

Students often associate respect with fairness and expect teachers to treat them as adults and not kids. Students perceive effective teachers as those who respect them and practice fairness. It is a good idea to get to know teachers and once that rapport is built you will always be known by name and not as a “learner”. Learners so often focus on the interpersonal aspects of the teaching and learning relations. In contrast, they don’t like those teachers who uphold a hierarchical structure and keep themselves distant from learners.

In terms of teacher-student relations, a feeling of concern, care, support, and respect for students and positive teacher-student interactions will be associated with positive motivational outcomes.

Teacher-student rapport is a highlighted area in any educational system. This is because “the teacher-student relationship plays an important role in determining the atmosphere of the teaching environment and this combination influences the quality of learning that takes place” (Chambers, 1999 cited in Yang, Y., 2008:97). Thus the teacher-student relationship plays an extremely important part in the success or failure of teaching and learning. The relationship is important for development of interest in
and the learning (good teacher and helpful friend) is consistent with establishment of interest in the course on the part of students with the help of their teachers.

Research has been conducted by Zhang, Shi and Tan (2003, cited in Yang, Y., 2008) on Secondary school students to evaluate their relationships with their teachers. Zhang and her colleagues found that the students’ main environment was the school and they tried to adjust themselves to be accepted, to be liked or to be appreciated by their teachers. When the students were in an ideal student-teacher relationship, they would feel capable and healthy in mind; they were confident and had high self-esteem. Consequently, they adopted a positive attitude.

It follows from this that the students who were in a safe student-teacher relationship, concentrated well and more often with a positive attitude to learning so as to enhance their learning efficiency. In contrast, a bad teacher-student relationship would always threaten the students and they constantly feared seeing the teacher. This emphasizes the idea that student-teacher rapport played an essential role and provided students with chances to talk to their teachers, to bridge the gaps and consequently facilitated learning outcomes.

Teacher-student rapport is critical not because it is the development of a personal relationship, but it emphasizes more the role for teachers in understanding students through the teaching process and in return helps students to develop interest in learning. Teacher-student rapport becomes a measure to understand academic performance of students. It appears that those who have a close contact with their English teachers often are interested in learning English.

More and more teachers and researchers emphasize that affective factors of students in English learning should be concerned in the English classroom. Modern English classroom has seen a gradual shift from teacher-dominated to student-centered one and therefore affective factors play a crucial part of the bidirectional communication between teachers and students. Teachers should develop students’ positive affection to learn English, make sure full participation of students. Since then, the teaching strategy is changed from teacher-instructing to student-centered teaching to boost the teaching of the English language.

In the process of English teaching, teachers should pay more attention to establishing certain relationships with their learners. A harmonious and pleasant climate in the classroom can help to reduce the anxiety of learners, attract the focus of learners when learning English and form emotional bonds between learners and teachers at the
same time. Teachers can create the classroom a welcoming and relaxing place where psychological needs are met and language anxiety is kept to a minimum. (Oxford & Shearin, 1994). According to Gage and Berliner (1991, cited in Xu and Huang, 2010:194), students learn best in a non-threatening environment. This is one area where humanistic educators have had an impact on current educational practice. The orientation espoused today is that the environment should be psychologically and emotionally, as well as physically, non-threatening.

Significant learning can be facilitated by establishing an interpersonal relationship between the facilitator and the learner. Teachers should treat their learners as individuals with specific needs to be met and provide them with trust and empathic understanding. Through the understanding and promotion of inner factors, students’ learning strategies and even their learning outcomes would be of much distinction compared with what they did before. According to Gage and Berliner (1991, cited in Xu and Huang, 2010:193), feelings are as important as facts.

Teachers play a key role in the academic achievements of their learners, they depend heavily on their teachers, especially for English courses. Meece (1991, cited in Yang, 2008:96) claimed that teachers who motivate students to learn often develop intrinsic motivation in students to learn for the sake of knowledge. Significantly, Pintrinck and Schunk (1996) claimed that “enthusiastic teachers help foster students’ interest and motivation in learning” (p.171). Ramsden et al., (1995, cited in Trigwell, 2001; cited in Melek .Ç, 2009:75) states that researchers generally list some characteristics of good teaching as follows:

• Good teachers are also good learners.
• Good teachers display enthusiasm for their subject, and a desire to share it with their students.
• Good teachers know how to modify their teaching strategies according to the particular students, subject matter, and learning environment.
• Good teachers encourage learning for understanding and are concerned with developing their students’ critical thinking skills, problem-solving skills, and problem approach behaviours.
• Good teachers demonstrate an ability to transform and extend knowledge, rather than merely transmitting it.
• Good teachers set clear goals, use valid and appropriate assessment methods, and provide high quality feedback to their students.
• Good teachers show respect for their students; they are interested in both their professional and their personal growth, encourage their independence, and sustain high expectations of them.

In foreign language teaching, we can ask what are the students’ feelings or perspectives. They can not only provide teachers with helpful information to organize and plan future activities, but also can motivate the students to learn completely by themselves. Navid Nunan (1999, cited in Wang Jun kai, 2008:33) lists, “Allowing learners to bring their own knowledge and perspectives into the learning process” as one of the most significant ways to increase students’ motivation. This “prizing” of the student’s feelings and opinions makes the classroom truly learner-centered (Rogers 1980, cited in Wang Jun kai, 2008).

In the dynamic process of teaching and learning, a teacher should give a greater sense of equality and professional maturity to every learner, value learner’s self worth as a human being rather than only judge the quality of learners by their academic achievement. Through interaction with learners and a genuine concern for learners and help with their personal troubles, each learner’s own potential as a human being should be recognized and developed.

The teacher’s teaching has been shown to be an important part of effective teaching, both in supporting positive relationships with students and in encouraging student achievement. Teachers can effectively motivate most students by encouraging them to be responsible for their own learning, maintaining an organized classroom environment, setting high standards, assigning appropriate challenges, and providing reinforcement and encouragement during tasks.

These students see effective teachers as motivational leaders. Research indicates that effective teachers have residual positive effects on their students’ willingness to work to their potential and beyond. Consequently, less effective teachers may actually extinguish students’ interest in the subject and demotivate them.

Good teachers realize and deal with the fact that some students prefer to sit quietly on the sideline; however, they do not stop involving them. By finding a way to motivate a student to learn, a teacher contributes to a student’s evolving attitude toward a particular subject or activity. In other words, the teacher can bring out the best in that student. An effective teacher recognizes that students vary in their motivation levels. An effective teacher knows how to support intrinsically motivated students and seeks ways to provide extrinsic motivation to students who need it.
Motivating students consists of making students receptive to and excited about learning, as well as making them aware of the importance and value of learning itself. By establishing positive attitudes and perceptions about learning, the effective teacher makes the learner feel comfortable in the classroom. As a particular example of establishing positive attitudes, teachers who provide mastery learning techniques for their students improve the attitudes of their students. They also increase academic self-concept, interest in the subject area, and the desire to learn more about the subject. Emphasizing higher mental processes along with mastery learning strategies tends to create a learning environment that is exciting and constantly new and playful.

Researchers have investigated the influence of teacher on student motivation and learning, with the following results and conclusions: High levels of motivation in teachers relate to high levels of achievement in students. Teachers’ enthusiasm for learning and for the subject matter under study has been shown to be an important factor in student motivation, which is closely linked to student achievement.

Some studies indicate that the enthusiasm factor is more significant with older students than younger ones, but effective primary teachers also have demonstrated enthusiasm for their work as part of their overall effectiveness. Brown (1988, cited in Patrick J. Eggleton, 1992) presented five postulates for establishing and maintaining an atmosphere of mutual respect between teachers and students: teaching is interaction that facilitates learning, differences must not only be tolerated, they must be affirmed, values are neither right nor wrong; they simply exist in all of us, freedom to choose is one of the most precious rights we have. Those who dare to teach must never cease to learn.

Even though these statements seem basic to any foundation of education, they are seldom fully used. For instance, the second postulate encourages the affirmation of differences; yet most teachers treat all students alike. All students can do the same work; they can all be treated the same way. Such attitudes interrupt the interaction that is being nurtured. Not all students want to go to college; not all students want to make a lot of money or live as middle class citizens. When a teacher can accept those differences, the teacher has opened a door to interaction.

In brief, many studies have proven that both teachers and students will pay the price if teachers neglect to form emotionally warm, supportive relationships with and among their students. To improve students’ chances for academic success, educators must strive to form meaningful personal relationships with students.
3.2. The Teacher Personality Traits

In fact, the term personality evolved, expanded and developed over the centuries. Thus, it became increasingly difficult to generate a single definition of personality. The development and expansion of the definition of personality led to diverse definitions that attempted to explain this concept. “The first main issue that emerges when we examine ‘personality’ is the recognition that different scholars use the term rather differently, to cover different breadths of human nature.” Dörnyei, (2005:11).

3.2.1. Defining Personality

Personality is a psychological concept. No single, simplistic, all encompassing definition of personality exists. Today a very broad definition of what personality is, includes: (a) the social dimension of individuals’ functioning; (b) general behavioural patterns, and (c) human nature, or individual differences (Liebert & Spiegler, 1997). According to Dörnyei (2005) personality is defined as one’s “whole character and nature” in the Collins Cobuild Dictionary. In the eyes of Pervin and John (2001, cited in Dörnyei, 2005) “personality represents those characteristics of the person that account for consistent patterns of feeling, thinking, and behaving” (p: 11).

Few decades ago, “personality may be viewed as the dynamic organization of those traits and characteristic patterns of behaviour that are unique to the individual” Callahan (1966, cited in William J.F. Lew, 1977: 9). According to Larsen and Buss (2005) personality is the collection of psychological traits and mechanisms innate to individuals. These psychological traits and mechanisms are organized and relatively stable and enduring and influence individuals’ interactions with, and adaptations to, the intrapsychic, physical, and social environments. According to Gerard and Lewis (2003) Allport in 1937 reviewed the concept of personality and proposed the following definition “personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment” (P: 1). In Gerard and Lewis (2003) vision, other ways of defining personality emphasize more external types of attributes, such as the role one assumes or the status one has achieved in society, one’s external appearance (including personal attractiveness), and the reactions of others to the individual as a stimulus—that is, the person’s social stimulus value. More recently, Dörnyei (2005) states that personality, without any doubt, is the most individual characteristic of a human being.
3.2.2. Teaching and the Teacher Personality and its Implication on Learners

Teaching is a very complex activity that is affected by, among other factors, the personality of the teacher. In this respect, Nora Fauziah Yaakub has stated that “One important teacher quality that can either facilitate or hinder the teaching-learning process is teacher personality.” (1990:139). In the same vein, Murray (1972, cited in Nora F. Y., 1990:139) holds the same view and argues that “personality influences the behaviour of the teacher in diverse areas - interaction with students, methods selected and educational experiences chosen”. In a similar respect, Aidla, A. & Vadi, M. (2010) have stated “Considering the importance of personality traits among teachers, society members have high expectations of teachers. For example, they should be calm, stable, positive, warm, sociable, orderly, disciplined etc. Therefore, it is important to know the extent to which teachers’ personality traits are in accordance with these requirements” (P: 592). Therefore, beside the duty of educators and scholars to provide learning settings to enhance cognitive development and intellectual achievement, it became apparent that nonintellectual factors also deserve educators’ attention. As Pine and Boy (1997, cited in Xu and Huang, 2010 :192-193) have expressed “pupils feel the personal emotional structure of the teacher long before they feel the impact of the intellectual content offered by that teacher”. In a similar vein, Barry (1999, cited in Suxian and Thao, 2004:5) has pointed out “Teachers’ work is to nurture each student and maximize not only his or her intellectual achievement but also social, emotional and spiritual growth”. In the same respect, Stronge (2007) has stated “Studies suggest that instructional and management processes are key to effectiveness, but many interview and survey responses about effective teaching emphasize the teacher’s affective characteristics, or social and emotional behaviors, more than pedagogical practice.” (P: 22). Significantly enough, Palmer (1998, cited in William and Bryan, 2001) said “. . . in every class I teach, my ability to connect with students, and to connect them with the subject, depends less on the methods I use than on the degree to which I know and trust my selfhood-and am willing to make it available and vulnerable in the service of learning.”

It follows from this that the school is no longer seen as a place where knowledge and skills are taught and learned. It is rather regarded as a community in itself where members such as: teachers and learners interact and influence the behaviour of each other. The nature of interactions and influences in the school is an important factor in determining the learner’s perceptions of their teachers. This factor involves the interplay
between the personality of the teacher and that of the learner. Lauren E. D. & Sara E. R. (2008) have stated that investigating the personalities of teachers is not a novel idea, although most inquiries are not recent.

In the last decades, research on teacher personality has focused on teacher as a crucial factor in influencing the learner and the learning process and distinguished the teacher from the used instructional materials. It has been pointed out that “the teacher is a person engaged in interactive behaviour with one or more students for the purpose of effecting a change in those students. The change, whether it is to be in knowledge (cognitive), skill (psychomotor) or feeling states (affective), is intentional on the part of the teacher” McNeil and Popham, (1973, cited in William J.F. Lew, 1977: 9). Yet, the essential task of the teacher is to exhibit the characteristics necessary to motivate a class is a careful process and arrange the conditions of the learner’s environment so that the processes of learning will be activated, supported, enhanced, and maintained.

The effective use of a teacher’s personality is essential in motivating and conducting instructional activities. Personality underpins teaching and encourages communication to take place between the teacher and the learner even in the absence of the spoken word. That is to say, a nonverbal communication. In accordance with this, Christophel (1990, cited in Zebedee, T., 2009) explained that there is a direct link between teacher verbal and nonverbal behaviour and student learning. In the same vein, Andrew lock and Kim Symes (1999) have stated “The human body can be used as a vehicle for communication in two ways: by itself, or as a support for a number of ‘props’. In the first category would be placed gestures, facial expressions and so on. (P: 205).

Each individual has characteristic attributes of personality which influence both the manner in which he behaves towards others and the ways in which they respond to him. In line with this, Magno, C & Sembrano, J. (2007:78) have said “The content of teacher effectiveness includes some aspects of the teachers’ personality that are necessary in teaching such as being tolerant, having a good sense of humor, being warm and friendly, and being concerned about students”. The teacher with pervasive authoritarian characteristics, for instance, is likely to reflect them in his relationships with students and in the techniques he uses in his instruction. This authoritarian control is often destructive to students.

This indicates clearly that learners prefer to learn and enjoy learning in a non threatening environment. The quality of the teacher characteristic is a vital factor in
encouraging learning and growth of learners. The information, skills and habits a student receives during the primary school years through interaction with his teacher and the leaning environment will have great influence on his future educational life. Therefore, a student has to be provided with faultless educational environment by allowing a classroom atmosphere that encourages their personal development. In such an atmosphere, the personality and behaviours of a teacher are vital elements. Every student should be able to improve and recognize himself, and gain social skills in this appropriate learning environment.

Teachers’ personality in teaching learning process seems to be the most significant factor to raise students’ motivation to learn in meaningful ways mainly for students who have low value in the goal of understanding, negative attitudes towards learning, and low quality of task engagement. That is, students require extensive teachers’ support to energize their efforts to engage in learning for understanding. “The teacher whose personality helps create and maintain a classroom or learning environment in which students feel comfortable and in which they are motivated to learn is said to have a desirable teaching personality” Callahan (1966, cited in William J.F. Lew, 1977: 9).

Many of the positive characteristics of successful teachers discovered by previous research efforts seem to be in line with Maslow's conceptualization of the self-actualizing person, whom he sees as a fully functioning, psychologically healthy individual possessing such attributes as acceptance, spontaneity, autonomy, democratic nature, and creativeness. Maslow (1970) suggests that the self-actualizing person is indeed the most effective teacher. He concluded that the pupils perceived the effective teacher as a warm, friendly and supportive person who communicates clearly, motivates and disciplines pupils effectively, and is flexible in methodology.

More recent studies have showed that “the personality of a teacher surely affect his students” Aydin (1998, cited in Ozel, A., 2007:75). Especially in the studies carried out in the classroom environment, “it is observed that students, while evaluating their teachers, pay more attention to their personalities than their professional characteristics and thus adopt them as their own behaviours” (Tan, 1992, Soner, 1995, Lewis, 2000 cited in Ozel, A., 2007:75). This demonstrates that teachers are the ones among others who influence the student most and the school is the main environmental factor effective in the development of personality.
Many recent studies focus on the effects of the interaction between students and teachers in classroom environment. Thus, the role of teaching stages in directing learning that is shaped with the effect of personality for all the teachers will be emphasized. These variables presented by the teacher after being shaped by his personality become the main determinants of the student and the learning environment. Here, the teacher is not only a concrete model with his personality but also a guide to direct the personality development in academic behaviours.

The personality of a teacher is very important in the academic interaction that evolves in teaching experiences. Ausbel, Flanders and Hamachek defined the four main personal traits a student would like to see in a teacher as sincerity, patience, tolerance and attention (cited in Oktay, 1994 cited in Ozel, A., 2007).

A teacher, being aware of the importance of his profession, should be able to control the reflections of his personal traits on his teaching experiences while furnishing the students with necessary information and skills. For this purpose, they should be aware of their profession and have a professional perspective. The following suggestions are formed in this regard. Teachers should observe the behaviours of his peers and be a model for students with their behaviours, because students are tend to imitate those whom they love, accept and adopt as it has already been stated at the very beginning of our study. Yet, Teachers should be able to reflect their own personalities that act as a reinforcement agent in forming and perpetuating positive behaviours in students onto the learning environment. A teacher should never forget that he is a model for his students and for the society, and thus, accordingly, act and talk coherently. A teacher should never have prejudices either towards students or to other people, should have a vision, and should be respectful to his own personality as well as to other people.

While “personality” characteristics can influence perceptions of effective teaching and may lead to individual preferences for teaching and learning, the essential qualities associated with effective teaching are acquired, refined, and renewed over a teaching career. There are several reasons for attributing such immense importance to the personality of a teacher.

The first and foremost is that the personality of the teacher influences his/her relationship with pupils. In a study carried by Sehgal (1955, cited in Ajapa, B., 2009:75) he found that “children liking those teachers best who were calm and relaxed, gave them a feeling of security, and used to physical punishment. A well balanced, non-anxious teacher can create a healthy emotional climate of learning and would be at ease
with his/her pupils”. “Researches show that learning in the classroom is an emotional experience, and the younger the people, the more true is this statement” Sehgal (1955, cited in Ajapa, B., 2009:75). The process of learning in the classroom is accompanied and accelerated by positive affect and relaxed atmosphere. Fear of teachers can inhibit learning.

In another study, Sehgal (1994, 1996 cited in Ajapa, B., 2009) discovered that pupils rated those teachers as most effective who were mentally healthy, stable, warm, and nurturant; and pupils scored maximum marks in subjects taught by the teachers they liked the most. An over-anxious teacher with negative attitude towards pupils may unconsciously transfer his/her tensions and unresolved neurotic conflicts to pupils via his/her disturbed emotional interactions with pupils, for example, he/she may continuously denigrate good pupils, and be overcritical, nagging, cynical, over-restrictive, and oppressive in the class. Such a teacher is also aggressive and hostile. Unresolved neurotic conflicts may force the teacher to be sadistic, and suppress creativity and spontaneity of pupils. An egocentric and narcissistic teacher may undermine brilliant students. “Pupils are at the receiving end of these unhealthy behaviour patterns of teachers; and pupils’ achievement, mental health and liking for a subject are invariably linked with the teacher’s personality” (Sehgal and Kaur, 1995; Sehgal, 1996 cited in Ajapa, B., 2009:75).

Furthermore, Research indicates that certain personality characteristics influence student evaluations of teachers. From the students’ points of view, teacher-expressive characteristics such as “warmth, enthusiasm, and extroversion apparently separate effective from ineffective teachers” (Basow, 2000; Basow & Silberg, 1987; Best & Addison, 2000; Bousfield, 1940; Cravens, 1996; Feldman, 1986; Guerrero & Miller, 1998; Marsh & Roche, 1997; Radmacher & Martin, 2001, cited in Arbuckle et al, 2003:507).

More recently, Zhu (2001, cited in Yang, Y., 2008:98) commented that student’s like or dislike of a course is connected with their early learning experiences. Those who experienced failure in learning were likely to be rebuked and their learning incentives withered, leaving no more interest in the course. In contrast, those who liked the course showed strong interest in it.

These observations are consistent with the notion that the teacher’s personality was closely related to learning success of students. A similar conclusion was reached by Yang (2004, cited in Yunbao Y., 2008:98) who also considered that it was difficult for
students to experience success when the teacher’s personality was harsh and cold. In the same vein, Ushioda said “if students like the teacher, they enjoy the class, are satisfied with their learning experiences, and have positive behavioral attitudes toward the study of the target language regardless of the instructional format (i.e., traditional face-to-face, on-line, or hybrid).”(2005:68).

A good teacher’s personal qualities and characteristics should be “being natural, being warm, being pleasant, being approachable and being tolerant”. Barry (1999, cited in Suxian and Thao, 2004:7) “Students prefer teachers who are warm and friendly” (Jones, 2004: 78 cited in Suxian and Thao, 2004:7). As a teacher, he or she should create a friendly learning environment through a close rapport with learners by way of interpersonal interaction and communication between them. A teacher should be easily approached, have patience, remember students’ names and give a constructive judgement to learners’ assignment.

Certain personality characteristics allow a teacher to be effective and to be rated highly by his or her students. “Teacher effectiveness on the other hand is composed of characteristics that discriminates good teachers from bad teachers” Young & Shaw (1999, cited in Magno, C & Sembrano, J., 2007:79). The content of teacher effectiveness includes some aspects of the teachers’ personality that are necessary in teaching such as being tolerant, having a good sense of humor, being warm and friendly, and being concerned about students. In fact, the specific behaviours used by teachers may vary greatly even though they are implementing the same teaching program, or even presenting the same lesson.

Based on the reviewed literature, there is a wide variation on how personality characteristics of teachers are conceptualized in different studies. Because of this wide array of differences, different components of personality characteristics have also been used. This is primarily due to a wide selection of theories explaining an individual’s personality. Pervin and John (2001, cited in Dörnyei, 2005) have cited that “Personality is such a crucial aspect of psychology that every main branch of psychological research has attempted to contribute to the existing knowledge in this area. Thus, the scope of theorizing can be as broad as the differences among the various paradigms in psychology. This is why the field of personality is “filled with issues that divide scientists along sharply defined lines and lead to alternative, competing schools of thought”. (P: 12). In the same direction, David C.Funder. (2001) has stated “Personality is unique in psychology by being historically based upon several different widely
encompassing paradigms: psychoanalytic, trait, behaviorist, and humanistic. Each has sought to subsume not just all of personality, but all of psychology, as befits personality psychology’s integrative mission.‖ (P: 198).

Magno, C & Sembrano, J. (2007) have stated the following: (1) Grindler and Straton (1990), Grant & Cambre (1990), and Katz (1992) used the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) results to help teachers develop different teaching methods and more readily accept a variety of materials and technology; (2) Henson and Chambers (2003) also used the factors of the MBTI to predict teaching efficacy and classroom control orientation; (3) Erdle, Murray, and Rushton (1985), Henry and Rohwer (2004), Murray, Rushton, and Paunonen (1990), and Teachout (1997) studied personality as a collective of individual behavior, such as ambition, intelligence, sense of humor, or others; (4) Madsen, Standley, and Cassidy (1989), and Yarbrough and Madsen (1998) operationalized personality as teacher intensity or enthusiasm. Despite the different ways of operationalizing personality as a variable among teachers, there is evidence of the relationship between personality of teachers and effective teaching. There are numerous studies showing that personality is a significant predictor of effective teaching (Krueger 1972; Murray, Rushton, & Paunonen 1990; Schmidt, Lewis, & Kurpius-Brock, 1991, cited in Magno, C & Sembrano, J., 2007). Aidla, A. & Vadi, M. (2010) indicated that how crucial role teachers’ personality plays in the effectiveness of their work was already actively researched as much as 50 years ago and the idea that a teacher’s personality is of paramount importance for the total social and emotional growth and adjustment of his or her pupils was also discussed.

In sum, in spite of all the efforts that have been made by a huge number of researchers, they view that research on the teacher’s personality is scanty. However, the personality of the teacher has proved to be a distinguished factor with its various components which have been in a way or another conceptualized under different studies. “Personality has been conceptualized from a variety of theoretical perspectives, and at various levels of abstraction or breadth (John, Hampson, & Ggoldberg, 1991; McAdams, 1995). Each of these levels has made unique contributions to our understanding of individual differences in behavior and experience.” Oliver P.John and Sanjay Srivastava. (1999: 102).
3.3. The Teacher Teaching Style

Although the teacher’s personality is of great importance in motivating students as we have previously seen, teachers can also elicit students’ desires to learn by a variety of teaching techniques which give shape to their teaching style.

In fact, many educators have argued that style is important in teaching. However, identifying its elements as teachers has proved to be difficult. Traditionally, the concept of style has been viewed in a perjorative manner. Eble (1980, cited in Grasha, 1996:1) stated that “It has been confused with affectation, denigrated as a kind of posturing to mask a lack of substance, or tolerated as a natural manifestation of personal eccentricities”. This means that in order to define style, to understand it, to develop it, and to use it effectively urges us to move beyond the negative sense in which it is sometimes perceived.

3.3.1. Defining the Teacher’s Teaching Style

It has been argued that the term of teaching style itself has no completely agreed upon definition. This indicates that this term has received a plethora of definitions. “Style in teaching as in art, music, athletics, managing people, and other areas of endeavour is not something that is put on for the occasion. Otherwise it becomes a superficial covering, mask, or a collection of interesting mannerisms that are used to create an impression” (Grasha, 1996:1).

Other definitions of teaching style used by different authors have been found in Grasha (1996:3). “… a complex array of mental, spiritual and physical acts affecting others.” (Eble, 1976: 8), “… choosing, preparing, speaking, listening, responding, testing, grading the details of one’s craft.” (Granrose, 1980: 24), “… outstanding teachers are enablers… They are student-centered, engaging their students close-up, … they are facilitating, encouraging, mauiic”. (Macorie, 1984: 177), “…teaching is a performing art. Excellent teachers use their voices, gestures, and movements to elicit and maintain attention and to stimulate student’s emotions. Like other performers, teachers must convey a strong sense of presence, of highly focused energy.” (Lowman, 1984: 13-14), “Teaching calls for the trained eye to see what is actually happening, and the trained mind to decide what to do next.”(Davis, 1993: 8) “…the openness we have to questions and opposing points of view, our willingness to risk change in ourselves…” (McKeachie, 1994: 383).

Other definitions found in the literature include the following: “Teaching style refers to the totality of instructional approaches, methods, and decisions a teacher
prefers and feels most comfortable with Reid (1995, 1998, cited in Matt, P., 2000:88). This means that, teaching style refers to the way teachers teach, which includes their distinctive mannerisms, complemented by their teaching behaviours and choice of instructional strategies. A teacher’s predominant teaching style affects the way he or she presents information and how he or she interacts with students. The manner and pattern of those interactions with students shows clearly his or her effectiveness in promoting student motivation and learning.

Teaching style, the last variable of concern in this study, has also been defined as a label associated with various acquirable and identifiable sets of consistent classroom behaviours by the teacher regardless of the content that is being taught. In other words, “teaching style is the expression of the totality of one’s philosophy, beliefs, values, and behaviours” and it “includes the implementation of [this] philosophy; it contains evidence of beliefs about, values related to, and attitudes towards all the elements of the teaching-learning exchange” (Jarvis, 2004 cited in Ramin, A., Gholam, R.K., Mohsen I.N., & Nabi K.A. 2008:7). It follows that one’s teaching style is a set of beliefs and behaviours displayed by teachers in their classrooms to influence the method of instruction, type of assessment, classroom management, teacher-student interactions, and emotional climate of the classroom.

3.3.2. Teachers’ Style and its Implications on Learners

Teachers know that without proper motivation for students to engage in the learning process, their teaching will be unsuccessful. The motivation level of learners is one of the most important factors in successful instruction. Clearly enough, students who are motivated to learn will have greater success than those who are not, and students who learn well will be more motivated to do so in the future. In this context, teachers present content through a variety of teaching strategies to attract individual students’ interests and to respond to their learning preferences.

In the same vein, it is stated that teaching style is a very influential factor in students’ learning experiences and is a critical component in determining the extent of students’ learning since teachers provide the “vital human connection between the content and the environment and the learners” (Heimlich & Norland 1994, cited in Ramin, A., et al, 2008:7) and because it stems from an educational philosophy that lends direction and purpose to a teacher’s teaching. Thus, teaching style is both something that defines us, that guides and directs our instructional processes, and that has effects on students and their ability to learn.
This claim about the effectiveness of teaching style is supported by a comprehensive body of research, especially in mainstream education, which links it also to student achievement outcomes. Yet, teachers must be comfortable with themselves as well as with the tasks they are using in their lessons. In connection with this, Palardy and Palardy (1987, cited in Patrick J. Eggleton, 1992) point out that “regardless of the cause, and regardless of the teachers' years of experience, teachers who are uneasy are going to communicate that uneasiness to their pupils. When this happens, the door to restlessness among pupils is wide open” (p. 87). As a teacher attains sincere concern for the students while allowing humour and expectations to increase, students’ restlessness will decrease and learning tasks will motivate students more easily. Also important to any learning experience is the interaction between the teacher and students.

In his book High Impact Teaching, Brown (1988, cited in Patrick J. Eggleton, 1992) emphasized the following statements repeatedly: “Teaching is interaction that facilitates learning if you can’t interact with them, you can’t teach them” (P: 10). The reason many teachers cannot interact with students is that they have not developed respect for the students. Indeed, the latter has already been cited in building rapport with learners. This further strengthens the interrelatedness between the foundation of good relationships with learners and teaching them. According to Conti (2004, cited in Liu, Qiao & Liu, 2006:78), “the term teaching style refers to the distinct qualities displayed by a teacher that are consistent from situation to situation regardless of the material being taught.”

Brown (1988, cited in Patrick J. Eggleton, 1992) states that “regardless of the lifestyle pursued, its quality is improved by the knowledge and skills acquired through active participation in the learning process” (P: 36). According to Grasha (1996), teaching style is viewed as a particular pattern of needs, beliefs, and behaviours that teachers display in the classroom. He also states that style is multidimensional and affects how teachers present information, interact with students, manage classroom tasks, supervise coursework, socialize students to the field, and mentor students.

Teachers who feel they can come in and teach their subject matter without taking the initiative to learn more about their students’ interests are losing a great motivational technique. For many teachers, learning about their students’ lives will be a unique challenge; yet it is essential in order to be the type of teacher that will truly impact students’ lives.
The teaching techniques discussed have dealt specifically with promoting interaction and participation in the classroom. There are several other techniques that have been found to be very motivational. One of these techniques is cooperative learning. Again, an important aspect about any technique used is that it must allow the teacher to feel comfortable with its implementation. Students take time to develop answers to important questions, share their answers with a partner, and then reveal their results to the class in order to encourage the participation of each student in the class.

In classroom, teachers can use this method to help shorten the amount of time spent reviewing homework. Each student has a class partner with whom to compare the solutions to difficult problems. If a pair requires help after discussing a problem, they all review the difficult problem as a class. Since the desired outcome of any motivational strategy is participation by each student, this type of cooperative learning can be a very effective strategy for teachers to use. In this direction, Sandra Griffiths (2003) has stated “The interpersonal and interactive nature of small groups makes them a challenging and appropriate vehicle for engaging students in their own learning. Students are engaged in small groups, both as learners and as collaborators in their own intellectual, personal and professional development.” (P: 93). Besides, she added “It is within the small group that self confidence can be improved, and teamwork and interpersonal communication developed.” (P: 93). She further explained that successful small group teaching and learning does not happen by chance. Planning for effective small group teaching is as important as planning any other teaching activity.

What has been developed so far portrays the idea that the traditional stereotype of teachers as people who stand in front of the classroom and teach learners has been at odds for many years now. Traditional teachers are usually serious and primarily concerned with educating students on the subject matter. Their classroom instruction consists mostly of lecture where students listen, take notes, and are then given some type of formal assessment such as a quiz or test. Group activities, class discussion, or any type of collaborative learning usually does not occur. In this vein, M.T., Claridge and Tony Lewis (2005) have stated “Traditionally, teaching and training was about telling students what they needed to know. As the teacher, we knew what the curriculum was; we had our own agenda. The power here with the teacher.” (P: 15). The classroom of a traditional teacher is highly structured and organized. There is never very much noise. Students are rarely encouraged to disagree or debate any issues. There are established rules and clear consequences for anyone who may break these rules. In
many classrooms, traditional teachers are perceived as figures of authority and rarely exhibit an overly friendly relationship with their students. They conduct class in a formal classroom environment by sending the message, “I am in charge,” thus creating a rather cool climate (Grasha, 1994).

Conversely, teaching in the modern context involves the task of assisting students to make worthwhile and satisfying adjustments to school work, to social groups, and to their occupations. Since the main duty of teachers is to get the individual student to learn, it is their duty also to remove obstacles and to motivate at whatever stage of learning to allow successful learning to take place. In line with this, Suxian Zhan and Thao Le. (2004) point out “As a teacher, he or she should facilitate each student’s way of perceiving, understanding and constructing new knowledge by means of providing ‘scaffolding’ to help them transform”. (P:3). They further add “teacher’s role changes from that of being a ‘sage’ to transmit knowledge to that of a facilitator to ‘guide on the side’ students’ learning behaviours.” (P: 4).

These progressive teachers are usually energetic and equally concerned with keeping their students educated and entertained in order to hold their attention and interest. Their classroom instruction is quite active consisting of class discussion, collaborative learning, and group projects. The teacher may use everyday life experiences and personal stories to accentuate an idea in the curriculum. The source of the majority of their grades comes from projects, presentations, and participation. In the classroom, students talk as they discuss issues, debate, and voice their opinions. This rather promotes open communication and increases interaction. Progressive teachers are perceived as supportive and nurturing. They convey the message, “I am here to consult with you” (Grasha, 1994). The nature and quality of student-teacher interactions are different. Teachers and students work together, share information, and the boundaries between them are not as formal. A warmer emotional climate exists giving students more opportunities to express themselves, ask questions, and discuss personal experiences. Teachers are expected not only to impact knowledge but also to foster adjustment of students; understand student’s basic cognitive and social problems. In this respect, Fairclough (1992, cited in Aysha and Clare, 2009:93) stated that “While traditional classrooms offer few choices in what can be learned and how it can be learned, choice can be made available in relationship interactions and learning styles”. This means that teachers enable real choice for students and empower them as real
participants in the classroom where everyone can share authority and power and can critique others’ viewpoints.

Motivation is, as it has been pointed previously, an important element that affects students’ learning experiences. Teachers should, therefore, labour to find out values that affect the motivation of their students so that necessary and right actions can be taken to ensure students’ successful and enjoyable learning experiences. It has been stated on many occasions that motivating students is one of the most difficult tasks facing teachers. Highly successful teachers find ways to involve students in setting their own goals, to vary the ways of learning to use approaches that employ all of the senses, and to develop opportunities for relating the knowledge to real experiences. This explains why student motivation naturally has to do with students’ desire to participate in the learning process. But, it also concerns the reasons or goals that underlie their involvement or noninvolvement in academic activities.

Much of the recent research on student motivation has heavily focused on the classroom, where the majority of learning takes place, and where students are most likely to acquire a strong motivation to gain new knowledge. Making the classroom a place that naturally motivates students to learn is much easier when students and teachers function in an atmosphere where academic success and the motivation to learn are expected and rewarded. Such an atmosphere, especially when motivation to learn evolves into academic achievement, is a chief characteristic of an effective school (Renchler, 1992). In the same way, Gardner (1985) said that for an individual to truly learn a language, s/he must find the learning situation to be rewarding, and must be motivated. Significantly enough, Brophy (2006) has indicated that “Rewards are preferable to punishments, following the “well-known psychological law that depression chokes up the channels of energy, while hope and buoyancy tend to liberate energy and make it available” (P: 20).

Furthermore, Freeman (1999, cited in Zebedee, T., 2009) stated that every school should have a written policy that calls for the encouragement of high levels of performance from students and from teachers. Student experiences of how teachers rate their academic success have been proven to be significantly related to achievement (Bocian, Gresham, & MacMillan, 1997; Mazzocco, Myers, & Tesei, 2001, cited in Zebedee.T., 2009). Teacher encouragement and trust, as perceived by the student, are vital components of student success.
Additional studies indicated that students perform poorly academically when they are the object of little encouragement and low expectations from their teachers; often, these low expectations translate into disidentification with schools (Aronson & Steele, 1995; Babad, 1993; Botkin, Marshall, Sharp, & Weinstein, 1987, cited in Zebedee, T., 2009). Researchers have emphasized that students who have teachers with high expectations usually reach those expectations when they are given adequate encouragement (Combs, Mason, Schroeter, & Washington, 1992; Gardner, 2007, cited in Zebedee, T. 2009).

Effective learning in the classroom depends on the teacher’s ability to maintain the interest that brought students to the classroom in the first place. Klug (1989, cited in Renchler, 1992:5) notes that “school leaders can influence levels of motivation by shaping the school’s instructional climate, which in turn shapes the attitudes of teachers, students, parents, and the community at large toward education. By effectively managing this aspect of a school’s culture, educational leaders can increase both student and teacher motivation and indirectly impact learning gains.”

Abraham Maslow said, “Any motivated behavior, either preparatory or consummatory, must be understood to be a channel through which many basic needs may be simultaneously expressed or satisfied.” If schools are to be successful in satisfying students’ needs, then school organizations may need to change the behaviors of the students. People, however, do not like to change; therefore schools will need to devise strategies and structures that incorporate an awareness of individuals’ key motives. Research has indicated that teachers need to create educational environments that encourage all students to succeed academically (Anderman & Midgley, 1997, cited in Zebedee, T., 2009).

Parsons (2001, cited in Zebedee, T., 2009) defined teacher encouragement as behaviour that teachers use to express supportiveness. A teacher with a supportive learning environment can increase learning among students (Frye, Homan, King, & Short, 1999, cited in Zebedee, T. 2009). Wang (1996, cited in Yang, Y., 2008:97) also claimed that “a good teacher understands the classroom learning environment and understands better the unexpected result by giving a praise look, a smile, a nod and a word of encouragement.” In fact, this relates directly to what has been stated by Davis (1993) previously when defining teaching style. Teacher encouragement is a necessary ingredient for student academic success (Parsons, 2001). In addition, all students need
teacher encouragement as a path to attain higher levels of achievement and learning (Frye et al., 1999; Parsons, 2001, cited in Zebedee, T. 2009).

More recently, Yang (2004, cited in Yang, Y., 2008:97) considered that the generosity of a teacher in giving positive feedback and creating a positive learning environment promotes student learning. In spite of this, it should be noted that “a teacher who overcorrects the student can lower the expectation for success and destroy the possibility of a reward, thus reducing the students’ willingness to pay attention or to persist in language learning” (Okada, Oxford & Abo, 1996:105).

Patrick and Turner (2004, cited in Zebedee, T., 2009) pointed out that student views of teacher instructional practices can encourage students to work in the classroom. A student’s perception of teacher support and encouragement can positively change a student’s work ethic.


Grasha (1996) identified five teaching styles in his teaching style models based on what he regarded as metaphors of role models. Although it may seem appropriate to place teachers into one of the five categories of teaching styles, Grasha (1996) emphasized that everyone who teaches possesses each of the five teaching styles to varying degrees. Therefore, he identified the four clusters of teaching styles that are dominant among teachers. These clusters are Cluster One (expert/formal authority style), Cluster Two (personal model/expert/ formal authority style), Cluster Three (facilitator/personal model/expert style), and Cluster Four (delegator/facilitator/ expert style). According to Grasha (1996), each cluster of teaching style conveys a distinguished message to the students, and this helps to create the mood of the class.

Additionally, Dupin-Bryant (2004) defines learner-centered teaching style as “a style of instruction that is responsive, collaborative, problem-centered, and democratic
in which both students and the instructor decide how, what, and when learning occurs” (P: 42). On the other hand, teacher-centered teaching style is considered as “a style of instruction that is formal, controlled, and autocratic in which the instructor directs how, what, and when students learn” (P:42). Harmer defines the teacher’s roles as “designer, organizer, prompter, participant, resource, provider, controller, assessor (Harmer, 1983, cited in Wang Jung Kai, 2008:32). This implies that the teacher is classified in different positions and described with particular care and with special terminology which indicates the diversity of the teacher teaching styles that should be viewed not as confusing, but rather as reflecting the complexity of language learning processes.

Therefore, language teaching research should attempt to understand teaching from the inside rather than from the outside. The need to listen to teachers’ voices in understanding classroom practice should be emphasized. When we talk about language teaching style, there is a necessity to look beyond methodological theories and take teachers competence and conditions into consideration.

From what has been said so far, we conclude that different researchers and authors have used different terminologies to describe teaching styles depending on the research or study at hand. Researchers have listed the following characteristics as major contributors to student motivation: Instructor’s enthusiasm, Learner centeredness, Interaction and participation, Instructor’s encouragement, Active involvement of students, Being a facilitator, Guider, Explainer, Helper, and Imaginative.

We can note as well that all teachers have their own philosophy governing how they teach. These philosophies serve as a foundation for their individual teaching style in order to become more effective in the classroom and increase their students’ motivation to learn the English language. Almost everything teachers do in the classroom has a motivational influence on students, either positive or negative. Students react to who teachers are, what they do, and how comfortable they feel in the classroom. The usual focus of attention in such studies is the process that takes place between the teacher and the students within the classroom. Teachers are expected to possess excellent knowledge of content and of pedagogy; however, expertise goes beyond the competencies grounded on an effective teaching style.

To conclude all what has been said so far in the second chapter, we can view that teachers and educators are not short of ways, teaching practices and strategies to better address and serve the population of diverse learners in their classrooms to stimulate their interest and motivate them to learn the English language. It has been stated that
positive student-teacher relationships that are characterized by mutual acceptance, understanding, warmth, closeness, trust, mutual respect, care and cooperation as well as open communication can increase learners’ motivation. Thus, to promote these relationships, teachers can give students autonomy and opportunities for decision making, by giving them choices in assignments, engaging them in developing classroom rules, and encouraging them to express their opinions in classroom discussions. It is also important to know students and call them by their names and praise them whenever necessary to encourage participation and give them impetus to learn and practice the English language. Offering comfort, ensuring fairness, and avoiding stressful atmospheres by allowing choice and some kind of freedom are other practices that promote learners’ motivation.

Yet, teachers who take time to develop positive relationships with their students and rely on good personality characteristics and teach in a way that suits learners’ needs will see improvement in their students both academically, behaviorally, and emotionally. Indeed, it is well said that “The word ‘teaching’ has connotations that limit the way we think about it, with some teachers restricting it to presenting, lecturing or delivering information, while others are challenged to provide a wide range of carefully stacked and integrated strategies and tactics that provide the conditions for effective student learning.” (John R., Barry C., and K.Coombe, 1999:32).
CHAPTER THREE:
METHODOLOGY

1. Research Findings and Analysis

Introduction

Motivational research has recently shifted focus to include what role teachers, and the motivational strategies they use, play in the language learning classroom (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998). Traditionally, motivational research has gathered data from either teachers or students. However, researchers have recently been calling for a shift in focus from this individualistic perspective to evaluating motivation more holistically (Dörnyei, 2000; Oxford, 2003; Ushioda, 2006). Nevertheless, few studies have included the opinions of both the students and teachers.

Our study has elicited the opinions of both students and teachers to find out which teaching practices both groups believe foster students’ motivation in the foreign language classroom. The results indicate that students find teaching practices related to the teacher’s rapport and personality traits more motivating than those related to the teacher’s teaching style. Although teachers recognize rapport as a crucial factor, they place emphasis on their teaching style as a motivating element followed by characteristics related to personality traits.

This chapter will provide an overview of this study’s research design, the instruments by which data were collected, and the methodology employed in their analysis.

This chapter will begin with a description of the participants involved in the study. Next, it will describe the questionnaires used to elicit data from teachers and students. The following section will describe the procedure used. This chapter will also provide a brief description and justification for the data analysis that will be used. Finally, suggestions and recommendations are made.

2. Participants

The focus of the present study is to better understand the opinions of students and teachers about the role of external factors such as: the teacher’s rapport with pupils, the teacher’s personality and teacher’s teaching style on learners’ motivation. The participants are Secondary school pupils who are chosen randomly from four Secondary schools which are as follows: Elarbi Djemil, Ali Ben Dada, Redjaimia Alawa and Salhi Athmen. A number of 50 students was surveyed from each school. The student participants in this study were enrolled in two different levels. Pupils from Ali Ben dada
and Salhi Athmen were enrolled in the second year while students from Elarbi Djemil and Redjaimia Allawa were enrolled in the third year. Their distribution is given in table one below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>Students’ Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1- Elarbi Djemil</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>Third year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2- Redjaimia Alawa</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>Third year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3- Ali Ben Dada</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>Second year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4- Salhi Athmen</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>Second year</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table1: Distribution of Students on Sample Schools

3. Questionnaire Presentation and Administration

A close end questionnaire consisting of 27 statements was developed to collect data and conduct the investigation (Appendix A). The questionnaire included three factors as the indicators for the enhancement of motivation among the students organized in three sections. Section ‘A’ comprised of eight items about Teacher’s rapport with learners. Section ‘B’ consisted of 9 items about Teacher’s personality and section ‘C’ contained ten items about Teacher’s teaching style. A 5-point likert type was used in the scale: 5= strongly agree, 4= agree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 2= disagree, 1=strongly disagree) to measure the extent of agreement or disagreement. These factors were chosen from findings in educational research because of their direct relevance to students’ learning and teacher’s teaching situation.

The questionnaire also included a part about personal information and was distributed to all the respondents selected for the data by hand. Before distributing the questionnaire among the students the nature and purpose of the survey was explained to them, moreover they were assured strongly that their responses will be kept confidential in order to relieve them from any kind of fear and pressure. Respondents were asked to read the questionnaire carefully and if they find any statement ambiguous or difficult they can ask freely for help. Students were asked to put a cross next to each statement according to the degree of their agreement or disagreement with that statement. Similar procedure was followed in each school, in each class and for all the students to minimize the missing data.

Similarly, teacher questionnaire consisted of 27 statements grouped under the three sections that have been mentioned previously and distributed to them by hand.
Teachers’ ages ranged from 24 to 53 and their experience in teaching ranged from 01 to 31 years; both male and female teachers participated in the study. Secondary School teachers were asked to complete the questionnaire by putting a cross mark next to each statement to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement with that statement. The total number of teachers who were surveyed was 21.

4. Findings and Discussion

This section presents the results of the study. The first research question was: what teacher’s characteristics are the most influencing ones on learners’ motivation? Table 2 shows teacher’s characteristics that are viewed as the most important ones by all secondary school learners.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher’s Characteristics</th>
<th>Four Secondary Schools Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Teacher’s Rapport</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Your teacher is a respectful person.</td>
<td>4.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Teacher’s Personality</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Your teacher is kind and sympathetic.</td>
<td>4.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Teacher’s Teaching Style</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- You always receive encouragement from your teacher when you answer correctly.</td>
<td>4.45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Teacher Characteristics that are Perceived as the Most Important by Pupils in the Four Secondary Schools.

The arithmetic means in table 2 above indicate that being a respectful teacher towards learners is a motivating characteristic for them since it received the highest mean (M=4.52) in the teacher’s rapport section followed by teacher’s kindness and sympathy as the most preferred and desired personality characteristic with a mean of (M=4.39) as the highest one among the other personality characteristics mentioned in the second section about teacher’s personality. Receiving teacher’s encouragement is seen as the most motivating teacher’s teaching style practice used by teacher with a mean of (M=4.45). This means that learners want to be regarded as important individuals to be respected by their teachers to attract them since respect is an abstract element that learners feel and which influences on them without making any efforts. In line with this, Lumsden (1994) has stated that classroom climate is important and if
students experience the classroom as a caring, supportive place where there is a sense of belonging and everyone is valued and respected, they will tend to participate more fully in the process of learning. In the same vein, Ramsden (1992, cited in Omo Aregbeyen, 2010:63) has identified six principles of effective teaching that can promote effective learning and stated that “good teaching means that teachers show great concern and respect for students and students’ learning”. In a similar respect, Dörnyei (2001) stated “Teachers who share warm, personal interactions with their students, who respond to their concerns in an empathic manner and who succeed in establishing relationships of mutual trust and respect with the learners, are more likely to inspire them in academic matters than those who have no personalities with the learners.” (P: 36). Significantly enough, Susan et al(2004) have expressed that displaying fairness, having a positive outlook, being prepared, using a personal touch, possessing a sense of humor, possessing creativity, admitting mistakes, being forgiving, respecting students, maintaining high expectations, showing compassion, and developing a sense of belonging for students, when demonstrated by classroom teachers, they increase students’ achievement.

Secondary school learners have given importance to teacher’s kindness and sympathy over the other teacher’s personality characteristics because they like to be welcomed to study the English language and assure more comprehension and understanding from the teacher. Being kind towards learners make them feel at ease without costing anything. It can be a caring word or a small gesture. In this respect, Carnegie (1981) has said “the expression one wears on one’s face is far more important than the clothes one wears on one’s back.”(P: 68). Learning in a positive manner in which pupils are respected and the teacher being kind and sympathetic conveys to pupils the idea that the teacher understands, shares, and values their feelings as individuals on a whole range of matters and experiences, academic, social and personal. Such a climate fosters learning and motivation of students and their attitudes towards the learning process. Motivation literature shows that students respond with interest and motivation to instructors who appear to be human and caring (Harris, 2010). Instructors can help produce these feelings by sharing parts of themselves with students. Such personalizing of the student/teacher relationship helps students see teachers as approachable human beings and not as aloof authority figures. It is widely believed that effective learning takes place when a nice relationship between the teachers and the students prevails. A kind relationship between teacher and student minimizes
antagonism and maximizes mutual understanding. Students are more likely to feel welcome to express themselves and ask questions for more clarification. It is an important aspect of ongoing learning. In addition, Stronge (2007) has pointed out that effective teachers care about their students and demonstrate that they care in such a way that their students are aware of it. According to him, several studies exploring what makes a good teacher show the importance of caring in the eyes of teachers and students. Aksoy (1998, cited in Yu-Jung Chen & Shih-Chung Lin, and 2009:226) investigated elementary students’ perceptions and reported that “an effective teacher is kind, friendly, honest, tolerant, helpful, patient, and seldom shows nervousness and anger”.

Teacher’s praise for learners is really a fundamental motivating practice. Learners feel that they achieved something and what they are doing makes sense. They will rather engage in the learning process more actively. In line with this, Wang (1996, cited in Wang Jun kai 2008:33) claimed that “a good teacher understands the classroom learning environment and understands better the unexpected result by giving a praise look, a smile, a nod and a word of encouragement.” Additionally, Borich (2000, cited in Susan, et al, 2004) suggests that effective teachers are those who use “meaningful verbal praise to get and keep students actively participating in the learning process”. Furthermore, Thomas (1991, cited in Paul, C. Burnett 2002: 6) referred to praise as positive reinforcement, with consistent praise thought to encourage desirable behaviour, while extinguishing undesirable behaviour. He suggested that “praise could be a motivational tool in the classroom if reinforcement was descriptive and involved using the students’ name, choosing appropriate praise words carefully and describing precisely the behaviour that merits the praise”. In the same respect, Y. K., Singh & R. Nath. (2005) expressed “Sometimes the learner may be motivated through a few words of praise or non-verbal behaviour like smiling, nodding of the neck and accepting glimpse, other times he may need recognition in terms of grades, medals or prizes.”(P: 94). Borich (2000, cited in Susan et al, 2004) explained “A teacher who is excited about the subject being taught and shows it by facial expression, voice inflection, gesture, and general movement is more likely to hold the attention of students than one who does not exhibit these behaviors. This is true whether or not teachers consciously perceived these behaviors in themselves”.
The second research question was: Which teacher’s characteristics are seen as the least motivating ones by learners? Table 3 on this page shows which teacher’s characteristics are the least important ones in the learners’ eyes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher’s Characteristics by subsections</th>
<th>Four Secondary Schools Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>A. Teacher’s Rapport</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Your teacher has a close contact with you and understands your needs.</td>
<td>3.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>B. Teacher’s Personality</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Your teacher is calm.</td>
<td>3.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>C. Teacher’s Teaching Style</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Your teacher controls the class firmly.</td>
<td>3.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3: Teacher Characteristics that are Perceived as the Least Important by Pupils in the Four Secondary Schools.**

As table 3 illustrates, being in a close contact with learners does not always mean that we understand our learners’ needs and make them more motivated to learn the English language. This teacher characteristic is receiving the lowest mean in the section of teacher’s rapport with learners (M=3.92). We can also infer from this finding that teachers are not sufficiently close to their learners and they don’t really cater for their needs which portrays the idea that learners didn’t experience such teacher practice. In this vein, Y. K., Singh & R. Nath. (2005) have stated “Motivation is best carried out if it is based on the existing needs and motives of the learner. You as a teacher better know that some of the needs your students may bring to the classroom are the needs to learn something in order to complete a particular task or activity, the need to seek new experiences, the need to perfect skills, the need to overcome challenges, the need to become competent, the need to succeed and do well, the need to feel involved and to interact with other people etc. Satisfying such needs is rewarding in itself and such rewards bring more motivation than do grades or prizes.”(P: 91).

A calm teacher is rather demotivating for learners. As Secondary school learners, they better like a teacher who is full of energy to increase their interest and attract their attention with his /her teaching moves. The arithmetic mean of teacher’s
calmness is also the lowest one among the other teacher’s personality characteristics (M=3.90). The other least important teacher practice perceived by learners is that of having firm control over the class which means less freedom for learners and more anxiety since learners want to be free from any severe control to feel free to express themselves. Exerting more control means also high learners’ affective filter which prevents them from learning in the best way particularly shy learners who are afraid to voice their opinions or take the risk to participate fearing from any teacher’s negative response. Dörnyei (2007) indicates that “One norm that is particularly important to language learning situations is the norm of tolerance. The language classroom is an inherently face-threatening environment because learners are required to take continuous risks as they need to communicate using a severely restricted language goal. An established norm of tolerance ensures that students will not be embarrassed or criticized if they make a mistake and, more generally, that mistakes are seen and welcomed as a natural part of learning.”(P: 723). Again this teacher’s practice has received the lowest mean (M=3.80). In a similar vein, Pianta and Stuhlman (2002, cited in Zebedee.T.2009) have examined factors such as compliance, achievement, a secure base, positive effect, neutralization of negative emotion, and negative effect. They have found that there appears to be a significant relationship between academic achievement and teacher encouragement when interacting with students. This means that teacher’s harsh manner of teaching creates an atmosphere of terror and causes the students to feel rather anxious and afraid in the classroom. In this sense, Robert A. W. (2009:3) states that “Fear is a powerful emotion that imposes a paralyzing grip on some students”. He further adds that “A teacher who allows a sense of fear to permeate the learning climate lacks a sense of caring” (P: 4).

The third research question was: Which teacher’s factor is the most important one for learners? Table 4 on the next page reveals pupils’ views about the role of which teacher’s factor is the most important one for them.
### Table 4: Pupils’ Perception of the Most Important Teacher’s External Factor of Motivation.

As seen from table 4 above, the most influential teacher’s external factor of motivation is teacher’s personality as perceived by all learners with the highest arithmetic mean amongst the two left factors (M=4.18). This implies that learners attach too high priority to the personality of the teacher rather than his/her rapport or teaching style. For them good personality traits enhance their motivation and boost their learning followed by teacher’s rapport with learners with an arithmetic mean of (M=4.16). We can infer from these results that learners cannot fully interpret or comprehend what teachers try to communicate in English. It is likely that they place too much focus on these factors because they don’t require the students to fully understand and interpret them. Similarly, Pine and Boy (1997 cited in Xu and Huang 2010 :192-193) have expressed that “pupils feel the personal emotional structure of the teacher long before they feel the impact of the intellectual content offered by that teacher”. This means that, teachers must not only touch the intellects but also the hearts and souls of their students. This also indicates that, being an effective teacher is no longer confined in expertise in knowledge. However, but an effective or “good” teacher is expected to hold many personal traits. Dörnyei (1998) conducted a research with secondary school students and found that factors involving the teacher were most influential, especially when it came to teacher’s personality, commitment to the work, attention paid to the students, competence, teaching method, style, and rapport with students. According to Polk
(2006, cited in Magno, C & Sembrano, J. 2007:75) “the personality of the teacher is a pervasive element in the classroom, and attention as to its impact on learning outcomes is well deserved”.

The teacher teaching style is ranking third with the lowest mean (M=4.15). This means that learners are expected to answer questions, participate and get into a more practical contact with their teachers which urges them to give and take and exchange pieces of information crucial for the act of teaching and learning and without which it does not happen.

Our fourth research question is as follows: Does learners’ level of study stand as a criterion to affect their opinions about which teachers’ factor is the most important one? Table 5 below demonstrates learners’ perception of the impact of teacher’s factors on their motivation by level.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher’s Factors</th>
<th>Second Year Pupils Mean</th>
<th>Third Year Pupils Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Teacher’s Rapport</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>4.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Teacher’s Personality</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>4.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Teacher’s Teaching Style</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>4.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Pupils’ Perception of the Role of Teachers’ External Factors on their Motivation by Level.

The results of the table above disclose that both second and third year pupils agree on the teacher’s teaching style factor by ranking it third and by awarding it the lowest arithmetic means (M=3.94) and (M=4.10) respectively. This reminds us of what has already been said concerning the teacher’s rapport with learners and the teacher’s personality when we analyzed all respondents’ perceptions about which teacher’s external factor of motivation is the most important one though we can notice that
second year pupils have given priority to teacher’s rapport while third year learners have given priority to teacher’s personality. We can understand from this over importance of one teacher’s factor over the other in respondents’ eyes in terms of level by saying that third year learners have already established rapport with their teachers in their first and second year and feel more mature and conscious. What they need is rather a teacher with good personality characteristics who accounts for their state of being in their final year and moving straightforward to one crystal clear objective the BAC Exam. Second year learners are in the transitional phase and they need more teacher’s care and attention and looking for closer relationships with their teachers.

In fact, compared with other subjects, L2 teaching/learning has an issue which differentiates it from other teaching/learning contexts in that it is possible for learners to lack basic or sufficient language skills to communicate with their teachers in the classroom where their learning occurs. In accordance with this, Gardner (2001) said “When students are learning a second language, they have a number of duties and responsibilities. First and foremost, they must pass the course. In addition, however, they must acquire language content (vocabulary, grammar and the like); they must acquire language skills (oral production, aural comprehension); they must develop some degree of automaticity and fluency with their handling of the language; and ultimately, they must develop some degree of willingness to use the language outside of the classroom. This is no small set of requirements” (P: 3). As found in the results of the present research, both second and third year learners found that teacher’s rapport and personality are the most influential factors on their motivation to learn the English language. That is, learners are more likely to depend on non-verbal communication-based aspects. Though third year learners have more learning experience than second year learners and regard how teachers teach them including the use of particular teaching techniques and strategies in the classroom, they don’t seem to be affected by what a teacher does and say, they rather rely on teacher’s personality and rapport as the most motivating factors. Then, we can conclude that learners’ level of study does not really affect their views in indicating which teacher’s factor they perceive as the most fundamental one since both learners’ levels agreed to rate the teacher’s teaching style last. What we could conclude instead is that learners’ level of proficiency may be an important variable which determines which teacher’s factor is rather the most influential one?
The fifth research question is the following: which level of study that most strongly influences learners’ motivation? From table 5 mentioned on the previous page, we can deduce that secondary school learners recognize language teachers as one of the most important agents of motivation and by carrying out a simple comparison we realize that third year learners are the most strongly influenced by motivation with reference to the obtained arithmetic means of the three teacher’s factors which are higher than those of the second year learners. Third year learners start their final year at the Secondary school with more ambition and wishes of spending a successful year. Therefore, they invest all their efforts to work harder and focus more to stay alert and keep pace with all what is going on in class since they are expected to sit for an important exam at the end of the year. On the contrary, second year learners who are at a transitional stage and supposed to pass to the third year, feel more comfortable and careless about studying. Thus, they don’t feel the need to strain and bother themselves as there is nothing to fear from or care about at the end of the year.

By concentrating on the findings obtained from the teachers’ questionnaire and by placing emphasis on the sixth research question which is as follows: What teachers’ factor is perceived as the most motivating one by teachers? We realize from table 6 on the following page that teachers stress much more on their rapport with learners as a motivating force. This factor received the highest arithmetic mean of (M=4.72) followed by their teaching style with (M=4.06) and surprisingly the teacher’s personality is found to be the last factor with a significant low arithmetic mean of (M=3.83).
### Table 6: Teachers’ Perception of their Most Important External Factor of Motivation.

Secondary School teachers focused on their rapport with learners as a fundamental factor to enhance their learners’ motivation because it is very difficult if not impossible for them to teach an English class without paying attention to learners and respecting them. That is, if good rapport is not established with learners, the one who is in charge of them will suffer the worst. In this sense, Zakia Sarwar (2001) indicated that “It is only through the proper rapport that an atmosphere conducive to learning can be built up.” (P: 129). In connection with this, Kathy Paterson (2005) stated “Good teachers use a variety of methods so all students will want to learn most of the time. These begin with the establishment of good rapport with students—without this, other motivational tactics may be useless.” (P: 69). She further added “rapport is that wonderful bond that allows teacher and students to work and learn well together. The powerful teacher creates this relationship early in the year and works to maintain it. When good rapport has been established, students and teachers enjoy one another and the class, and students feel more motivated to do well.” (P: 69). Significantly enough, Y.K., Singh & R. Nath (2005) expressed “the arousal of motivation and its maintenance in teaching –learning process depends upon the existence and quality of rapport lying between teacher and students. The better rapport will automatically have better motivation while its absence will have negative impact in making the students attracted

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher’s Factors</th>
<th>Four Secondary Schools Mean</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Teacher’s Rapport</td>
<td>4.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Teacher’s Personality</td>
<td>3.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Teacher’s Teaching Style</td>
<td>4.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher’s Factors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. Teacher’s Rapport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Teacher’s Personality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Teacher’s Teaching Style</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
and engaged in the classroom activities.” (P: 95). Accounting for the difficulty of the English language, teachers tend to base themselves on practices that attract learners and make them interested in learning without making any efforts. Teachers take also into consideration learners’ affective side. Therefore, they show care and do their best to create a pleasant and relaxed atmosphere in classroom. “A great deal of research attested to the importance of a positive classroom learning environment, one created by teachers who are caring, accepting, and supportive” (Borich, 2000; Kauchak & Eggen, 1998 cited in Cherrie L. K., 2002 :364).

Teachers’ teaching style is seen as a crucial factor too in increasing learners’ motivation. Due to their pivotal role, Secondary school teachers perform a number of practices to enable learners to participate, practice and learn the language. Teachers give importance to their teaching style which conveys the idea that teachers rely on themselves as motivators for learners by encouraging them to use the language, appreciating learners’ efforts and tolerating their mistakes which are a proof that learning is taking place. The third factor which is that of teachers’ personality is not receiving the same importance like the previously mentioned ones. As adults, teachers don’t give much importance to their personality features and don’t rely on it to motivate their learners because they think that personality is something personal that should not be exhibited to their learners. They think also that showing their personality characteristics weakens their forces to maintain control and discipline over learners.

Our seventh research question is the following: What teachers’ characteristics are perceived as the most motivating ones by teachers?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>Secondary School Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher’s Characteristics</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. Teacher’s Rapport</td>
<td>8.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Calling pupils by their names.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Teacher’s Personality</td>
<td>5.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Being helpful.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Teacher’s Teaching Style</td>
<td>4.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Encouraging pupils to practice the English language.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 7: Teacher Characteristics that are Perceived as the Most Important Ones by Teachers.**
From table 7 cited previously, we can clearly remark that teachers emphasize on calling their pupils’ names as a motivating practice that is widely used to raise their learners’ motivation. As a matter of fact this practice is receiving the highest arithmetic mean (M=8.19) which indicates that teachers depend heavily on learning pupils’ names to use them while delivering their English lessons to familiarize them with the classroom atmosphere, break the ice and make learners feel more confident to participate in the lesson. Calling pupils’ names urge learners to take part in the lesson to make their names first known to the teacher and second to their classmates because this makes them feel that they occupy a high position and esteem in their teachers’ view. They feel as well that teachers are taking care of them and giving value to every pupil’s identity to establish good relationships with them. In this sense, Megan Downs (2001, cited in Wang Jun-kai, 2008:33) stated that “knowing a student’s name can be a powerful motivator”. Moreover, Dale Carnegie in his book ‘How to Win Friends and Influence People’ pointed out “We should be aware of the magic contained in a name and realize that this single item is wholly and completely owned by the person with whom we are dealing and nobody else. Remember that a person’s name is to that person the sweetest and most important sound in any language” (1981: 83). Bernaus (2010) said “Teachers, who address learners by name, talk about personal topics in the class, etc., will form closer relationships, and consequently help to create a cohesive learner group, and enhance learners’ classroom motivation.” (P: 185).

In the same direction, college research indicates that “addressing students by name” is a classroom teaching behavior that correlates positively and significantly with students’ overall evaluation of the instructor (Murray, 1985). In contrast, research on “uncomfortable courses”. That is to say, courses that most likely to cause “classroom communication apprehension” among students reveals that such courses are more likely to be taught by instructors who are perceived by their students as being unfriendly and who did not address students by their first name (Bowers, 1986). Significantly enough, Dörnyei (2001) indicates that “If students can sense that the teacher doesn’t care...this perception is the fastest way to undermine their motivation. The spiritual (and sometimes physical) absence of the teachers ends such a powerful message of ‘It doesn’t matter!’ to the students, that everybody, even the most dedicated ones, are likely to be affected and become demoralised”. (P: 34). Teachers put emphasis on being helpful to aid learners overcome any difficulties they come across while learning English. This feature ranked first in the second section of teacher’s personality with an
It follows from this that Secondary School Teachers are ready to afford help at whatever stage to facilitate the learning process for learners and to avoid any breaks or hindrances. Learners are expected to seek help from their teachers and feel more motivated when they receive it especially at the right and exact moment to keep pace with their teacher, to solve a problem or to produce something. Teachers should provide students with a learning environment in which the learning context facilitates students’ understanding and construction of new knowledge. In accordance with this, Gettinger and Kohler (2006) have said “How teachers guide student practice is another important instructional process linked to student performance. The effectiveness of practice is enhanced when teachers first explain the work and demonstrate practice examples before releasing students to work independently. Effective teachers then circulate to monitor progress and provide help when needed. Guided practice involves providing assistance that students need to engage in learning activities productively and independently, including explanations, modeling, coaching, and other forms of scaffolding.” (P: 85) Considering the teacher’s teaching style, teachers focused on encouraging learners to practice the language. This means that teachers’ aim is to see their learners using the English language and communicate effectively. That’s why appreciating their efforts though they are little is ranking second in this section followed by tolerance of mistakes in the third rank. We understand from all this that what matters for teachers is the actual use of language. In this respect, Carnigie (1981) has stated that if you want to help others to improve, remember to use encouragement and make the fault seem easy to correct. He has further added “Abilities wither under criticism; they blossom under encouragement.” (P: 93)

The eighth research question is: What teachers’ characteristics are perceived as the least motivating ones?
The teacher’s characteristics that are perceived as the least motivating ones by teachers are shown in Table 8 above. Secondary school teachers believe that having a close contact with their learners and knowing their needs are not sufficient to make them raise their learners’ motivation. This demonstrates as well that teachers don’t have very close contacts with their learners which enable them to know what their learners need. This teacher characteristic has the lowest mean (M=3.57). To our surprise, being warm and friendly towards learners are not recognized as motivating teacher characteristics but rather least important ones. They rank last in their section with an arithmetic mean (M=3.62). Teachers may fear from discipline problems, as a result they avoid to be warm towards learners and be very close to them to maintain certain distance so as to prevent them from being too close and engage in a continuous disorder and chaos in the classroom. In fact, this data seems to run against what hat has been stated in the literature. “Teachers and parents are the ones who influence the student most. Studies up to now have showed that the personality of a teacher surely affects his students” Aydin (1998 cited in Ozel. A., (2007:75). “Especially in the studies carried out in the classroom environment, it is observed that students, while evaluating their teachers, pay more attention to their personalities than their professional characteristics and thus adopt them as their own behaviours” Tan, 1992, Soner, 1995, Lewis, 2000(cited, in Ozel. A., 2007:75).
Teachers don’t recognize the fact of having a dynamic and interesting style of presentation as an effective and motivating teaching practice. From table 8 mentioned before, we can see that it received the arithmetic mean (M=4.05) as the lowest one amongst the ten items concerning the teacher’s teaching style. This may also portray the idea that teachers felt afraid to be subjective and avoided to agree or totally agree with this teaching characteristic.

Our ninth question has to do with how do the teachers’ and pupils’ perceptions of teacher’s factors compare?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher’s Factors</th>
<th>Secondary School Teachers Mean</th>
<th>Secondary School Pupils Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Teacher’s Rapport</td>
<td>4.72</td>
<td>4.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Teacher’s Personality</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>4.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Teacher’s Teaching Style</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>4.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9: Teachers and Learners Perceptions of Teachers’ External Factors of Motivation.

Table 9 above displays the differences between teachers and learners’ perception of teacher’s factors. Teachers perceive the teacher learner rapport as the first and most important factor that contribute in pupils’ motivation with an arithmetic mean (M=4.72) by contrast, learners rank it second with an arithmetic mean (M=4.16). Teachers perceive the teacher’s teaching style as the second crucial factor that enhances pupils’ motivation with an arithmetic mean (M=4.06) while learners rank it last with an arithmetic mean (M=4.15). The teachers’ personality is ranking last in teachers’ views with a significant low arithmetic mean (M=3.83) however it is regarded as the most
fundamental and motivational factor in learners’ opinions with an arithmetic mean (M=4.18) that motivates them to learn the English language.

It is crystal clear that the way teachers perceive the teacher’s motivational factors is different from the learners’ perceptions. However; we can notice that both of them give priority to the teacher learner rapport over the teacher teaching style. It follows from this that if good rapport is not established beforehand we can’t talk about any teaching on the part of teachers or learning on the part of learners. Good teacher learner rapport doesn’t necessitate from the teacher any explanations or teaching strategies to make it understandable or rather established, all what is needed is to exhibit interest in learners as individuals and express concern and care towards them. Develop a good relationship with them, make them feel comfortable, respect them and above all call them by their names.

Learners as it has been pointed out at the very start of this study are adolescent learners who are expected to emulate their teachers whom they consider as ideal models to be imitated and followed in every move they make or any word they utter. They are studying and shaping and modeling their personalities looking for identifying themselves as successful learners and perfect individuals. Again, learners don’t need to make any efforts or depend on special skills to understand or rather perceive the teacher’s personality traits that’s why they rely heavily on the teacher’s personality traits as motivating forces that attract them and little by little urge them to make efforts to understand the language and start using it at every and any occasion offered to them. Significantly, this finding seems to correlate positively with what has been said concerning the teacher’s personality and how it is valued by learners and yielded priority over professional characteristics of the teacher in earlier studies. Susan et al (2004) have cited that effective teachers know well that when children feel emotionally, as well as, physically safe, they learn far better.

What makes the difference flagrant but justified between teachers and learners’ views about the three motivational factors that we have concentrated on in our research is the teacher’s teaching style factor which is rated last in learners’ responses since it requires from them to have an active role in the classroom through participation and practice of the English language. In fact, it is an endless give and take process that takes place in the classroom between the teacher and the learners who are expected to comprehend and interpret the teacher’s talk to respond adequately and play a vital role in the teaching and learning process and give it sense.
The tenth research question is how do teachers’ and pupils’ perception of the teachers’ most important characteristics compare?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher’s Characteristics</th>
<th>Secondary School Teachers Mean</th>
<th>Secondary School Learners Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>A. Teacher’s Rapport</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Calling pupils by their names.</td>
<td>8.19</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Being a respectful teacher.</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>4.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>B. Teacher’s Personality</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Being helpful.</td>
<td>5.62</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Being kind and sympathetic.</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>4.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>C. Teacher’s Teaching Style</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Encouraging pupils to practice the English language.</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Receiving encouragement from their teachers.</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>4.45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10: Teacher Characteristics that are Perceived as the Most Important Ones by Teachers and Learners.

Our tenth table reveals that there is a slight difference in the way both teachers and learners perceive the most teacher motivating practices. Teachers relied heavily on calling pupils’ names as a motivating practice with a significant high arithmetic mean (M=8.19) while learners placed emphasis on being respected by the teacher with an arithmetic mean (M=4.42) in the section of teacher learner rapport. Indeed, teachers seem to be more practical by considering pupils’ names as a motivating practice since it draws pupils’ attention and keeps them alert. Pupils want to be valued and respected to engage in the learning process. The extent, to which a student feels respected, trusted, and treated fairly by others is a strong determinant of long-term social and academic outcomes (Bishop, 1995; Gettinger, 2003). Though we have to notice that pupils recognize the practice of calling their names by the teacher as a motivating characteristic and rank it second right after the teacher’s respect with an arithmetic mean (M=4.31). In the same vein, Susan et al (2004) have stated that teachers who convey a personal touch with their students call their students by name, smile often, ask
about students’ feelings and opinions, and accept students for who they are make them interested. Considering the section of teacher personality, teachers see that being helpful and standing by learners a motivating teaching practice with an arithmetic mean (M=5.62) while learners surprisingly downplay its role and view the characteristic of being kind sympathetic as a motivating element with an arithmetic mean (M= 4.39) . In connection with this, Cruickshank, Jenkins & Metcalf (2003, cited in Susan et al, 2004) write that effective teachers are generally positive minded individuals who believe in the success of their students as well as their own ability to help students achieve. Looking at the data obtained in the last section of the teacher style, teachers regard encouraging pupils to practice the English language as the most motivating practice for learners with an arithmetic mean (M=4.62). Pupils see in teacher’s encouragement when answering questions correctly the most motivating teaching practice with an arithmetic mean (M=4.45). Despite the fact that both teachers and learners don’t agree on the same teacher characteristic, the opted for teacher motivational practices seem to be interrelated to one another. That is to say, we can’t talk about practice if there is no encouragement as teachers seek to see their learners communicating and exchanging information. The same for pupils who search for any kind of encouragement to get started and to keep going even when difficulties arise. As a matter of fact, learners recognize the teacher who appreciates their efforts though they are little as a motivating teacher since they make endeavours to speak and participate and perhaps they fail to persist in the face of difficulty. This teacher practice ranks second after that of encouragement with an arithmetic mean (M=4.28).

The last research question is as follows: How do teachers’ and pupils’ perception of the teachers’ least important characteristics compare?
### Table 11: Teacher Characteristics that are Perceived as the Least Important Ones by Teachers and Learners.

From table eleven above, we can clearly see that both teachers and learners agree that the teacher practice of having a close contact with learners and knowing their needs is not seen as a motivational practice by receiving the lowest means in the teacher rapport section (M=3.57) and (M=3.92) respectively. This means one clear point, teachers are not really close to their learners to make them feel it and their needs are not known to their teachers since they are not catered for. Surprisingly, being warm and friendly towards learners is viewed as a least important teacher characteristic with an arithmetic mean (M=3.62) by teachers. In fact, teachers’ perception goes in the opposite direction of what literature stated in this respect. Teacher encouragement, help, understanding, and friendliness have been found to be important for student motivation and achievement (Ferguson, 2002; Fisher & Rickards, 1996; Fisher, Waldrip, & Churach, 2003, cited in Zebedee, T. 2009). Furthermore, According to Barry (1999, cited in Suxian and Thao 2004:6), how good the teacher’s relationship with students is largely decided by the quantity and quality of contact made with each student as an individual. A good teacher treats students as individuals, has a loving heart and is warm.
to his/her students. He or she empathises with his/her students. “Students prefer teachers who are warm and friendly” (Jones, 2004 cited in Suxian and Thao, 2004:7).

Pupils on their part perceive teacher’s calmness as rather a demotivating personality trait for them with an arithmetic mean (M= 3.90). In the teacher’s teaching style section, pupils perceived the teacher’s firm control of the class as a least motivating practice. To their minds, more control means more stress and pressure that undoubtedly leads to mental block and maximizes inhibition. A relaxing psychological atmosphere is unavoidable to pupils’ worries and concerns. Teachers underestimate the fact of having a dynamic and interesting style of presentation and consider it a least important teaching practice with an arithmetic mean (M=4.05) to avoid any kind of subjectivity. Pupils as well rank it in the seventh position.

5. Data Analysis

The purpose of gathering data was to determine which individual teaching practices students find motivational and which individual teaching practices teachers find motivational and to see how they compare. The aim was also to find out which teacher factor was the most crucial to impact on learners’ motivation amongst the three ones. In order to accomplish this, the teaching practices were given their respective ranks by finding the mean response of each individual teaching practice. The same procedure was followed in the teacher’s factors.

This method of analysis yielded two tables (Appendixes C&D). One from the teachers’ responses, and the other from the students’ responses. Both tables show the score, the rank, and the arithmetic mean of each teaching practice (from 1 to 27) in its section. The data were then analyzed to indicate which teaching practices teachers find motivational compared to which teaching practices students find motivational. The same procedure was followed to determine which teacher’s factor is more crucial in motivating learners according to both teachers and students.
6. Suggestions and Recommendations for Future Research

The findings of the study suggest areas for future research. Researchers should give particular attention to the teacher factor related to the teacher teaching style which seems to be crucial in teachers’ eyes while learners downplay its importance. Conversely, learners seem to attach a high priority to the teacher’s personality while teachers themselves ignore its role and rank it last. Future research may provide greater insights to explain this difference by directing more research towards these teacher factors.

Additionally, future studies should gather data from students and teachers at more secondary schools and why not a nation-wide study to include all the secondary schools of the whole country. Thus, having data from more students and more teachers would give a larger sample size resulting in a more accurate representation of student and teacher perceptions.

Scholars should compare the results of different language groups. It would be interesting to know if a student learning Arabic finds different teaching practices motivational than a student learning English or French. If there are differences between students studying different languages, then teachers of particular language learning groups would know which teaching practices to emphasize in their classrooms. If, on the other hand, future studies reveal no differences, then the results could support the current study and really show teachers what teaching practices they can concentrate on in order to increase student motivation.

Finally, there is no doubt that teacher education is of vital importance for every country. However, it is only a part of a greater totality of a country’s system of education. Education is one of the most important institutions for the well-being of society. In order to fulfill its mission we need good schools and what is of paramount importance we need good teachers. It is an everlasting theme to reflect on what good teaching is. Our starting point is, however, that with a good teacher education program we are able to guarantee a high quality of teachers in our schools and further good teaching.
**Conclusion**

To sum up, in our study we have addressed several research questions and we have attempted to bring them adequate answers from the gathered data. The findings of this study indicate that students and teachers seem to have slight differences in their perceptions of what teacher practices are more influential than others on their motivation to learn the English language in the classroom context. There was little difference between the rankings of the students and those of the teachers. This suggests that both students and teachers view the teaching practices that will increase their motivation to learn from a different angle. This indicates as well that it would be better and more effective for teachers to see the learning process form the learners’ eye to have a full and precise picture of what they really need in terms of teaching practices which enhance their motivation and boost it. In line with this, Carnegie (1981) has stated “If there is any one secret of success, it lies in the ability to get the other person’s point of view and see things from that person’s angle as well as from your own.”(P: 49) After all, our understanding of motivation leaves room for intervention and is therefore interesting for educators and practitioners trying to help teachers to motivate their students’ motivation and hence improve their learning behaviour.
GENERAL CONCLUSION

The findings of the present study help foreign language teachers understand a few vital things. First, the findings show that teachers’ perceptions of what motivates students are somehow different from what actually does motivate students in the classroom from learners’ perceptions. In fact, this seems to correlate with what has been stated by Gardner “When focussing attention on motivation in second language acquisition, I find it useful to consider it from three perspectives, that of the student, the teacher, and the researcher, and I find that often these three perspectives do not coincide. That is, what is motivational or motivating to the teacher may not be to the student, and what the researcher (or at least some researchers) consider as motivational may not be seen as such by either students or teachers.” (2001:2). Both students and teachers believe that when the teacher, develops a relationship with the students, creates a comfortable and relaxing environment for learning and encourages students, students are more motivated to learn. In line with this, Patricia, et al (2011) have stated that researchers such as: Davis (2006) and McCombs and Miller (2006) emphasized that good relationships between students and teachers often lead to increased student performance.” According to Patricia et al (2011) they implied that examining the relationship between the student and teacher would provide a good predictor of the learners’ motivation to achieve academically.

The findings, when compared with previous studies, also show the importance of gathering data from both students and teachers. If researchers want to know how teachers can motivate students, it is important to gather data from everyone participating in the classroom environment—both students and teachers.

The findings of this study related to teacher’s style and personality also help teachers understand the few places where teachers and students do not agree. For example, findings suggest that teachers should place more emphasis on strategies related to teacher’s personality: being kind and sympathetic, being patient when explaining, behaving naturally and treating learners with fairness. Students are more motivated when they are respected and acknowledged by their teachers. Also, if teachers are concerned about fostering student motivation, according to the results, they need to encourage interest between learners themselves to make them depend on themselves and work in pairs or in small groups. Teachers have also to be approachable and take into account the learners’ needs to make them feel that they are valued and that the teacher cares for them and for their learning, creating a pleasant atmosphere in the
classroom. Being warm and friendly was not found to be particularly motivating for teachers, though learners perceived it to be. Perhaps teachers did not rank it, because they thought this would lead to informal way of learning and the teacher learner context in the classroom would risk failure and would rather encourage laziness and total dependency on the part of the learners or it may be linked to the traditional way of teaching style in which the teachers keep certain distance and show authority as previously mentioned in the literature.

By eliciting opinions from both students and teachers in the same language learning environment, the present study sheds more light on how teachers can help increase student motivation. Specifically, teachers should focus on: appreciating learners’ efforts though they are little, showing a good example by being committed and motivated to helping the student succeed, providing guidance about how to do the task, encouraging the language practice as much as possible, encouraging creativity and imaginative ideas, bringing in humor, using activities and having fun in class, avoid too much firmness and stiffness to release learners from any form of stress or anxiety, giving clear instructions, giving positive feedback and appraisal, tolerate mistakes that are a natural part of learning to boost participation and communication.

The results of the study indicate that the best way for teachers to increase student motivation includes focus on teaching practices related to the person of the teacher such as: building a solid rapport with students, creating a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom, praising learners and valuing their efforts. As teachers concentrate on the afore-mentioned teaching practices, students will feel more motivated in the foreign language classroom. The findings of the study revealed that the behaviours of teachers might increase motivation in a language classroom. Teacher characteristics and teaching behaviours embody the core external factors influencing student learning and promoting motivation.

To conclude all what has been developed so far, we had better bear in mind that ‘school’ factors, and ‘teaching methods’ factors and particularly teachers’ ‘personal factors’ had a tremendous impact on pupils’ motivation towards learning and this seems to correlate with what has been stated at the very start of our study and confirm that learners’ motivation is linked to the teacher’s impact. Indeed, when you look at the data gathered throughout all the sections, it is not difficult to conclude who the teachers are, and to recognize what they are like as ‘a person’. They are one of the most essential determinants on attitudes to learning for many pupils, i.e. the teacher as ‘a rational
human being’, along with the teacher’s technical or pedagogical competence. In William and Burden’s words “The process of education is one of the most important and complex of all human endeavours. A popular notion is that education is something carried out by one person, a teacher, standing in front of a class and transmitting information to a group of learners who are all willing and able to absorb it. This view, however, simplifies what is a highly complex process involving an intricate interplay between the learning process itself, the teacher’s intentions and actions, the individual personalities of the learners, their culture and background, the learning environment and a host of other variables. The successful educator must be one who understands the complexities of the teaching-learning process and can draw upon this knowledge to act in ways which empower learners both within and beyond the classroom situation.”(1997:5).

Indeed, it is at the school and classroom level that various inputs come or are brought together to foster student learning and motivation. Renchler (1992) expresses “An atmosphere or environment that nurtures the motivation to learn can be cultivated in the home, in the classroom, or, at a broader level, throughout an entire school.” (P: 3). The coming or bringing together of inputs depends primarily on the knowledge, skills, dispositions and commitments of the adults in whose charge learners are entrusted, i.e., teachers. Put another way, “Every educator needs to be concerned about motivation. It is a quality that students, teachers, parents, school administrators, and other members of the community must have if our educational system is to prepare young people adequately for the challenges and demands of the coming century. Of course, the way these various groups of individuals generate and use motivation differs greatly. Students need motivation to learn, parents need it to track the educational progress of their sons and daughters, teachers need it to become better teachers, and school administrators need it to ensure that every facet of the schools they manage continues to improve.” Renchler (1992:3). In sum, “Personal motivation in fact includes factors that extend beyond the classroom; it is a lifelong learning experience in a particular social context...we should not regard motivation as belonging to one community in the classroom; there are broad connections between the classroom and the school, the school and the government and the country at large.”Nakata (2006:19).
BIBLIOGRAPHY


Zebedee Talley Jr. (2009). A Qualitative Investigation of Black Middle School Students’ Experiences of the Role of Teachers in Learning and Achievement. Doctoral Dissertation, the Faculty of the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. U.S.A.


THE PUPILS’ QUESTIONNAIRE

This survey is conducted by a Secondary School Teacher to better understand the role of external factors such as: the teacher’s rapport with pupils on learners’ motivation. This is not a test so there are no “right” or “wrong” answers. We are interested in your personal opinion. Please give your answers sincerely as only this will guarantee the success of the investigation. Thank you very much for your help.

Following are a number of statements about teacher’s practices that are sometimes used by foreign language teachers and with which some pupils agree and others disagree.

Please put a cross next to each statement according to the amount of your agreement or disagreement with that item.

M.BOURAS Haron
Department of English Language and Literature
Faculty of Letters and Languages
University of Sétif-Ferhat Abbas
Part One: Teaching Practices Related to the Three Teacher Factors. (Rapport, Personality and Teaching Style)

Section A: The Teacher’s Rapport with Pupils.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>You feel motivated to learn the English language because</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Your teacher develops a good relationship with pupils.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Your teacher makes pupils feel comfortable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Your teacher calls pupils by their names.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Your teacher is a respectful person. He/she respects all pupils.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Your teacher takes care of pupils.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Your teacher creates a pleasant and relaxed atmosphere in the classroom.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Your teacher has a close contact with you and understands your needs.</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Your teacher encourages interest between pupils.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither Disagree</th>
<th>Nor Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
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123
Section B: The Teacher’s Personality.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>You feel motivated to learn the English language because</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neither Disagree Nor Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Your teacher is kind and sympathetic.</td>
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<td>2. You face difficulties but your teacher helps you to overcome them.</td>
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<td>3. Your teacher is warm and friendly.</td>
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<td>4. Your teacher is open-minded.</td>
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<td>5. Your teacher is patient when explaining the lesson.</td>
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<td>6. Your teacher treats learners with fairness.</td>
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<td>7. Your teacher is calm.</td>
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<td>8. Your teacher behaves naturally in class.</td>
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<td>9. Your teacher is flexible and adapts to changing situations.</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>You feel motivated to learn the English language because</th>
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<th>Nor Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Your teacher has a dynamic and interesting style of presentation.</td>
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<td>2. Your teacher always provides guidance about how to do the task or the exercise.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Your teacher simplifies the lessons and makes them interesting.</td>
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<td>4. Your teacher allows you to participate actively.</td>
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<td>5. You always receive encouragement from your teacher when you answer correctly.</td>
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<td>6. Your teacher encourages you to practice English.</td>
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<td>7. Your English teacher is tolerant when you make mistakes.</td>
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<td>8. Your teacher appreciates your efforts though they are little.</td>
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<td>9. Your teacher controls the class firmly.</td>
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<td>10. Your teacher encourages creative and imaginative ideas.</td>
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</table>

**Part Two: General Information** (Please, complete this part).

First name:

Family Name:

Age (in years):

Gender (circle what applies):  M    f

School:

Thank you so much for your time
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<th>My pupils feel motivated to learn the English language because …</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>1. I develop a good relationship with them.</td>
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<td>2. I make them feel comfortable.</td>
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<td>3. I call them by their names.</td>
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<td>4. I respect them all.</td>
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<td>5. I take care of them.</td>
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<td>6. I create a pleasant and relaxed atmosphere in the classroom.</td>
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<td>7. I have a close contact with my pupils, I understand their needs.</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>I am kind and sympathetic towards them.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>I help them to overcome the difficulties they come across.</td>
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<td>3.</td>
<td>I am warm and friendly towards them.</td>
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<td>4.</td>
<td>I am open-minded.</td>
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<td>7.</td>
<td>I am calm.</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Part Two: General Information

(Please, complete this part)

**First name:**

**Family Name:**

**Gender** (circle what applies):  M  f

**School:**

**Teaching experience:** (in years)

Thank you so much for your time
### APPENDIX C

The table below shows teachers’ characteristics that are considered the most motivational and those that are considered the least motivational by students using percentages, rank and mean.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pupils’ Perceptions of the Role of Teachers’ Characteristics on their Motivation.</th>
<th>Levels of agreement</th>
<th>(5)</th>
<th>(4)</th>
<th>(3)</th>
<th>(2)</th>
<th>(1)</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Mean</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Section A: The teachers’ rapport with pupils</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Your teacher develops a good relationship with pupils.</td>
<td>33.50</td>
<td>43.00</td>
<td>15.50</td>
<td>06.00</td>
<td>02.00</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>7&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Your teacher makes pupils feel comfortable.</td>
<td>48.00</td>
<td>35.00</td>
<td>06.50</td>
<td>05.00</td>
<td>01.50</td>
<td>830</td>
<td>4&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Your teacher calls pupils by their names.</td>
<td>52.50</td>
<td>31.00</td>
<td>13.50</td>
<td>01.50</td>
<td>01.50</td>
<td>863</td>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Your teacher is a respectful person.</td>
<td>63.50</td>
<td>29.00</td>
<td>05.00</td>
<td>01.00</td>
<td>01.50</td>
<td>904</td>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Your teacher takes care of pupils.</td>
<td>40.50</td>
<td>39.50</td>
<td>13.00</td>
<td>04.00</td>
<td>03.00</td>
<td>829</td>
<td>5&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Your teacher creates a pleasant and relaxed atmosphere in the classroom.</td>
<td>40.50</td>
<td>37.50</td>
<td>10.50</td>
<td>08.50</td>
<td>03.00</td>
<td>808</td>
<td>6&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Your teacher knows better your needs.</td>
<td>31.50</td>
<td>43.50</td>
<td>14.50</td>
<td>06.50</td>
<td>04.00</td>
<td>784</td>
<td>8&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Your teacher encourages interest between pupils.</td>
<td>43.50</td>
<td>42.50</td>
<td>7.50</td>
<td>03.50</td>
<td>03.00</td>
<td>840</td>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.20</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>1. Your teacher is kind and sympathetic.</td>
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<td>43.50</td>
<td>06.00</td>
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<td>02.50</td>
<td>878</td>
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<td>4.39</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. You face difficulties but your teacher helps you to overcome them.</td>
<td>33.00</td>
<td>45.50</td>
<td>02.50</td>
<td>06.50</td>
<td>02.50</td>
<td>800</td>
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<td>4.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Your teacher is warm and friendly.</td>
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<td>36.00</td>
<td>13.50</td>
<td>04.50</td>
<td>01.50</td>
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<td>4. Your teacher is open-minded.</td>
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<td>11.50</td>
<td>01.50</td>
<td>01.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Your teacher is patient when explaining the lesson.</td>
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<td>39.50</td>
<td>09.50</td>
<td>03.00</td>
<td>00.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Your teacher treats learners with fairness.</td>
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<td>07.50</td>
<td>05.50</td>
<td>03.50</td>
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<td>7. Your teacher is calm.</td>
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<td>03.00</td>
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<td>8. Your teacher behaves naturally in class.</td>
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<td>00.50</td>
<td>864</td>
<td>4&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.32</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Your teacher is flexible and adapts to changing situations.</td>
<td>29.00</td>
<td>51.50</td>
<td>15.50</td>
<td>03.00</td>
<td>01.00</td>
<td>809</td>
<td>7&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
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<td><strong>Section C: The teacher’s teaching style</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Your teacher has a dynamic and interesting style of presentation.</td>
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<td>41.50</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>04.50</td>
<td>04.00</td>
<td>818</td>
<td>7&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.09</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Your teacher always provides guidance about how to do the task.</td>
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<td>39.00</td>
<td>14.00</td>
<td>02.50</td>
<td>00.50</td>
<td>847</td>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Your teacher simplifies the lessons and makes them interesting.</td>
<td>39.50</td>
<td>40.50</td>
<td>12.50</td>
<td>04.00</td>
<td>03.50</td>
<td>817</td>
<td>8&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Your teacher allows you to participate actively.</td>
<td>38.00</td>
<td>40.00</td>
<td>13.50</td>
<td>05.50</td>
<td>03.00</td>
<td>809</td>
<td>9&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. You always receive encouragement from your teacher when you answer correctly.</td>
<td>61.50</td>
<td>26.50</td>
<td>09.50</td>
<td>01.50</td>
<td>01.50</td>
<td>891</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Your teacher encourages you to practice English.</td>
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<td>37.00</td>
<td>14.00</td>
<td>03.00</td>
<td>01.50</td>
<td>840</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Your English teacher is tolerant when you make mistakes.</td>
<td>44.50</td>
<td>40.50</td>
<td>06.50</td>
<td>05.50</td>
<td>03.00</td>
<td>836</td>
<td>6&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Your teacher appreciates your efforts though they are little.</td>
<td>49.00</td>
<td>37.00</td>
<td>09.50</td>
<td>02.50</td>
<td>02.00</td>
<td>857</td>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Your teacher controls the class firmly.</td>
<td>29.00</td>
<td>37.00</td>
<td>22.50</td>
<td>08.50</td>
<td>03.00</td>
<td>761</td>
<td>10&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>3.80</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Your teacher encourages creative and imaginative ideas.</td>
<td>46.50</td>
<td>33.00</td>
<td>15.00</td>
<td>04.00</td>
<td>01.50</td>
<td>838</td>
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<td>8314</td>
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</table>
APPENDIX D

The following table illustrates teachers’ characteristics that are considered the most motivational and those that are considered the least motivational by teachers using percentages, rank and mean.

Teachers’ perception of the role of their characteristics on learners’ motivation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>External factors of motivation</th>
<th>Levels of agreement</th>
<th>(5)</th>
<th>(4)</th>
<th>(3)</th>
<th>(2)</th>
<th>(1)</th>
<th>Total score</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Section A: The teachers’ rapport with pupils</td>
<td>1. I develop a good relationship with them.</td>
<td>42.86</td>
<td>52.38</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>4&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. I make them feel comfortable.</td>
<td>33.33</td>
<td>57.14</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>5&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. I call them by their names.</td>
<td>33.33</td>
<td>61.90</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>8.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. I respect them all.</td>
<td>42.86</td>
<td>57.14</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. I take care of them.</td>
<td>38.10</td>
<td>57.14</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>4&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. I create a pleasant and relaxed atmosphere in the classroom.</td>
<td>61.90</td>
<td>38.10</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. I have close contact with them. I know their needs.</td>
<td>23.81</td>
<td>52.38</td>
<td>19.05</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>7&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>3.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. I encourage interest between them.</td>
<td>19.05</td>
<td>71.43</td>
<td>9.52</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>6&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.10</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>793</td>
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</table>

Section B: The teacher’s personality

<table>
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<th>Levels of agreement</th>
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<th>(4)</th>
<th>(3)</th>
<th>(2)</th>
<th>(1)</th>
<th>Total score</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I am kind and sympathetic towards them.</td>
<td>28.57</td>
<td>52.38</td>
<td>14.29</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>6&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I help them to overcome the difficulties they come across.</td>
<td>33.33</td>
<td>57.14</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>5.62</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I am warm and friendly towards them.</td>
<td>28.57</td>
<td>42.86</td>
<td>23.81</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>8&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I am open-minded.</td>
<td>9.52</td>
<td>61.90</td>
<td>28.57</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>7&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>3.81</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. I am patient when explaining the lesson.</td>
<td>47.62</td>
<td>42.86</td>
<td>9.52</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.38</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. I treat all of them with fairness.</td>
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<td>52.38</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.38</td>
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<td>7. I am calm.</td>
<td>28.57</td>
<td>61.90</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>5&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I behave naturally in class.</td>
<td>28.57</td>
<td>61.90</td>
<td>9.52</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>4&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.19</td>
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<td>9. I am flexible and adapt myself to changing situations.</td>
<td>38.10</td>
<td>57.14</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.29</td>
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Section C: The teacher’s teaching style

<table>
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<th>External factors of motivation</th>
<th>Levels of agreement</th>
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<th>(4)</th>
<th>(3)</th>
<th>(2)</th>
<th>(1)</th>
<th>Total score</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I have a dynamic and interesting style of presentation.</td>
<td>14.29</td>
<td>76.19</td>
<td>9.52</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>7&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.05</td>
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<td>2. I always provide guidance about how to do the task.</td>
<td>33.33</td>
<td>57.14</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>9.52</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>6&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.14</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. I simplify the English lessons and make them interesting.</td>
<td>47.62</td>
<td>47.62</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>4&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
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<td>4. I allow them all to participate actively.</td>
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<td>57.14</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>4&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I always praise them when they answer correctly.</td>
<td>47.62</td>
<td>42.86</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>5&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I encourage them to practice English.</td>
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<td>38.10</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>7. I am tolerant when they make mistakes.</td>
<td>47.62</td>
<td>52.38</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.48</td>
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<td>8. I appreciate their efforts though they are little.</td>
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<td>33.33</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>9. I control the class firmly.</td>
<td>33.33</td>
<td>52.38</td>
<td>9.52</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>6&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I encourage creative and imaginative ideas.</td>
<td>52.38</td>
<td>38.10</td>
<td>9.52</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>4&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.43</td>
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Cette étude examine et analyse les perceptions des élèves et des enseignants du secondaire sur les caractéristiques des enseignants et son impact sur la motivation des élèves. L'enquête explore 27 éléments d'enseignements regroupés en trois grandes sections, à savoir rapport apprenant enseignant, la personnalité de l’enseignant et son style d'enseignement. Les participants à l'étude ont été sélectionnés par échantillonnage aléatoire de quatre écoles secondaires à la fin de l'année 2009-2010 à Sédrata-W-SoukAhras. Un nombre total de 200 participants a été arpenté. Le même questionnaire est administré à 21 enseignants du secondaire. Le questionnaire a suscité des avis des élèves et des enseignants pour connaître les pratiques d'enseignement qui ont un impact sur la motivation des apprenants. De l'analyse, il est clair que les étudiants ont trouvé les pratiques pédagogiques liées au rapport de l'enseignant et les traits de personnalité plus motivant que ceux liées à son style d'enseignement. Bien que les enseignants reconnaissent rapport comme un facteur crucial, ils mettent l'accent sur leur style d'enseignement comme un élément de motivation suivie par des caractéristiques liées à des traits de personnalité. Ceci implique donc que la motivation des apprenants a besoin d'un enseignant qui trouve un bon équilibre entre sa méthodologie d'enseignement et ses caractéristiques de personnalité.
الملخص

تتناول هذه الدراسة تحليلًا لتصورات الطلاب وآسائط المدارس الثانوية لخصائص الأستاذ و مدى تأثيرها على دافعية الطلاب لتعلم اللغة الإنجليزية. لإنجاز هذه الدراسة استخدمنا استبان بيتضمن 27 بطاقة تدرج تحت ثلاث أقسام رئيسية هي علاقة الأستاذ بالتعلم، شخصية الأستاذ و أساليب التدريس. وتنوع هذا الاستبان على 200 طالب تم اختيارهم عشوائيا من أربع مدارس ثانوية و 21 أستاذ لغة الإنجليزية لعهده العام الدراسي 2009-2010 بمدينة سدرة ولاية أهراس.

خلص هذا التحليل إلى توضيح اعتقاد الطلاب بفاعلية خاصية شخصية الأستاذ و خاصية العلاقة بين الأستاذ و التعلم على حساب أساليب التدريس في حين أن الأسائط اعتبرت أن علاقة الأستاذ بالتعلم عامل أساسي لدافعية الطلاب مع ضرورة التركيز على أساليب التدريس على غرار الخاصية الثالثة التي تتمثل في شخصية الأستاذ. بالتالي نستنتج أنه لا بد من تحقيق توازن جيد بين منهجية التعليم و شخصية الأستاذ لتحفيز الطلاب على احترام اللغة الإنجليزية.