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An Investigation into the Frequency of Motivational Strategy Use Among EFL Algerian Teachers and Their Teacher-trainees' Motivational Strategy Perceptions, Writing Motivation, and Achievement

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

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Dedication

To the memory of my dearest father, Abdelhamid

To my wonderful and loving mother, Salima Mimoune

To my beloved husband, Tarek

To the most precious gift I have been given in life, my son Mehdi and my daughters Inès Dihya and Lyna Dihya

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Abstract

This study is an attempt to investigate foreign language motivational teaching strategies in the Algerian context of English as a foreign language teacher education. On the basis of some crucial problems, which are, basically, the teacher-trainees' unsatisfactory levels of writing achievement, on the one hand, and the scarcity of research on the effectiveness of foreign language motivational strategies as related to students' perceptions, on the other, the current research endeavours to cover the following aims: 1) to contribute to the body of research on foreign language motivational strategies, 2) to offer a plausible explanation for English as a foreign teacher-trainees' unsatisfactory levels of writing motivation and writing achievement, 3) to provide relevant guidance to help English as a foreign language teachers promote effective motivational practices, and 4) hopefully, to sensitise teachers to the practice of motivationally relevant teaching that incorporates teacher-trainees' perceptions. The sample drawn randomly from the target population is constituted of 6 writing teachers and 120 teacher-trainees enrolled at the 'École Normale Supérieure de Bouzareah', Algiers. The results obtained through a mixed-methods design show that teachers tend to overuse or underuse some motivational strategies. Moreover, the findings are, overall, in the direction of the main hypothesis, which states that: 'The use of motivational strategies as implemented by English as a foreign language teachers would not match the relative importance attached to them by their teacher-trainees because these strategies do not appear to be implemented in line with the teacher-trainees' perceptions'. They also lead us to reject the null hypotheses associated with it and conclude that the level of match between the use of motivational strategies and their perceived importance affects the teacher-trainees' writing motivation and achievement. Furthermore, the qualitative results help cast some light on the teachers' motivational practices and their teacher-trainees' perceptions of motivational strategies. A major implication of the study is that teachers should calibrate their motivational practices to their teacher-trainees' perceptions.

List of Abbreviations and Symbols

%: Percentage

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

Freq.: Frequency

L2: Language 2 (Second Language; Foreign Language)

M diff.: Mean Difference

M: Mean

N° : Number

PEM : Professeur de l'Enseignement Moyen (Middle School Teacher)

PES : Professeur de l'Enseignement Secondaire (Secondary School Teacher)

r: Correlation Coefficient

Rel. Freq.: Relative Frequency

SD: Standard Deviation

T: Teacher

Yrs: Years

Z diff.: Z Difference

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1. Scope of the Study

Any human endeavor is ineluctably tied to motivation. Motivation drives us to pursue educational and career goals, grow our creative potential, explore new research horizons, and engage in altruistic actions. It is an inherent component of human nature and is, therefore, remarkably complex. Although it is difficult to find a comprehensive definition of motivation, it is generally conceived as a dynamic, highly intricate process, which instigates, maintains, and determines the course of goal-directed action.

Motivation has unequivocally been acknowledged as one fundamental pillar of learning. Most educationalists concur on the key role of motivation in promoting positive behaviour and academic outcomes. Motivated students are generally reported to work harder, exhibit greater perseverance, invest more time in learning activities, and perform consistently better than their classroom unmotivated peers.

In foreign language learning, motivation is a sine qua non condition for success since it is held to "serve as the initial engine to generate learning and later functions as an ongoing driving force that helps sustain the long and usually laborious journey of acquiring a foreign language" (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007, p.153). Virtually every aspect of the learning environment is believed to influence students' motivation, ranging from the teacher's behaviour to the language syllabus. It follows that it is partly incumbent upon teachers to enhance and sustain their students' motivation for learning. The question, then, arises of how to stimulate uninterested learners and keep those interested engaged in language learning. In fact, the answers to this question have emerged in response to Crookes and Schmidt's (1991) call to explore new

avenues in the study of motivation and consider conceptual alternatives to the social-psychological approach prevailing in the 1990's. Ensuing theoretical developments in the study of second/foreign language motivation, in parallel with those occurring independently in the field of educational psychology, have provided the most important means for devising motivational teaching frameworks (e.g., William & burden, 1997; Chambers, 1999; Dörnyei, 2001).

In the writing classroom, motivational teaching strategies might be helpful in alleviating the difficulties experienced by language learners. Composing in a second/foreign language is, indeed, a daunting task for most students. Much effort and time is required from them to take control over the writing process. The use of motivational strategies would assist students by creating learning experiences that promote their enthusiastic engagement in the learning-to-write process and help them meet the challenges associated with writing in a second/foreign language.

In the context of teacher training, more particularly, creating a classroom environment that is conducive to learning is an instructional requisite, for teacher-trainees are not only expected to acquire appropriate writing skills, but also to teach these skills to generations of pupils. The current study is an attempt to investigate motivational teaching strategies in the Algerian context of EFL teacher education.

2. Statement of the Problem

In the Algerian context, EFL freshman teacher-trainees have already gone through a seven-year period of English language learning. After three consecutive years of EFL writing instruction, as part of the teacher training curriculum, too many trainees do not achieve an adequate level of academic writing competence. Students' grade records, consulted with the permission of the head of the department of English (see appendix A), show, for example, that 43.67% of second-year students (academic year 2015/2016) and 33.55% of third-year students enrolled at the teacher training college of Bouzareah (academic year 2016/2017) obtained below-average scores on the writing examination. Given that language learning is a multi-faceted process, the reason why students fail to develop effective writing skills cannot be attributed to a single factor. Part of the answer may lie in their lack of motivation to write academic texts in the English language. Research has demonstrated a strong association between motivation and L2 performance (e.g., Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Gardner et al., 1997). In the current context of study, the issue of motivation seemed to me an interesting line of enquiry to pursue. This is because one recurrent subject of concern emerging from personal discussions with EFL teachers, who also happen to be my colleagues, is students' disinclination to invest genuine effort in learning and strive for higher levels of achievement. Because the role of the language teacher is seen as crucial in promoting student motivation and creating optimal learning environments, the teacher-trainees' lack of motivation may be related to their teachers' motivational teaching practices. Some EFL writing teachers

may not use motivational teaching strategies or, presumably, may not implement them in consonance with the importance attached to them by their teacher-trainees.

A further problem concerns the paucity of empirical research on foreign language motivational strategies. To date, studies investigating the actual pedagogical value of motivational strategies are rare. More particularly, studies exploring the relationship between teachers' motivational practices and students' motivation are limited. There is also a scarcity of research on the relationship between motivational strategies as related to students' perceptions and their achievement. Bernaus and Gardner (2008) think it would be useful to confirm that the use of motivational strategies translates into better achievement. They point out, however, that research attempts made in this direction should consider investigating motivational strategy use as seen from the students' perspective. They also stress that students' perceptions are the main criteria for evaluating the quality of motivational teaching practice.

3. Aim of the Study

On the basis of the problems stated above, the current study attempts to cover the following aims:

1. Contribute to the body of research on foreign language motivational strategies by investigating questions (see questions N° 2, 3, and 4) which, to the best of our knowledge, have not been addressed yet.

2. Offer a plausible explanation for EFL teacher-trainees' unsatisfactory levels of writing motivation and achievement.

3. Provide relevant guidance to help EFL writing teachers promote effective motivational practices.

4. Sensitise EFL writing teachers to the practice of motivationally relevant teaching that incorporates EFL teacher-trainees' perceptions.

4. Research Questions and Hypotheses

This two-phase (i.e., quantitative and qualitative) design study sets out to find empirical answers to the following research questions:

- **Quantitative Phase:**

1. How often do EFL writing teachers use motivational strategies?

Sub-questions:

   1.1. What motivational strategies do EFL writing teachers use the most frequently?

   1.2. What motivational strategies do EFL writing teachers use the least frequently?

2. Does the use of motivational strategies as implemented by EFL writing teachers match the relative importance attached to them by their teacher-trainees? If not, what are the most important areas of mismatch?

3. Does the level of match between the use of motivational strategies and the relative importance attached to them affect the teacher-trainees' writing motivation?

4. Does the level of match between the use of motivational strategies and the relative importance attached to them affect the teacher-trainees' writing achievement?

- **Qualitative Phase:**

5. What additional information do the teacher interviews provide about the motivational teaching practices of EFL writing teachers?

6. What additional information do the focus group interviews provide about the teacher-trainees' perceptions of motivational strategies?

Research question N°**2** is used for the construction of the following general research hypothesis**:**

- The use of motivational strategies as implemented by EFL writing teachers would not match the relative importance attached to them by their teacher-trainees because these strategies do not appear to be implemented in line with the teacher-trainees' perceptions.

To this general research hypothesis are attached two null hypotheses:

- The level of match between the use of motivational strategies and the relative importance attached to them does not affect the teacher-trainees' writing motivation.

- The level of match between the use of motivational strategies and the relative importance attached does not affect the teacher-trainees' writing achievement.

5.   Methodology

This case study adopts a mixed-methods sequential explanatory design, which involves gathering qualitative data in order to explain the results obtained from the analysis of quantitative data. Quantitative data is collected on the basis of a direct observation checklist, a three-part questionnaire (frequency/perception/ writing motivation) and students' examination papers (using a slightly modified version of

Weir's (1990) analytic scoring rubric). The sample consists of 6 EFL writing teachers, selected form a population of 12 teachers, and 120 teacher-trainees, chosen from a population of 530 students, enrolled as middle and secondary school teacher-trainees at the teacher training college of Bouzareah.The qualitative phase involves follow-up interviews, conducted with the 6 teacher participants and a total of 26 students. The study uses triangulation of data both for confirmation and completeness purposes. More accurately, confirmation of data is achieved through quantitative data collection procedures (observation checklist and student frequency questionnaire). The aim is to obtain reliable evidence on the frequency of use of motivational strategies as implemented by EFL writing teachers. Completeness of data involves collecting and analysing qualitative data (teacher interviews/student focus groups) with a view to gaining further insight into EFL teachers' motivational practices and the teacher-trainees' perceptions of motivational strategies.

6. Structure of the Thesis

The thesis is organised into seven chapters, besides the general introduction and the general conclusion.

Chapter One, entitled motivation in educational psychology, presents an overview of the most important conceptual approaches to motivation in educational psychology, starting with a definition of motivation in psychology and education. The chapter goes beyond a description of the basic tenets of motivation theories to discuss the pedagogical implications and limitations associated with each theory.

Chapter Two, entitled motivation and motivational strategies in the L2 classroom comprises two distinct but related parts. The first part begins by describing the construct of motivation in the field of language learning before discussing the major theories of L2 motivation. The different types of motivation and their relation to L2 achievement/proficiency are also covered. The second part of the chapter provides insight into the field of second/foreign language motivational strategies, including a definition of motivational strategies, a description of the motivational framework selected to inform the present study, and a review of previous research on the effectiveness of motivational strategies.

Chapter Three, entitled the writing skill in the L2 classroom**,** introduces the L2 writing skill by offering a general description of the writing skill both in academic and language learning contexts. The leading approaches to teaching L2 writing as well as the different factors believed to influence students' written performance are also tackled. The chapter closes by discussing issues related to L2 writing assessment, including practices in L2 writing assessment in general and scoring procedures in particular.

Chapter Four, entitled Research Methodology, provides a description of the sample, the research design and method, the research instruments, the steps involved in administrating and designing the research instruments, and concludes with the quantitative and qualitative data analysis techniques used in analysing and interpreting the research findings.

Chapter Five, entitled Phase I - Quantitative Data Analysis, presents the analysis and interpretation of the quantitative results derived from the observation checklist, the student three-part questionnaire, and students' examination papers. The results of the pilot stage (observation checklist/questionnaire) are included at the beginning of the chapter.

Chapter Six, entitled Phase II- Qualitative Data Analysis, starts with a description of the pilot stage. It then focuses on the qualitative analysis and interpretation of the teachers' and students' interview responses.

Chapter Seven, entitled pedagogical implications and recommendations, outlines the implications of the study and offers practical recommendations in relation to the research findings and the teaching context.

CHAPTER ONE:

MOTIVATION IN EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Introduction

Numerous attempts have been made to unravel the motivational process with a view to improving the teaching and learning quality. The intricate nature of the concept gave rise to different theories of motivation that conceptualised it in terms of disparate constructs. In educational psychology, motivational theories have been continually informed by the field of motivational psychology, which provided the major theoretical backdrop for understanding why and how students experience different motivational patterns for learning.

Considering the context of the present thesis, at the crossroads of applied linguistics, education, and psychology, this chapter provides an overview of the most influential theories of motivation with relevance to the concerns of education. The chapter starts with an overview of the definitions of motivation in psychology and education. Next, a description of early theories, namely the behaviouristic and the humanistic perspectives, is provided. Focus is then put on contemporary cognitive theories, encompassing expectancy-value theories, self-determination theory, and goal theories.

1. Definitions of Motivation

1.1. Definition of Motivation in Psychology

The literature on motivation suggests that trying to make sense of the term motivation is a challenging enterprise. The remarkably complex dimension of the construct would seemingly turn any attempt to capture its very nature within one wholly consistent theory into an illusionary quest. In default of a grand theory of motivation, there has been a succession of different conceptual models geared

toward the major theoretical orientations to psychology. Reflecting different strands of thought, definitions differ in respect of the factors that are involved in motivation and how these factors operate to create it. Yet, in spite of the numerous and diverging theoretical standpoints on the matter, for Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011, p.4),

> Perhaps the only thing about motivation most researchers would agree on is that it, by definition, concerns the direction and magnitude of human behaviour. In other words, motivation is responsible for: 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.

In this regard, motivation doesn't solely provide the rationale for behaviour, i.e., it explains why a particular action has occurred, it also determines behaviour, i.e., it specifies the course of an action on the one hand, and the quality with which this action is carried out on the other. The manifestation of motivation through a sequential pattern of choice, direction, and persistence has similarly been alluded to by Wlodkowski (1985, p.2; cited in Root, 1999) when he observes that motivation is "the processes that can (a) arouse and instigate behavior, (b) give direction or purpose to behavior, (c) continue to allow behavior to persist, and (d) lead to choosing or preferring a particular behavior" Motivation, from the aforementioned definitions, can be said to be an ongoing process with three main functions: an activating function, a directing function, and a sustaining function.

Motivation is also seen as a process; not as a product, implying that motivation is indeed a covert entity only to be inferred from observable actions.

Contemporary theories, in particular, emphasize the multiplicity and goal-directed nature of these processes (Brophy, 2010). Goal-directed behaviour involves conscious actions that are oriented toward attaining a certain goal, which gives action both a purpose and a direction. Williams and Burden (1997, p.120) refer to goal-directed behaviour when they put that "motivation is a cognitive and emotional arousal which results in a conscious decision to act, and gives rise to sustain intellectual and physical effort in order to achieve the set goals".

Moreover, motivation is conceived as a set of processes. While early theories conceptualised these processes in terms of physiological needs, contemporary theories view motivation as involving human cognition, such as beliefs, self-representation, goals, and affect. They also stress the role of social and contextual factors in molding the cognitive processes involved in motivation.

Motivation is no longer described in intra-individual terms but conceived as a dual phenomenon emerging from the interplay of social and personal factors, or as a complex process that involves "a host of personal, social and contextual antecedents and consequences" (Schunk et al., 2014, p.41). In Dörnyei and Ushioda's (2011) view, building a comprehensive picture of motivation should entail the inclusion of these components inasmuch as "humans are social beings and human action is embedded in a number of physical, cultural and psychological

contexts, which considerably affect a person's cognition, behavior and achievement" (p.7).

In light of the aforementioned definitions, motivation can be described as a highly complex process shaped by a plethora of personal, social, and contextual factors, which translates into the initiation, direction, persistence, and quality of goal-directed behaviour.

1.2. Definition of Motivation in Educational Psychology

In the educational sphere, motivation has alternately been delineated in more or less theory-driven terms. General definitions that take over those key behavioural aspects and fit them to the learning context tend to describe students' engagement or students' overt actions as motivational indicators. In this way, motivation is what brings students to a task, what guides students through the task, i.e., to choose one course of action over another, and what regulates their persistence during the task (Alderman, 2004). Further definitions adopt a cognitive stance and stress the underlying mental procedures students employ to reach the set goal(s). To quote, Turner (1995, p.413) associates student motivation with "voluntary uses of high-level self-regulated learning strategies, such as paying attention, connection, planning, and monitoring". Schunk et al. (2014) refer to both physical and mental activities. Physical activities involve actions, like attending classroom or asking for help, while mental activities involve cognitive processing, such as planning, rehearsing, solving problems, organizing...etc. They also classify goals as short-term goals and long-term goals. Accordingly, Students may be aiming at an

immediate outcome, like scoring well in an exam or performing successfully a task, or/and may exhibit a long-lasting commitment aspiring after a more distant outcome, like getting a scholarship or graduating with honours.

With this in mind, it is worth mentioning that a full understanding of the core aspects of motivation and its complexities, be it in motivational psychology or in educational psychology, can only be gained by broadening the frame of reference and getting insight into the evolution of the construct throughout the history of motivational theorizing.

2. Theories of Motivation

The evolution of motivational theory has been intimately linked to the conception of human beings and their relation with their environment. Theories developed from behaviouristic views, which perceived humans as learning machines and purported behaviour as a function of external stimuli, to humanistic views, which stressed the creative and self-determined dimension of human nature and saw behaviour as motivated by the need for personal growth and self-fulfilment. The second half of the twentieth century witnessed a move toward a cognitive approach, which conceives humans as thinking beings whose motivation is mediated through and controlled by internal mental processes.

The following section provides a discussion of the leading theories of motivation in educational psychology. Early theories include the behaviouristic and the humanistic theories. Contemporary theories comprise self-efficacy theory, attribution theory, self-worth theory, modern expectancy-value theory, self-

determination theory, goal-setting theory, goal orientation theory, and goal content theory.

2.1. Early Theories of Motivation

Motivational conceptualisations can be traced back to biologically-based drive theories that related motivation essentially to physiological drives. The concern was then to provide a causal explanation to "what moved a resting organism to a state of activity" (Graham & Weiner, p. 65, 1996). The most important theories encompass Freud's instinct theory and Hull's drive theory. Freud (1964; cited in Chambers, 1999) proposed that behaviour was impelled by inner unconscious forces that consisted of the life instinct responsible for sexual motivation and the death instinct, responsible for aggressive motivation. Hull (1943; cited in Graham & Weiner, 1996), for his part, devised an extensive theoretical model which stressed the importance of both drives and habit in initiating behaviour. According to him, the stimulus-response association provides the direction of action, whereas drives, defined as the internal forces that seek to restore the physiological disequilibrium of an organism caused by unsatisfied needs to a state of equilibrium or homeostasis, energise action. While providing a plausible account for simple human behaviours, Freud's and Hull's theories are of little utility in explaining complex behaviours including motivation to learn (Schunk et al., 2014).

Because they are of little relevance to education, the abovementioned theories will not be covered in detail, and priority shall instead be given to the behaviouristic and humanistic theories of motivation.

2.1.1. The Behaviouristic Theory

From the early twentieth century till the mid-1970s, behavioural learning theories in general and Skinner's behavioural model in particular had a profound impact upon educational practice. Behaviourism is a theory that focuses on behavioural changes as a function of external factors (stimuli). Hence, learning is defined as "the acquisition of a new behaviour or the modification of behaviour as a result of teaching, training, or tutoring" (Woollard, 2010, p.1). Originally developed as a theory of learning, operant conditioning does not account for motivation as a separate phenomenon but generalises the principles of learning to all behaviour (Schunk et al. 2014). According to Skinner's (1953) operant conditioning, a response to a given stimulus is more likely to reappear if positively reinforced (rewarded) and more likely to vanish if negatively reinforced (ignored or punished).

Motivation, in line with this principle, is the result of seeking rewards and avoiding punishment. The triadic model at the basis of operant conditioning schematises this process as a sequence of:

Antecedent stimulus→Behaviour→ Consequent stimulus

According to this model, motivated behaviour occurs only in the presence of an antecedent stimulus. Preceding behaviour, an antecedent stimulus is an event that signals to the learners that adopting a certain behavioural pattern is likely to be followed by a consequent stimulus. The consequent stimulus determines the probability of a response reoccurring. When the consequent stimulus is

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reinforcement, the probability that behaviour reappears is increased. Reinforcement is said to be positive when a pleasant stimulus is supplied immediately after the behaviour has occurred, and negative when an aversive stimulus is removed whenever the behaviour is exhibited (Snowman et al., 2012). In school, the use of reinforcers as a means of engaging students in learning behaviours is common practice and can take the form of teachers' praise, additional grades, free time, etc. When the consequent stimulus is punishment, the probability that behaviour reappears is decreased. Punishment may involve the presentation of an aversive stimulus like criticism, the temporary removal of positive reinforcement (called timeout), or the suppression of both positive and negative reinforcement (called extinction). Figure 1.1 illustrates the conditions under which reinforcement, punishment, and extinction take place.

To explain how complex academic skills are learned, operant conditioning uses another central notion called shaping. Shaping is achieved through reinforcement of consecutive approximations toward the targeted behaviour. Teachers may need to divide the learning process into discrete steps and help his/her students go through each step gradually. Students' actions are then reinforced each time they contribute to achieving the step successfully and ignored when they divert from the desired behaviour.

Present	⇨	**Desirable Stimulus**	⇨	**Behaviour Strenghtened**	⇨	**Positive Reinforcement**
Remove	⇨	**Desirable Stimulus**	⇨	**Behaviour Weakened**	⇨	**Punishment II (time-out)**
Withold	⇨	**Desirable Stimulus**	⇨	**Behaviour Weakened**	⇨	**Extinction**
Present	⇨	**Aversive Stimulus**	⇨	**Behaviour Weakened**	⇨	**Punishment I**
Remove	⇨	**Aversive Stimulus**	⇨	**Behaviour Strenghtned**	⇨	**Negative Reinforcement**
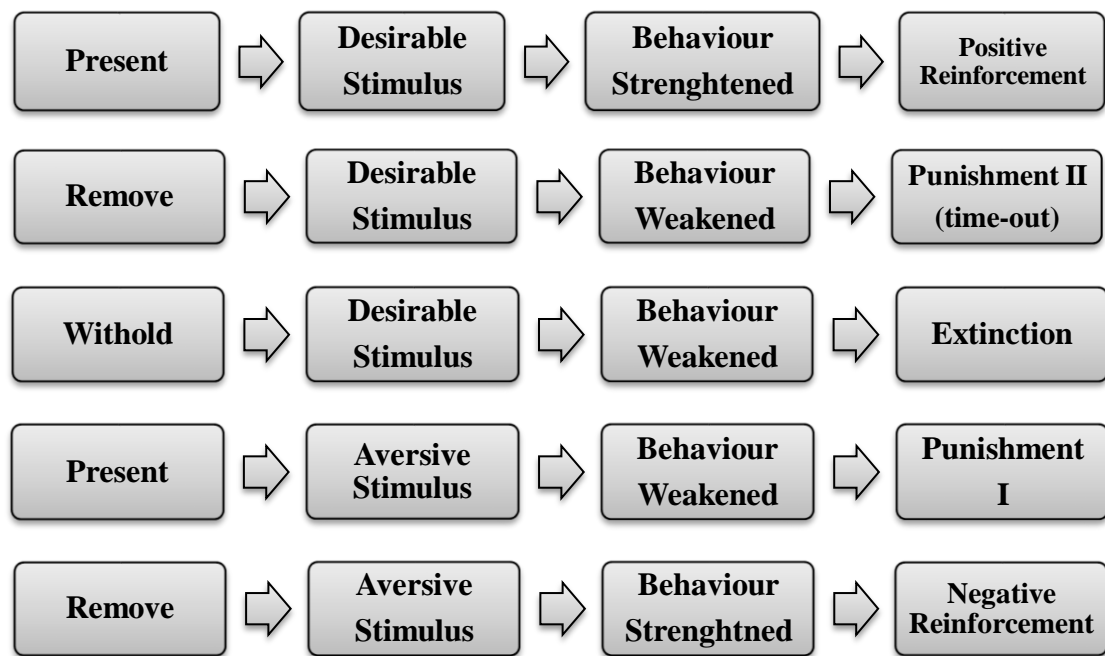
Figure 1.1 Conditions That Produce Reinforcement, Punishment, and Extinction (Based on Snowman et al., 2012, p. 229)

Although operant conditioning principles may, under some circumstances, prove useful in classroom contexts, they fall short of addressing the complexities of human motivation. Major criticism includes the fact that operant conditioning ignores the role of internal processes like goals, expectancies of value, attributions, and social comparisons in shaping motivation (Schunk et al., 2014). Furthermore, the reinforcing value of most potential reinforcers is largely dependent upon personal and situational factors (Slavin, 2006). Hence, students respond to rewards that are personally and contextually meaningful to them. Besides, changes in behaviour may be transitory. Students' motivation to learn may decrease as soon as the reward is obtained, causing a shift toward earlier unproductive learning tendencies (Snowman et al., 2012). Finally, students may develop a materialistic attitude toward learning and think in terms of the reward at stake, which, in turn,

undermines the intrinsic motivation they may initially have for the activity (Snowman et al., 2012).

2.1.2. The Humanistic Theory

In the 1950's, the humanistic approach emerged as the 'third force' in psychology, along with behaviourism and psychoanalysis. The humanistic view of motivation transcended the reductionist biological and behavioural basis of motivation to cover a wider range of needs reflective of a more complex conception of man as a self-aware creature, motivated to realise his potential and controlled by choices rather than unconscious forces. The humanistic approach strives to gain understanding of the person as an integrated whole whose behaviour is but the outer reflection of inner feelings, values, and unique way of perceiving and understanding (Hamachek,1987). Humanists challenged the behaviouristic, non-intellectual approach by stressing the fact that humans are endowed with feelings and thoughts, and that insights drawn from animal-based experiments could not be extrapolated to account for human behaviour. They also assumed that a better understanding of the uniquely human aspect of motivation can only be gained through the study of why people attempt to be creative and maximize their capabilities (Schunk et al., 2014). The best-known humanistic theory of motivation is Maslow's hierarchy of human needs.

Maslow (1970) proposed a seven-level hierarchy of needs, often represented as a pyramid-like structure, ranging from the lowest-order needs, known as deficiency needs, to the highest-order needs called growth needs. He believed that "the single, holistic principle that binds together the multiplicity of human motives

is the tendency for a new and higher need to emerge as the lower need fulfils itself by being sufficiently gratified" (1968, p.55). According to him, partial or complete satisfaction of deficiency (lower) needs is necessary before moving to satisfy growth (higher) needs. Once deficiency needs are met, people are motivated to fulfil the needs on the next level within the perspective of becoming "everything that one is capable of becoming" (Maslow, 1968, p.10). Figure 1.2 illustrates the hierarchical relationship between the different sets of needs.

Self-actualization Needs

Aesthetic Needs

Cognitive Needs

Esteem Needs

Love and Belongigness Needs

Safety Needs

Physiological Needs
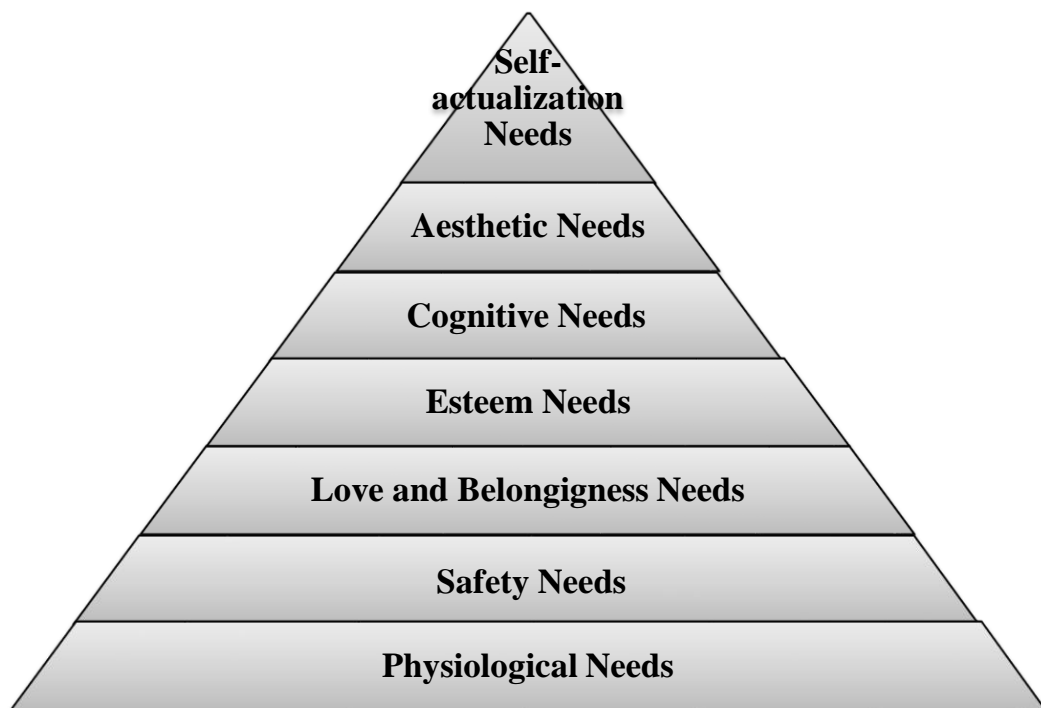
Figure 1.2 Maslow's Needs Hierarchy (Based on Maslow, 1970)

Deficiency needs are grouped into physiological needs, safety needs, love and belongingness needs, and esteem needs:

- *Physiological needs:* comprise survival needs like air, food, water, and rest.

- *Safety needs:* refer to the need for protection from physical and psychological harm and comprise stability, shelter, and security.

- *Love and belongingness needs:* relate to the social nature of human beings and encompass the need to belong to and be loved by one's family, friends, colleagues...etc.

- *Esteem needs:* refer to the need for respect and recognition of others and the need for self-respect, self-confidence, and personal accomplishment.

Growth needs are grouped into cognitive, aesthetic, and self-actualization needs:

- *Cognitive needs:* are described as the need to know and understand ourselves and the world around us.

- *Aesthetic needs:* have to do with the need to appreciate beauty, order, and symmetry.

- *Self-actualisation needs***:** pertain to the inherent tendency of humans to strive to accomplish their full potential. Self-actualized people are exceptional achievers characterised by openness, creativity, humour, independence, spirituality, sense of reality, and lucidity. Also, for Maslow (1970), self-actualized individuals do commonly go through what he describes as a 'peak experience'. A 'peak experience' represents "moments of highest happiness and fulfilment" (Maslow, 1970, p.59). These are moments when a person feels more alive, aware, perceptive, and more able than usual. Peak experiences go hand in hand with self-regulation or the ability to think independently, which involves the skill (e.g., academic learning skills) and the will (self-control).

In Maslow's (1968) view, lower needs are stronger than higher needs in that unmet basic needs, like hunger or lack of sleep, would prevent people from concentrating on more sophisticated needs, such as striving for excellence or appreciating beauty. Higher needs, on the other hand, give access to a more spiritual and intellectual experience of life and allow for the full expression of human goodness through such concepts as respect for others, loyalty, and civic consciousness. Maslow (1968) asserts, even so, that lower and higher needs are part of human nature and should not be regarded as antagonistic but instead considered from a holistic perspective.

Maslow's theory of human needs implies the importance for educators to ensure that student's lower needs are satisfied if their full academic potential is to be released. Students who are not properly fed or those who live in deprived living environments will show little or no motivation to seek for knowledge. Similarly, students with low self-esteem or having little sense of belongingness are unlikely to show enthusiasm for academic activities. For teachers, it is of utmost importance to implement strategies that help students function at different levels in order to instil curiosity and motivation for learning. Physiological needs can be addressed by providing students with free or reduced-price lunches, small group instruction can be used to help foster students' sense of belongingness, and introducing students to different art forms can help nurture students' love for aesthetics (Moreno, 2010). Besides, educators should value each individual student through attitudes and practices that reflect an appreciation of his/her cultural, linguistic, and social characteristics (Moreno, 2010).

Carl Rogers, another American humanistic psychologist, put forward a theory that made considerable contributions to the field of psychotherapy and later to the field of educational psychology. His approach, client centred-therapy, enclosed the principles that should govern the relation of therapists to their clients. Rogers' theory (1961; cited in Kirschenbaum & Henderson, 1989) exhorts psychotherapists to establish a non-judgmental and honest relationship that fosters empathy[1] and positive regard through such feelings as respect, warmth and sympathy. According to him, unconditional positive regard and ensuing self-positive regard are crucial toward achieving self-actualization.

Extended to education, the theory stresses the importance of teachers' unconditional positive regard. Teachers are also encouraged to act as facilitators by valuing, accepting, and trusting students and to adopt an empathetic attitude, believed to contribute to a clearer communication, self-initiated learning, and students' full growth (Kirschenbaum & Henderson, 1989).

From a humanistic standpoint, the major goal of education is then to help students develop their different individualities, decide for themselves, and actualize their potentialities (Hamachak, 1987). The effectiveness of instruction, according to this view, is highly dependent on understanding students from their point of view.

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[1] Empathy: The feeling that you understand and share another person's experiences and emotions: The ability to share someone else's feelings (Merriam-Webster's, 2015).

A major limitation of humanistic principles as applied to classroom contexts lies in their inability to offer enough structure and organisation to allow for humanistic aims to be pursued (Hamachek, 1987). Besides, humanism places little emphasis on motivating students' output and achievement (Hamachek, 1987). Maslow's assumptions, in particular, do not always prove feasible. Teachers may not always be able to know the reasons that hamper their student's motivation, i.e., they cannot determine which of their students' needs are unsatisfied. At other times, teachers can have no control over the conditions that impede the satisfaction of these needs (Snowman et al., 2012). Rogers' humanistic principles, fostering the facilitative role of teachers, may lead instructors to waste considerable time on the process of getting students to think and learn for themselves (Brown, 2007). Finally, the nonthreatening conditions advocated by Rogers may create environments that do not promote healthy competitive attitudes among learners (Snowman et al., 2007).

2.2. Contemporary Theories of Motivation

Contemporary theories of motivation have their conceptual roots in the cognitive revolution that redefined the field of psychology. These theories stress the role of learners' beliefs, expectations, and attitudes in shaping their motivation for learning, and vary with respect to the emphasis they place on the role of the contextual and social factors that influence it.

2.2.1. Expectancy-value Theories

Expectancy-value theories are based on the idea that motivation is mediated through the interplay of two key cognitive determinants: expectancy of success and task value. Put differently, students' motivation to perform a particular task

depends on their belief about the perceived likelihood of success at the task, and the subjective value they place on the outcome. In educational settings, students' expectancy for success and subjective task value are the most immediate and strongest predictors of achievement motivation, choice of task, and persistence (Wigfield & Cambria, 2010).

2.2.1.1. Expectancy of Success Theories

Theoretical trends falling within the expectancy-value framework focused predominantly on the expectancy dimension of achievement motivation and, more specifically, on the cognitive-mediational processes that influence expectancy (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). The key cognitive processes of expectancy of success encompass attribution, self-efficacy, and self-worth beliefs.

2.2.1.1.1. Self-efficacy Theory

The self-efficacy construct was developed by Albert Bandura (1977) as a central component of his social cognitive model of learning and was brought to the foreground in his account of human motivation. According to him, the "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 1997, p.3), or self-efficacy expectations, are crucial influences on individuals' achievement motivation, including task choice, effort, persistence, resilience, and achievement. It is noteworthy that self-efficacy expectations are not general stable dispositions but can vary across domains and tasks.

Perceived self-efficacy, as maintained by Bandura (1997), develops from four sources: 1) *Performance accomplishments*: self-efficacy is affected by past experiences of success or failure in performing a particular task, 2) *Vicarious learning*: self-efficacy is affected by observing others succeed or fail, 3) *Verbal persuasion*: self-efficacy is affected by people's negative and positive feedback, and4) *Emotional arousal*: self-efficacy is affected by an individual's physiological state, such as anxiety.

In learning contexts, performance accomplishments followed by vicarious learning have been found to produce the most powerful influence on self-efficacy (Alderman, 2004). Sources of self-efficacy can, thus, yield valuable information about the teaching strategies teachers can devise to build positive self-efficacy in their students.

In education, the predictive power of self-efficacy was found to cover a wide range of academic behaviours. Self-efficacious students have been reported to set higher goals, expend much effort on the task, persist longer at demanding tasks, and use deeper cognitive and meta-cognitive processing strategies compared to students with low self-efficacy (Zimmerman et al., 1992; Schunk & Pajares, 2009; Schunk & Zimmerman, 2003). The meditational power of self-efficacy was equally put to the test in studies led by several researchers. The results demonstrated both a direct and an indirect influence of self-efficacy on students' achievement (Schunk & Pajares, 2009). Self-efficacy directly influences achievement through self-regulatory strategy use, students' persistence and efforts. Indirect influence is exerted on health-related issues like stress, anxiety, pain

tolerance, and management of phobias (Graham & Weiner, 1996). However, self-efficacy alone cannot result in positive outcomes if students do not possess the requisite skills to accomplish the task, do not value the learning task, and do not believe that their actions will lead to a positive outcome (Schunk & Pajares, 2009).

The results of the aforementioned studies show the key motivational role of self-efficacy in educational settings and its wide-ranging effect on students' psychological, affective, and academic behaviour. Self-efficacy seems in turn to be affected by students' socio-economic background, socio-cultural factors and instructional design (Schunk & Pajares, 2009).

With respect to classroom teaching practice, the tenets of self-efficacy theory can be converted into a number of strategies intended to promote students' sense of efficacy. Teachers can for instance (Schunk & Pajares, 2009; Schunk et al., 2014):

- Help students set proximal and specific learning goals: students can better appraise their progress with well-defined, short-term goals.

- Expose students to social models: teachers can use a classmate as a social model to demonstrate how a learning activity can be successfully accomplished. Students demonstrate higher self-efficacy and skill development when exposed to a coping model i.e., a student with a similar level of competence who went through the same difficulties in performing the task.

- Provide students with performance feedback about the development of their actual skills along with attributional feedback that links their success or failure to their level of ability and efforts.

- Link rewards to students' progress: rewards should be obtained when progress toward task accomplishment is made. Students who are rewarded for mere participation can be misled into thinking that further learning is not expected from them.

- Teach students learning strategies, have them verbalise these strategies as they proceed with the task, and show students how these strategies help them improve their performance and cope with the learning activity.

A number of reservations have been expressed with regard to Bandura's theory in relation to education. For Schunk and Pajares (2002, 2009):

- The relation between self-efficacy and choice cannot be established unless teachers allow students' choices (e.g., project topics).

- The amount of effort should decrease as skills are better established.

- Task persistence should bear a negative relation to self-efficacy as skills are acquired unless teachers set challenging but attainable goals for their students.

- Motivation in learning can fade out as a consequence of a repeated overestimation of one' capabilities followed by failure.

- Self-efficacy beliefs seem to be culture-dependent. Non-Western students tend to exhibit lower self-efficacy expectations compared to their Western counterparts.

2.2.1.1.2. Self-worth Theory

Self-worth, also called self-esteem, refers to the overall evaluation people make about their worth as individuals. Self-worth theory, associated with Covington, suggests that humans are motivated to preserve their sense of self-worth by maintaining the belief that they are competent (Covington, 2009). According to this theory, ability is a gauge of worth; a social reality that often causes people to avoid failure for the sake of protecting their personal worth.

In academic settings, where success is often equated with ability and failure with inability, self-worth theory takes on its full significance. The need for students is then to maintain a positive perception of their ability by attributing success to their competence and avoiding demeaning failure. Covington (2000) reports a number of failure-avoidance strategies students employ to avoid being deemed incompetent. This defensive inventory of tactics includes:

- *Self-worth protection*: students intentionally withhold efforts so that failure is ascribed to lack of effort rather that inability.

- *Self-handicapping*: students deflect their failure onto an obstacle. Self-handicapping behaviours include excuses like procrastination, unattainable goals and underachievement.

- *Defensive pessimism*: describes strategies students use to guarantee success like overstriving, cheating, and setting low demanding tasks.

Although offering a short-term escape to students, a prolonged use of failure-avoidance strategies is not without consequences. These strategies can undermine students' motivation to learn, diminish achievement, and lead to failure and

inability acceptance, which are, in turn, accompanied by a sense of demoralization, heightened anxiety, emotional exhaustion, and eventually burnout (e.g., Higgins & Berglas, 1990; Thompson, 1994; cited in Covington, 2000).

In order to help students maintain their self-worth without having recourse to failure-avoiding tactics, Covington (1984) explains that teachers should prevent a growing concern with ability from getting in the way of students' motivation. School evaluation, competitive structures, and social comparison should, according to him, give way to methods that focus on cooperative and mastery learning. Schunk et al. (2014), for their part, caution against the simplistic view that increasing self-worth by itself would lead to better achievement, sustaining that self-worth is more likely to stem from achievement and performance than the opposite. Yet, although still unclear, the causal relationship between the two is believed to be bidirectional but only under certain conditions (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002; cited in Morano, 2010).

Covington's assertion about the predominant role academic competence beliefs play in shaping students' self-worth was called into question by a number of researchers within the area of self-concept (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). It seems that an individual's physical appearance and social competence show a stronger predictive power regarding self-worth than does academic competence (Harter, 1990; cited in Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). Additionally, the predictive power of achievement-related self-beliefs depends on the value one attaches to competence in a given domain and one's intrinsic interest in the activity (Eccles, 1993). Finally, students may resort to the self-protective strategy that consists in minimizing the

value they attach to a perceived difficult task in order to protect their self-worth over time (Eccles, 1993).

2.2.1.1.3. Attribution Theory

Attribution theory, associated with Bernard Weiner, postulates that individuals seek to understand themselves and the world around them by looking for causal explanations. More specifically, it holds that the causal ascriptions people make about their success and failure determine subsequent behaviour. Besides, the theory views motivation as the sum of thoughts and emotions resulting from attributional processes. Weiner's (1992) theory describes a two-dimensional perspective whereby the causal attribution is either made by the actor, called an intrapersonal theory of motivation, or by an involved observer, called an interpersonal theory of motivation.

According to Weiner (2000, 2005, 2010) all possible ascribed causes fall into one of the following categories:

- *Stability*: refers to whether a cause is perceived as constant or temporary. Stability relates most directly to expectancy beliefs. Causes that are perceived as stable, such as students' lack of aptitude, are likely to generate the same expectancy beliefs regarding success and failure. Unstable causes on the contrary, such as bad luck, do not suggest forthcoming success or failure.
- *Locus*: refers to whether a cause is perceived as internal or external to the actor. Locus relates to the value of achievement outcomes or, in Weiner's (1992) theory, to affective reactions. Internal causes like ability and efforts

promote a greater sense of pride and self-esteem in case of success than do external causes, e.g., task ease. Similarly, shame, humiliation, and embarrassment are more likely to flow from failure ascribed to internal causes than external ones.

- *Control*: it denotes whether a cause can be subject to volitional control or not. Control, together with locus, is related to a number of self-directed emotions, such as shame, guilt, and sometimes regret when failure is attributed to controllable aspects. Shame ensues from attributions to uncontrollable, internal causes, such as a physical handicap.

In achievement domains in general and in education in particular, the most frequent causal attributions were found to include ability, effort, task difficulty, luck, mood, and help or hindrance from others (Graham, 1991; Graham & Williams, 2009). Nevertheless, it is worth mentioning that attributions are perceived explanations of failure and success and therefore do not always represent the genuine causes (Schunk et al., 2014).

From an interpersonal perspective, research has documented that students may use teachers' affective and behavioural displays as causal cues to infer teachers' attributions and their own self-ascription for failure (Graham, 1991; Graham &Weiner, 1996; Graham & Williams, 2009). Feedback communicating anger is usually interpreted by the student as a sign of lack of efforts, whereas feedback expressing excessive sympathy functions as a low ability cue (Graham &Williams, 2009). In the same way, blame, unsolicited hep, neglect, and praise following success at an easy task function as low-ability cues (Graham & Williams, 2009).

In view of these findings, Graham and Williams (2009) assert that attributional principles can shed light on the unexpected, and sometimes negative, consequences of teachers' positive feedback on students' motivation.

Schunk et al. (2014) stress the importance of providing accurate attributions. More specifically, they recommend that teachers who provide ability attributional feedback following failure communicate to students that skills can be learned before teaching them. Moreover, attributions to knowledge and effort should not be provided unless the learner invests effort on a challenging task.

Attribution theory has been criticised for its inadequate attention to cultural differences in the attributional process. Questions about how disparate cultural groups, such as culturally diverse students, differ in the way they prioritise attributions for success or failure, and the way they dimentionalise attributions have not yet been elucidated (Graham& Williams, 2009). What is more, little is known about how students' understanding of attributions evolves over time (Graham & Williams, 2009). A further criticism consists in the fact that students' attributions are retrospective judgements and, as such, cannot exert a direct influence on motivation but, instead, affect processes such as goals, self-efficacy, and values (Schunk et al., 2014).

2.2.1.2. Task Value: The Eccles et al. Expectancy-value Model

One long-established perspective within the realm of motivational psychology is expectancy-value theory. Modern expectancy value theories have essentially branched out from Atkinson's expectancy model, although differing with regard to several theoretical and methodological components (Wigfield & Cambria,

2010a). The expectancy-value model of Eccles et al. (1983), in particular, has triggered a wealth of research in academic settings (Schunk et al., 2014). Their model focuses on both the expectancy of success and value components as important determinants of achievement behaviour, with particular attention given to the properties of different tasks and how those properties influence the individual's motivation to perform a task.

The model provides a description of the four key components characterising task value.

- *Attainment value:* tasks are important because they are personally valued as they allow the expression of key aspects of individual identities.

- *Intrinsic value:* similar to the notion of intrinsic motivation, it refers to the personal enjoyment derived from performing an activity that satisfies one's interest.

- *Utility value:* similar to the notion of extrinsic motivation, it refers to how well a task serves an individual's current or future goals.

- *Cost:* it relates to the negative aspects associated with performing a task, including its emotional cost (e.g., anxiety), the effort required to achieve the task, and the missed opportunities to undertake different tasks.

The model of Eccles' et al. (1983) can be encapsulated in a complex network model of causal influences in which both expectancies and values determine achievement choices, performance, effort, and persistence and are in turn influenced by diverse task-related beliefs, such as perceived task difficulty, ability beliefs, goals, self-schema, and affective memories. Ability beliefs refer to an

individual's perception of their ability in a given domain. Goals are the outcomes individuals are striving to attain and can be short-term or long-term goals. Self-schema involves the set of knowledge, feelings, and beliefs people hold about themselves, ranging from general beliefs about their gender, age, and social roles to more specific beliefs, like academic ability (Schunk et al., 2014). Affective memories pertain to the emotional experiences associated with the task and can be positive or negative. The abovementioned variables are influenced by an individual's interpretation of their previous experiences as well as people's expectations, attitudes, and activity stereotypes and are themselves sensitive to social and cultural factors (see Figure 1.3).
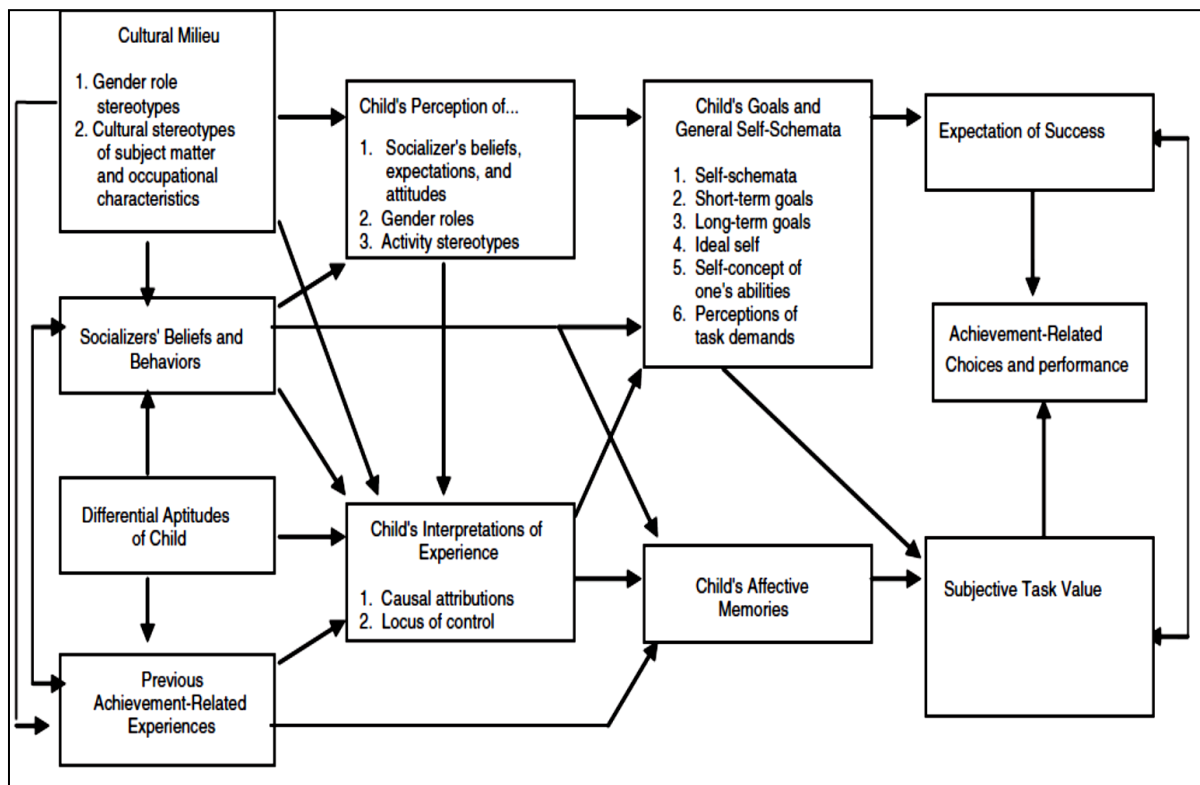
Figure 1.3 The Eccles et al. Expectancy-value Model of Achievement Motivation (1983)

(Wigfield et al., 2009, p. 57)

In school settings, a number of studies led by Eccles and her colleagues have yielded clear evidence that students' task values, including attainment value, intrinsic value, and utility value, predict both intentions and choice to engage in different activities. Furthermore, expectancies for success predict task involvement, including cognitive engagement, effort, persistence and choice and are more reliable predictors of achievement than are task values (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000; Wigfield et al., 2009; Wigfield & Cambria, 2010b). Besides, a positive relation has been established between expectancy beliefs and task value, suggesting that students tend to value the activities at which they feel competent (Wigfield et al., 2009; Wigfield & Cambria, 2010b).

The expectancy theory of Eccles et al. implies the need for teachers to (Schunk et al., 2014):

- Help students develop realistic perceptions of competence while maintaining high expectations of success by encouraging the belief that competence is not a static trait but can develop through work and perseverance.
- Provide students with information about the utility value of classroom activities.
- Create interest and value in the task by providing students with opportunities to relate the topic to real-world situations and make connections to their own interests.
- Arouse students' interest in the task by giving them some freedom of choice over the learning content.

In view of the mounting evidence yielded by extensive research on the influence of expectancy and value on academic performance and choice, criticism regarding the theory is scarce. The theory has mainly been criticised for overemphasising rational cognitive processes while underrating emotional ones in accounting for motivation. A number of suggestions for future research have been warranted to gain a better understanding of how learners come to value and devalue different activities, and how expectancy and value relate to age, gender, and ethnic differences (Wigfield et al., 2009; Wigfield & Cambria, 2010).

2.2.2. Self-determination Theory

Self-determination theory, advocated by Edward Deci and Richard Ryan, is based on the idea that people are inherently motivated to act with a sense of choice and volition as "they engage not only their outer environments, but also their inner world of drives, needs, and experiences" (Ryan & Deci, 2009, p. 171). This innate human tendency toward self-determination is triggered only in combination with socially supportive environments. Ryan and Deci (2002) argue that self-determined individuals tend to show greater psychological health and well-being, effective performance, creative and conceptual learning, and intrinsic motivation.

Self-determination theory posits that self-determined behaviour is energised by three universal psychological needs:

- ***The need for competence*:** pertains to the need to feel competent and to explore and put to work one's skills when interacting with one's social environment.

- ***The need for autonomy****:* refers to the need to feel in control of one's behaviour and to take responsibility for one's actions freely. Autonomy, unlike independence, does not exclude the influence of or help from others.

- ***The need for relatedness:*** relates to the need to connect to other individuals and to one's community and to set interpersonal bonds based on mutual support and affective concern.

Ryan and Deci (2009) explain that intrinsic motivation emerges when the need for competence and autonomy are adequately met. Conversely, experiences that impede the satisfaction of these needs are likely to foster extrinsically motivated behaviour.

Another central idea to self-determination theory is internalisation. Internalisation embodies a more elaborate conceptualisation than the traditional intrinsic-extrinsic motivation dichotomy since it lines up different types of motivation along a continuum of increasing self-determination or autonomy (see Figure 1.4). According to this taxonomy, the different types of motivation in-between the least determined (i.e., amotivation) and the most determined behaviour (i.e., intrinsic motivation) correspond to the varying degrees to which the initial external regulation of the behaviour has undergone internalisation, or the "natural process in which people work to actively transform external regulation into self-regulation" (Ryan & Deci, 2002, p.15).

Type of Motivation	Amotivation	Extrinsic Motivation				Intrinsic Motivation
Type of Regulation	Non-Regulation	External Regulation	Introjected Regulation	Identified Regulation	Integrated Regulation	Intrinsic Regulation
Quality of Behaviour	Non-self-determined	←			→	Self-determined

Figure 1.4: The Self-determination Continuum (Ryan & Deci, 2002, p. 16)

Autonomous motivation consists of:

- *Intrinsic motivation:* motivation comes from within the self. Individuals engage in a task because it is inherently interesting or delightful (e.g., a student may spend hours studying history for its own self-satisfying reward).

- *Integrated regulation:* motivation is self-regulated by what people conceive as valuable to the self (e.g., a student may take a course in politics because he/she thinks that political awareness is important).

- *Identified regulation:* motivation, though instrumental in nature, is self-regulated as people perceive the task as personally valuable for attaining the self-set goal(s) (e.g., a student may work diligently in order to gain entrance to a prestigious college).

Controlled motivation consists of:

- *External regulation:* motivation is initiated and regulated by external incentives, such as rewards and punishment (e.g., a student engages in an activity in order to have extra recess time or avoid being assigned homework.

- *Introjected regulation*: motivation is partially internalised, i.e., behaviour is initiated and regulated by internal pressure of shame and guilt avoidance for failure or by self-worth and self-enhancement gratification for success (e.g., a student who works hard for an exam to live up to his/her parents' expectations and avoid feelings of guilt).

In school, teachers can promote autonomy-supportive environments by offering their students the opportunity to voice their perspectives, to take initiatives, and to make their own choices, and by providing the necessary conditions to have them comply with academic activities because they are interesting and valuable. A bulk of research has demonstrated the various benefits associated with autonomy-supportive classrooms, including academic competence, school achievement, higher well-being, and intrinsic motivation (Vansteenkiste et al., 2006; Ryan & Deci, 2009). Contrariwise, controlling classrooms that refrain students' need for autonomy by using external pressure through rewards, deadlines, and negative feedback have documented lower achievement, reduced conceptual learning, depression, lower self-esteem, and a lack of effort and persistence (Vansteenkiste et al., 2006).

Self-determination theory has been challenged on a number of issues with relevance to education. For example, there appears to be some conceptual overlap between the construct of intrinsic motivation and integrated motivation which needs to be addressed by drawing a clear-cut distinction between these two notions (Schunk et al., 2014). Moreover, the role of choice in helping learners to fulfil their need for autonomy is still a subject of controversy (Wigfield et al., 2006).

Additionally, Ryan and Deci's (2002) claim about the existence of three basic needs as well as their supposed universality was met with scepticism, suggesting that cross-cultural investigations of these aspects across various fields, including education, are recommended.

2.2.3. Goal Theories

A goal, defined as the outcome an individual is trying to accomplish, represents a conceptual evolution of the need and drive constructs, described as an internal force to attain or avoid a particular outcome (Schunk et al., 2014). Goal theories have been mainly concerned with explaining learners' achievement-related behaviours in terms of the goals they pursue, focusing either on the properties of learning goals or on the goal orientations that learners adopt regarding learning tasks.

2.2.3.1. Goal-setting Theory

Originally introduced within industrial-organizational psychology by Locke and Latham (2002), goal-setting theory is a grounded theory based on the idea that human behaviour is triggered and guided by a purpose that people are consciously trying to achieve. Goal-setting refers to the establishment of goals which provide the purpose and direction of action, and serve as a standard against which personal satisfaction and performance can be measured (Locke & Latham, 2002).

Over 25 years of experimental and correlational research has been carried out to identify the conditions under which goals prove effective mediators of motivation and task performance (Lock & Latham, 2006). A set of motivational

criteria have been related to both an increase in motivation, self-efficacy, self-regulation, and achievement across a variety of domains, including education. These criteria are:

- *Goal specificity:* people with well-defined goals perform at higher levels compared to people with general or vague goals (Locke, 1996). Research carried out by Alderman et al. (1993; cited in Alderman, 2004) involving a descriptive analysis of students' journals demonstrated that students who aimed at specific grades performed better than students with the general aim of scoring well on the next test.

- *Goal proximity:* short-term goals foster achievement outcome better than do long-term goals (Locke, 1996). Research led by Bandura and Schunk (1981; cited in Alderman, 2004) revealed that children with proximal goals displayed more competence, increased self-efficacy, intrinsic motivation, and better achievement compared to children with distal goals. However, research carried out by Manderlink and Harackiewicz (1984; cited in Schunk, 1990) with adult learners documented no significant difference in achievement.

- *Goal difficulty:* challenging goals are better at enhancing motivation than are easy goals. However, for difficult goals to be effective, people should be devoted to the goal and should have the required knowledge and ability to perform it (Locke, 1996). Research led by Schunk (1983; cited in Alderman, 2004) with school children compared the effects of goal difficulty on their performance in arithmetic division. The study concluded

that children who were assigned difficult but attainable goals solved more problems, performed better, and exhibited greater motivation than did children who received easier goals.

- *Goal commitment:* commitment to goals leads to increased motivation and achievement levels and is affected by goal difficulty, specificity, attainability, importance, and other factors, such as the amount of cognitive efforts invested in the task, effective leadership, self-set goals, assigned goals, and rewards (Locke, 1996). In a study investigating the effect of self-set goals and assigned goals, Schunk (1985; cited in Alderman, 2004) concluded that self-set goals and assigned goals lead to an increase in self-regulation levels. Besides, self-set goals were related to higher self-efficacy and grades. Horn and Murphy (1985; cited in Schunk, 1990) found that self-set goals resulted in equal levels of achievement when students were high in achievement motivation, and enhanced achievement when students were low in achievement motivation.

Additionally, for Lock and Latham (1996, 2002), optimal effectiveness of goals is achieved when feedback on goal progress is supplied. Information about how well people do allow them to regulate their efforts and their performance strategies to better meet the goal requirements (Locke & Latham, 2002). In classroom settings, this kind of feedback is associated with higher levels of self-efficacy and motivation (Schunk, 1990; Schunk et al., 2014).

Furthermore, Lock and Latham (2002, 2006) describe the mechanisms by which goals affect motivation and performance as consisting of: 1) directing action and

attention toward goal-related activities necessary for the accomplishment of the goal, 2) energising action by initiating efforts commensurate with the complexity of the task, 3) promoting higher persistence throughout the work till completion, and 4) engaging the retrieval of stored task-relevant knowledge or the search for new knowledge and the development of strategies required for goal attainment.

Goal-setting research provided valuable insights about the importance of academic goals in increasing students' motivation and achievement and, by the same token, cast light on the importance for teachers to teach their students how to set goals effectively. To this end, teachers need to set clear and challenging goals, to provide feedback on goal progress, to set deadlines, and to help students set proximal goals by offering them guidance about how to break a final goal into discrete sub-goals.

2.2.3.2. Goal Orientation Theory

Goal orientation theory, formulated by developmental, motivational, and educational psychologists, focuses on why and how students pursue various goals with the ultimate aim of explaining students' Academic achievement (Schunk et al., 2014). According to this theory, differences in students' choice, efforts, and persistence at various learning tasks are related to differences in their goal orientations. Goal orientations generate various motivational, cognitive and behavioural outcomes and are in turn affected by personal and contextual factors such as intelligence, ability, task design, and evaluation practices (Schunk et al., 2014).

Goal orientation research delineated two broad types of goal orientations students adopt regarding a learning activity: mastery goal orientation and performance goal orientation. Mastery-oriented students commit to the task for the sake of improving their academic skills, understanding the course content, and learning new material. Performance-oriented students are concerned with creating positive judgments about their competence by outperforming their peers or outmatching academic performance standards. Mastery goal orientation and performance goal orientation were further dichotomized into mastery-approach goals vs. mastery-avoidance goals and performance approach vs. performance-avoidance goals. Students with mastery-approach goals aim to achieve success; those with mastery-avoidance goals aim to avoid failure. Performance approach goals imply students' willingness to manifest their high competence and superiority; performance-avoidance goals imply students' willingness to avoid impressions of incompetence.

Research has uncovered clear evidence on the relation between mastery goal orientation and a multitude of positive outcomes, including high levels of task persistence, effort, self-efficacy (e.g., Grant & Dweck, 2003; Wolters, 2004; cited in Meece et al., 2006) and the use of deeper learning strategies as well as interest and sustained motivation (Kaplan & Midgley, 1997; Cury et al., 2006; cited in Kaplan & Maehr, 2007). Nevertheless, research findings on the positive and negative association between goal mastery orientations with academic achievement remain inconsistent, with research showing mixed results (Kaplan & Maehr, 2007).

Furthermore, accumulated evidence points to the detrimental effect of performance-avoidance goals on achievement-related behaviours, including low efficacy, anxiety, self-handicapping strategies, and low grades (Kaplan & Maehr, 2007). Owing to inconclusive results, the prospective benefits of performance-approach goals in educational settings have not yet been validated (Kaplan & Maehr, 2007).

Whereas no consensus has been reached about whether performance-approach goals should be encouraged or not, goal orientation theorists emphasize the importance of promoting mastery goals in the classroom. Educational interventions that foster classroom mastery goals have been articulated in line with Epstein's (1989; cited in Kaplan & Maehr, 2007) taxonomy. According to this taxonomy, strategies that foster mastery goal orientation should include:

- *Authority:* during the learning process, students should be engaged in decision-making practices.
- *Recognition:* teachers should encourage students to be creative, to take risks, to express their ideas, and to learn from their mistakes.
- *Grouping:* cooperative learning structures should be based on criteria of interest and constructive heterogeneity.
- *Task:* learning activities should be various and challenging. They should also be tailored to fit students' interests and needs.
- *Time:* teachers should allow flexible schedules that accommodate students' demands as well as task requirements.

- *Evaluation:* criteria of evaluation should take into account students' progress, creativity, and competence.

Despite the popularity of goal-orientation theory, there are some lingering issues that still need to be addressed. First, there exists a lack of conceptual, methodological, and terminological uniformity among different goal-orientation researchers regarding the notions of mastery goal orientation and performance goal orientation (Kaplan & Maehr, 2007; Schunk et al., 2014). Second, there is disagreement about whether goal orientations should be conceived as dispositional, i.e., as a stable trait or contextual, i.e., as a state that has not been settled yet (Kaplan & Maehr, 2007). Third, although evidence suggests that students may adopt multiple goal orientations, mastery goal orientation and performance goal orientation are still viewed by some researchers as polar opposites (Schunk et al., 2014). Moreover, further research on the effect of goal orientation on motivation, achievement, cognition and affect is needed (Schunk et al, 2014). Finally, Kaplan and Maehr (2007) insist on the necessity for researchers to adopt developmental, cross-cultural, and interdisciplinary perspectives in researching goal orientations.

2.2.3.3. Goal Content Theory

Goal content theory, advocated by Wentzel (2000), highlights the idea that students' goals can emerge from the individual and the surrounding society. Wentzel (2000, p.106) defines a goal as "a cognitive representation of *what* it is that an individual is trying to achieve in a given situation", suggesting an approach to goals which focuses on what students are trying to accomplish. Translating

current concerns in motivation within context, the theory focuses on the importance of contextual cues in accounting for motivation in school. According to Wentzel (2000), a goal content perspective is necessary in understanding motivation within context mainly because it views goals as emanating either from the individual or from the context, implying that students can adopt personal goals or espouse and internalise goals set by others, such as teachers, peers, or parents. Furthermore, it fosters the idea that goals operate in conjunction, with students generally espousing multiple goals of both academic and social nature.

Multiple goals include social goals and task-related goals (Wentzel, 2000). Social goals may include status goals, e.g., gaining peer admiration and respect, affiliation goals, e.g., building relationships with peers and teachers, or social responsibility goals, e.g., cooperating with and helping their peers. Task-related goals refer to achievement-related goals, such as scoring well in a test or developing mastery in a given topic. Wentzel (2000) explains that the capacity of coordinating goals effectively is an important self-regulatory skill that links motivation to competent behaviour.

A number of studies demonstrated that academic performance is partly related to social and task-related goals (Wentzel, 2000). For example, Wentzel (1996; cited in Wentzel, 1999) documented that a combination of social and mastery goals predicts classroom effort over time. Furthermore, Wentzel (1993; cited in Wentzel 1999), reported that high achievers tend to have higher levels of achievement goals and social responsibility goals compared to low achievers, who were found to pursue goals such as having fun and making friends. Finally, Wentzel (1998) found

that positive social goals were likely to be pursued when students received support from teachers and peers.

In accordance with the findings of Wentzel, Alderman (2004) suggests that teachers raise students' awareness of the fact that learning tasks may serve multiple goals. He also recommends the use of cooperative learning, especially with struggling students who favour social goals over learning goals, as one way of facilitating engagement and offering students the opportunity to foster both academic and social skills. What's more, he explains that goals are likely to be productive when students are provided help on how to coordinate their goals, especially if, as Wentzel (2000) observes, students' goals are congruent with the motivational and behavioural objectives of the classroom.

For the purpose of consolidating the theory, Wentzel (2000) called for further research. According to her, exploring the various goals that students adopt in the classroom should, for instance, promote understanding of their influence on academic achievement. Furthermore, investigating the effective strategies that learners use for coordinating multiple goals is necessary if teachers are to help their students balance their goals. Finally, she recommends that researchers consider the type of goals teachers expect their students to accomplish and how.

Conclusion

The various theoretical models developed to elucidate the motivational processes involved in learning illustrate the challenging intricacy of the construct. While early theories fell short of explaining the inner processes of motivation,

modern cognitive theories laid the conceptual building blocks that have promoted a better understanding of its underlying operations. These models have described motivation in terms of beliefs, values, extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, and goals, addressing each time only part of a broader picture and raising further challenges in the study of motivation. The multiplicity of the motives that can animate learners, the plethora of cultural and contextual factors that can shape these motives, as well as a clear specification of how these variables operate have not yet been integrated into a comprehensive model of motivation; a model that stands as one primary desideratum in educational psychology.

CHAPTER TWO:

MOTIVATION AND MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES IN THE L2 CLASSROOM

Introduction

The distinctive nature of L2 motivation has generated diverse theories, which have been associated with different periods, ranging from the socio-psychological to the current socio-dynamic phase. Research over the past four decades has enabled specialists to gain insights into the multitude of factors involved in learning a second/foreign language and to identify L2 motivation as a key component of effective learning. Moreover, theoretical developments in the study of motivation, both in the field of second language acquisition and educational psychology, have shed light on the significant role of language teachers in motivating students to learn and have served to inform current frameworks of motivational strategies practice.

The present chapter includes two broad sections. The first section presents an overview of the major theories of L2 motivation, starting with a definition of L2 motivation. Given the thesis topic, the different types of motivation are described and discussed in relation to L2 achievement. The second section explores motivational strategies in the language classroom. It comprises a definition of motivational strategies, a description of the motivational framework selected to inform the present study, and a review of previous research on the effectiveness of L2 classroom motivational strategies.

1. Motivation in L2 Learning

1.1. Definition of L2 Motivation

Analogous to general conceptualisations of motivation, second language motivation has been described in terms of perceptible behaviour featuring initiation of action, effort, and perseverance. Dörnyei and Csizér (1998, p.203), for instance, assert that L2 motivation "provides the primary impetus to initiate learning the L2 and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process". In like manner, Littlewood (1998, p.53) describes it as "the crucial force which determines whether a learner embarks on a task at all, how much energy he devotes to it, and how long he perseveres".

Definitions of L2 motivation have also been framed in line with the different theoretical perspectives that characterised research in L2 motivation. Within the socio-psychological framework, Gardner (1985, p.10) defines L2 motivation as "the extent to which an individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity". L2 motivation, as represented by Gardner (1985), is the sum of three operating variables, namely the desire to learn the L2, the effort dedicated to learn the L2, and favourable attitudes toward L2 learning. Gardner (1985) goes on explaining that effort can stem from various sources, including impending examination, and can, therefore, not be indicative of genuine motivated behaviour. The desire of learners to achieve the goal of learning the L2 and their attitudes, i.e., their dispositions regarding L2 learning on the basis of related beliefs are a sine qua non condition for motivation to take place.

Elaborating on Keller's (1983) definition of motivation, Crookes and Schmidt's (1991) adopt a classroom-specific approach which subsumes four components of L2 motivation: 1) interest in the learning task as related to L2 learners' curiosity and desire to achieve the task , 2) relevance of the learning task as related to the extent to which the learning situation meets learners' goals, needs, and values, 3) expectancy of success or failure regarding L2 learning in general and the learning task in particular, and 4) satisfaction in the task outcome as represented by intrinsic and extrinsic rewards.

Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) process-oriented perspective stresses the temporal arrangement of motivational processes and the non-static nature of L2 motivation. In line with this principle, they define L2 motivation 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 unsuccessfully) acted out. (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998, p. 64)

Albeit the different views onL2 motivation, specialists in the field agree, overall, on the social and cultural dimensions of second language learning and, by extension, the unequivocally unique nature of L2 motivation. This point of view is described in Dörnyei's (1998, p.118) statement:

The motivational basis of language attainment is not directly comparable to that of the mastery of other subject matters in that knowing an L2 also involves the development of some sort of 'L2 identity' and the incorporation of elements from the L2 culture; thus, in addition to the environmental and cognitive factors normally associated with learning in current educational psychology, L2 motivation also contains featured personality and social dimensions.

1.2. Major Models of L2 Motivation

Theories of L2 motivation have been essentially concerned with addressing both the general aspects of motivation and the specificities involved in language learning. There is, indeed, a general agreement among scholars (e.g., Dörnyei, 2003; William & Burden, 1997) that both the socio-cultural values embedded in language and the unique aspects of the learning context contribute to making L2 motivation a particularly complex area of enquiry. The organization of the present section adopts Dörnyei's classification of L2 motivation research into four phases: the social psychological period, the cognitive-situated period, the process-oriented period, and the socio-dynamic period.

1.2.1. The Social Psychological Period

The social psychological framework describes motivation in relation to the socio-cultural and psychological influences involved in second language learning. Developed within the Canadian multicultural context, the social psychological research tradition was initiated by Robert Gardner and his associates, whose influential work laid the foundations of L2 motivation and uncovered its fundamental

role in second language learning. The social psychological period is characterised by Robert Gardner's and Richard Clément's theories.

1.2.1.1. Gardner's Social-psychological Theory

Gardner's (1985) theory is anchored around the premise that second language learning achievement is significantly affected by learners' motivational and attitudinal variables.

L2 Motivation, as formulated by Gardner (1985), is a composite entity consisting of the amount of effort put in learning the language, the level of desire learners have for learning the language, and learners' attitude toward L2 learning, working conjointly. Attitudes are defined as "an evaluative reaction to some referent or attitude object, inferred on the basis of the individual's beliefs or opinion about the referent" (Gardner 1985, p.9) and grouped under three main headings: 1) attitudes toward the L2 community 2) attitudes toward learning a specific L2, and 3) attitudes toward language learning in general.

Another aspect of Gardner's model is the integrative/instrumental orientation division. Orientations refer to the goals or reasons that underlie L2 learners' motivation to learn a language. An orientation is said to be integrative when language learning is pursued for the purpose of interacting with and/or identifying with the L2 community members. Instrumental motivation, on the other hand, describes the learner's desire to learn the target language as a means of attaining practical objectives. Although most attention has been paid to the abovementioned orientations, Gardner (1985) did not preclude the existence of other types of

orientations. Investigations conducted by Clément and Kruidenier (1983) identified additional orientations, the most important of which are seeking friendship, travelling, and acquiring knowledge. It is worth mentioning, nonetheless, that Gardner (2001) recommended that attention be directed toward motivation, i.e., the actual L2 learning behaviour, and away from orientations, which sole function is to help spur motivation without being a component of it. As such, there is no reason, according to him, to believe in a causal relationship between orientations and L2 learning success.

The integrative motive (also known as integrative motivation), which lies at the epicenter of Gardner's model, is a further component of his socio-psychological approach. The integrative motive is conceived as a combination of compound concepts consisting of three immediate constituents:

- *Integrativeness:* is defined as "an openness to identify at least in part, with another language community" (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003, p.126) and conceptualised in terms of integrative orientation, interest in the foreign language, and attitudes toward the L2 community
- *Motivation:* is the equation of effort, desire, and attitude toward L2 learning
- *Attitudes toward the learning situation:* refer to *"*the individual reaction to anything associated with the immediate context in which the language is taught" (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003, p.127) and consist of the evaluation of the L2 teacher and the L2 course.

In addition to integrative motivation, a different type of motivation, yet not opposite to it, is known as instrumental motivation. In the case of instrumental

motivation, L2 learning is undertaken in order to meet practical objectives, such as advancing a career or meeting educational requirements.

In both integrative and instrumental motivation, motivation is seen as a decisive component in promoting L2 learning achievement. In fact, integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation enhance achievement only when related to high levels of motivation (Gardner, 2001; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). In addition to these aspects, other factors may influence motivation, such as instrumental factors and a stimulating L2 teacher or L2 course (Gardner, 2001).

Although a key concept of the Gardnerian approach, the applicability of the integrative motive to contexts other than the multilingual Canadian one was called into question. The concept proves, indeed, less relevant in leaning situations involving a foreign language taught as a school subject, in which L2 learners have no direct contact with L2 speakers and, therefore, no real integrative motive in learning the language (Dörnyei, 2010). Most importantly, criticism of Gardner's theory was leveled against an approach which failed to relate L2 motivation to classroom context. Dörnyei (1994) argues that an education-centered approach to motivation that is congruent with teachers' perceptions, and hence more relevant to classroom application, would better describe L2 classroom-specific motivation. Moreover, the cognitive reconceptualisation of motivation in mainstream psychology revealed the narrow perspective of the model, creating the need to expand the theoretical framework of L2 motivation, as suggested by Crookes and Schmidt (1991), Dörnyei (1994), and oxford and Shearin (1994). Following this, Gardner and Lambert (1995)

put forth a model that integrates various cognitive components from mainstream motivational psychology (see Tremblay's and Gardner's (1995) model).

1.2.1.2. Clément's Social Context Model

Clément's (1980) model of L2 motivation conceptualises motivation in relation to plural societies in which the social context of second language learning determines the motivational processes at work in L2 learning. Clément (1980) conceives L2 motivation as the function of primary and secondary motivational processes.

According to Clément (1980, 1987), the primary motivational process comprises two dichotomous concepts: 1) *integrativeness*, which refers to the willingness of L2 learners to become similar to the L2 valued community members, and 2) *fear of assimilation*, which consists in the apprehension that learning a second language might lead one to adopt the L2 community language and culture at the expense of their own language and culture. Both integrativeness and fear of assimilation are influenced by the relative ethnolinguistic vitality of the L1 and L2 communities. Ethnolinguistic vitality refers to the L2 status and is determined by three variables: 1) demographic representation, i.e., the number of its interlocutors, 2) the socio-economic status of the L2, and 3) institutional support as provided by government services, mass media, etc. (Clément, 1980, 1987). Clément (1980, 1987) explains that integrativeness and fear of assimilation depend on the ethnolinguistic vitality of the L1 and L2 communities. More specifically, groups enjoying high ethnolinguistic vitality are more likely to fear assimilation when learning a language associated with perceived low ethnolinguitic vitality. However, a group with perceived low ethnolinguistic vitality is more likely to display integrativeness when learning a

language associated with high ethnolinguistic vitality. Moreover, Clément (1980) argues that the primary motivational process is the major determinant of motivation in unicultural settings.

The secondary motivational process relates to the level of self-confidence experienced when using the second language and is determined by the quantity and quality of contact with the second language community. Self-confidence is defined as "the belief that a person has the ability to produce results, accomplish goals, or perform tasks completely" (Dörnyei, 1998, p.123). Clément's self-confidence is a general concept that is socially derived and should not to be confused with the self-efficacy construct, which is task-specific and cognitive in nature (Dörnyei, 1998). Moreover, self-confidence in language learning contexts is usually measured in relation to learners' perceived proficiency at the time of testing; self-efficacy assessment, on the other hand, is linked to learners' belief in their ability to achieve a forthcoming task (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). In Clément's (1980, 1987) view, greater quality and frequency of contact lead to higher self-confidence. He argues that high self-confidence and proficiency may lead minority group members learning a majority group language to abandon their ethnic self-identity and adopt the cultural norms of the majority group. In Clément's (1980) model, self-confidence stands as the major motivational determinant in multicultural context.

Although conceptualised in reference to multicultural societies, research led by Clément et al. (1994), demonstrated a significant positive correlation between self-confidence and measures of L2 motivation and proficiency in unicultural contexts. Following this, Clément et al. (1994) extended the applicability of self-confidence to

foreign language learning situations, in which inter-ethnic relations can be established through indirect contact, such as the media. The self-confidence construct was thenceforth recognised as one important subsystem in foreign language learning and incorporated into subsequent L2 frameworks (William & Burden, 1997).

1.2.2. The Cognitive-situated Period

The cognitive-oriented period was characterised by a situated perspective which, unlike the social psychological research paradigm[2], relates L2 motivation to the classroom context. Ushioda and Dörnyei (2012) explain that the cognitive turn was prompted by two interrelated trends: 1) the need to align L2 motivation research with cognitive theories in mainstream psychology, and 2) the desire to conceptualise motivation in relation to L2 instructional settings.

1.2.2.1. Tremblay and Gardner's Model

Tremblay and Gardner (1995) reconsidered their socio-psychological theory of L2 motivation in light of the expectancy-value, self-efficacy, goal-setting, and attribution theories in a three-phased model in which L2 learners' motivation influences their L2 achievement, and is, in turn, affected by their attitudes. Figure 2.1 is a schematic representation of Tremblay and Gardner's model.

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[2] Paradigm: This term means, basically, a general conceptual framework within which theories, in a particular area of research, are constructed (e.g. Skinnerian paradigm, piagetian paradigm, Chomskyan paradigm).
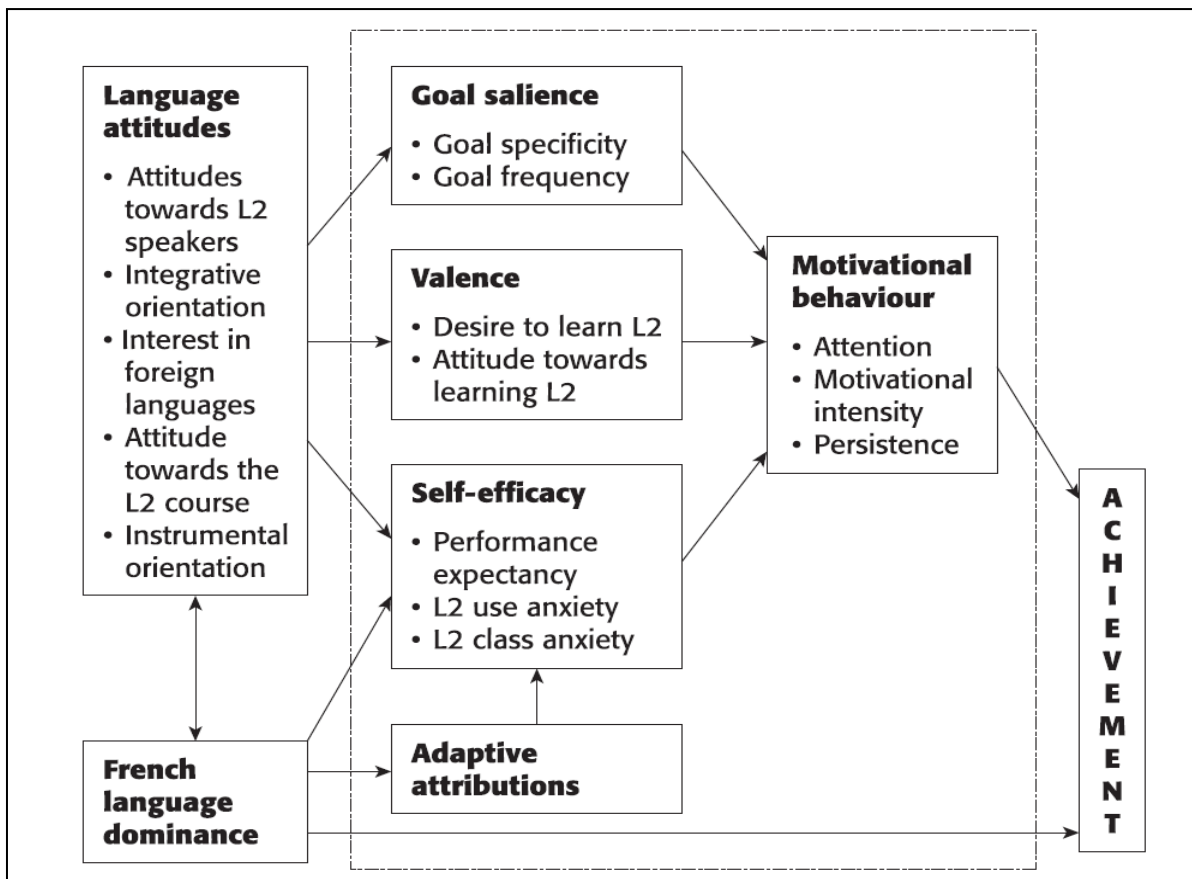
Figure 2.1 Tremblay and Gardner's (1995) Model of L2 Motivation

(Dörnyei& Ushioda, 2011, p.48)

Motivation in Tremblay and Gardner's (1995) model is made up of:

- *Goal salience*: motivation depends partially on the degree of goal specificity and the frequency at which learners set goals for themselves.

- *Valence*: refers to learners' willingness to learn the target language. Valence is determined by the perceived benefits associated with language learning.

- *Self-efficacy*: includes the beliefs that one can achieve a given outcome plus L2 use and L2 class anxiety. L2 class anxiety is related to the broader context of the language classroom, whereas L2 use anxiety is more specifically concerned with "feelings of anxiety that individuals experience in any context

where they are called upon to speak the target language" (Gardner & MacInyre, 1993, p.2).

- *Causal attributions*: causal attributions are said to be adaptive when they are associated with high levels of self-efficacy, and maladaptive when they are related to low levels of self-efficacy.

Goal salience, valence, self-efficacy, and causal attributions affect the extent to which learners demonstrate attention, motivational intensity and persistence in learning the target language and exert an indirect influence on L2 achievement.

1.2.2.2. Dörnyei's Three-level Framework

Drawing on insights from L2 motivation research and educational psychology, Dörnyei's (1994) model brings together diverse motivational factors into a three-dimensional framework. The framework incorporates the social, individual, and educational dimensions involved in classroom-context learning, reflecting a situated approach that reveals the multifaceted nature of L2 motivation. Dörnyei (1994) set forth the following levels (see Table 2.1):

1. *The Language Level:* based on Gardner's social psychological approach, this level is associated with diverse motives and orientations involved in L2 learning. The level encompasses two motivational subsystems, an integrative and an instrumental subsystem. The integrative subsystem consists of learners' attitudes toward the L2 culture and community and their interest in foreign languages and foreignness. The instrumental subsystem relates to the usefulness of learning the language, which

comprises identified and integrated motivation (see Self-determination theory).

2. ***The Learner Level*:** based on Clément's theory, the learner level is described in terms of the affective and cognitive characteristics that affect the learning process. This level includes two motivational components: need for achievement and self-confidence. Need for achievement refers to the level of desire that drives an individual to set and accomplish challenging goals. Self-confidence is a complex of language anxiety, perceived L2 competence, attributions, and self-efficacy.

3. ***The learning situation Level*:** based on research findings from the field of educational psychology, this level relates to aspects associated with the language classroom. It includes:

   - ***Course-specific motivational components:*** include the syllabus, the teaching materials, the teaching method, the learning task, and the extent to which they meet learners' needs and goals, spark their interest, and allow for expectancy of success and satisfaction in the task outcome.

   - ***Teacher-specific motivational components:*** they are associated with the effect of the teacher's personality, behaviour, and teaching style on learners' motivation. They include the affiliative motive to please the teacher, the teacher's authority type, modelling, task presentation, and feedback.

- *Group-specific motivational components:* they have to do with the group dynamics, such as goal-directedness of the group, group cohesiveness, norm and reward system, and classroom goal structure.

LANGUAGE LEVEL	Integrative motivational subsystem Instrumental motivational subsystem
LEARNER LEVEL	Need for achievement Self-confidence • Language use anxiety • Perceived L2 competence • Causal attributions • Self-efficacy
LEARNING SITUATION LEVEL *Course-specific motivational*	Interest (in the course) *components* Relevance (of the course to one's needs) Expectancy (of success) Satisfaction (one has in the outcome)
Teacher-specific motivational components	Affiliative motive (to please the teacher) Authority type (controlling vs. autonomy-supporting) Direct socialisation of motivation • Modelling • Task Presentation • Feedback
Group-specific motivational components	Goal-orientedness Norm and reward system Group cohesiveness Classroom goal structure (cooperative, competitive or individualistic)

Table 2.1 Dörnyei's (1994) Framework of L2 Motivation (Dörnyei, 1994, p.280)

The three discrete levels of motives are held to influence motivation independently of each other. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) explain that a change at the level of one

dimension may not only result in different degrees of motivation, but has also enough power to annul the effects of the motives subsumed under the other two dimensions.

1.2.2.3. William and Burden's Social Constructivist Model

A social constructivist view of motivation is based on the assumption that:

> Each individual is motivated differently. People will make their own sense of the various external influences that surround them in ways that are personal to them…however an individual's motivation is also subject to social and contextual features. (William & Burden, 1997, p.121)

According to William and Burden (1997), learners experience motivation differently mainly because their perception of the various external influences is filtered through their personal attributes. They add that internal and external motivational factors are both affected by the learner's social and cultural environment. William and Burden's (1997) model stresses the idea that motivation cannot merely be confined to arousing learners' interest, but should more importantly be concerned with what moves people to take action. They assume that an individual's decision to act is influenced by the extent to which internal factors interact with each other and the relative importance that people attach to them. These factors interact with external factors in a dynamic way (see Table 2.2).

INTERNAL FACTORS	EXTERNAL FACTORS
Intrinsic interest of activity: • arousal of curiosity • optimal degree of challenge Perceived value of activity: • personal relevance • anticipated value of outcomes • intrinsic value attributed to the activity Sense of agency: • locus of causality • locus of control RE process and outcomes • ability to set appropriate goals Mastery: • feelings of competence • awareness of developing skills and mastery in a chosen area • self-efficacy Self-concept: • realistic awareness of personal strengths and weaknesses in skills required • personal definitions and judgements of success and failure • self-worth concern • learned helplessness Attitudes: • to language learning in general • to the target language • to the target language community and culture Other affective states: • confidence • anxiety, fear Developmental age and stage Gender	Significant others: • parents • teachers • peers The nature of interaction with significant others: • mediated learning experiences • the nature and amount of feedback • rewards • the nature and amount of appropriate praise • punishments, sanctions The learning environment: • comfort • resources • time of day, week, year • size of class and school • class and school ethos The broader context: • wider family networks • the local education system • conflicting interests • cultural norms • societal expectations and attitudes

Table 2.2 William and Burden's (1997) Framework of L2 Motivation

(Dörnyei, 2001, p.54)

1.2.3. The Process-oriented Period: Dörnyei and Ottó's Process Model

The process-oriented period was characterised by a shift toward a dynamic conception whereby time is used as an organizing principle for describing

motivational processes. The study of motivation at a given point in time proved, indeed, even less relevant with regard to the long-term endeavor of language learning (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) process model represents a major contribution to understanding motivation from a temporal perspective.

Their model is a highly organized model that describes motivation as a temporal continuum along which is arranged an array of motivational influences. According to them, motivation should be perceived as a succession of discrete phases, each associated with a set of different motives. Dörnyei (2003a) explains that the influential factors underlying motivation vary in accordance with the stage the individual has reached in pursuing a goal. The different phases of motivation are arranged in a sequential pattern that describes how "initial wishes, hopes, and desires are first transformed into goals, then into intentions, leading eventually to action and, hopefully, to the accomplishment of the goals, after which the process is submitted to evaluation" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 65). Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) identify three phases (see Figure 2.2):

- ***Preactional phase:*** named choice motivation, this phase involves three subphases: goal selection, intention formation, and the initiation of intention enactment. The progression from the first to the second subphase entails the learner' commitment, the conversion of goals into action schemata, such as guidelines and strategies, and the specification of a time frame. The progression from the second to the third subphase is only possible when the learner is given the opportunity to start action, and when the necessary means and resources are available. Among the factors which influence these processes are goal

properties, values associated with the L2 learning, attitudes toward the L2 and its speakers, and learner strategies.

- *Actional phase:* termed executive motivation, this phase marks a shift from reflection and decision-making to the concrete execution of action. It subsumes three subphases:

  1. *Subtask generation and implementation:* the task is divided up into manageable subtasks (i.e., short term goals) then put into action.

  2. *A complex ongoing appraisal process:* refers to a constant evaluation of diverse external stimuli, such as the teacher's feedback and the progress made toward the goal.

  3. *The application of action control mechanisms:* different self-regulatory strategies are used to foster, protect, and maintain motivation and learning progress. Among the factors that influence the former processes are the quality of the learning experience, the influence of parents and teachers, and the use of self-regulatory strategies.

- *Post-actional phase:* during this phase, labeled motivational retrospection, a critical evaluation of the action outcome is made and possible conclusions for future actions are drawn. The main motivational influences are attributional factors, self-concept beliefs, and received feedback, praise, or grades.

Preactional Stage	Actional Stage	Postactional Stage
CHOICE MOTIVATION *Motivational functions:* • Setting goals • Forming intentions • Launching action *Main motivational influences:* • Various goal properties (e.g. goal relevance, specificity and proximity) • Values associated with the learning process itself, as well as with its outcomes and consequences • Attitudes towards the L2 and its speakers • Expectancy of success and perceived coping potential • Learner beliefs and strategies • Environmental support or hindrance	**EXECUTIVE MOTIVATION** *Motivational functions:* • Generating and carrying out subtasks • Ongoing appraisal (of one's achievement) • Action control (self-regulation) *Main motivational influences:* • Quality of the learning experience (pleasantness, need significance, coping potential, self and social image) • Sense of autonomy • Teachers' and parents' influence • Classroom reward and goal structure (e.g. competitive or cooperative) • Influence of the learner group • Knowledge and use of self-regulatory strategies (e.g. goal setting, learning and self-motivating strategies)	**MOTIVATIONAL RETROSPECTION** *Motivational functions* • Forming causal attributions • Elaborating standards and strategies • Dismissing intention & further planning *Main motivational influences:* • Attributional factors (e.g. attributional styles and biases) • Self-concept beliefs (e.g. self-confidence and self-worth) • Received feedback, praise, grades

Figure 2.2 Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) Process Model of L2 Motivation

(Dörnyei, 2003, p.19)

1.2.4. The Current Socio-dynamic Period: Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self-system

The socio-dynamic phase was characterised by a move from linear perspectives, concerned with "identifying 'variables' and tracing cause-effect relationships (e.g., how task performance impacts on self-efficacy or vice versa" (Sealey & Carter, 2004, p.196; cited in Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011), to a more complex conception, according to which L2 motivation emerges from the regular interplay of learners' internal psychological processes and the broader context of their learning environment. According to Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011, p.77), the focus is "on the evolving

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network or dynamic system of relations among relevant features, phenomena and processes – relations which are complex, unpredictable, non-linear and always unique, since every person and context are unique"

A major contribution to understanding motivation in light of the socio-dynamic approach was made by Dörnyei (2005), through his L2 motivational self-system construct. Based on psychological theories of the self, the L2 motivational self-system was mainly prompted by the need to reinterpret Gardner's (1985) concept of integrativeness. Most specifically, the model extends the applicability of the concept to accommodate foreign language learning environments, where it originally bears little relevance. The model has also emerged as a response to the need of reconsidering L2 motivation in connection with learners' identity and view of the self. A shift that is consistent with the current view according to which:

> A foreign language is more than a mere communication code that can be learnt similarly to other academic subjects; instead, it is also part of the individual's personal 'core', involved in most mental activities and forming an important part of one's identity. (Dörnyei, 2009, p.9)

Dörnyei (2005, 2009) identifies three sources of L2 motivation:

- ***Ideal L2 self:*** relates to the idea that the representation learners make about the person they would ideally like to become is an important source of motivation. Put differently, if learners' vision of themselves entails proficiency in the L2, the ideal L2 self will create the need to reduce the gap between their actual and ideal selves and, therefore, act as a powerful

motivator. This dimension is associated with integrative and internalised motives.

- *Ought-to L2 self:* refers to the qualities the learners think they ought to possess in order to meet someone else's expectations (e.g., parents) and to avoid possible negative outcomes. The ought-to L2 self is associated with external regulation, the least self-determined form of motivation

- *L2 learning experience:* involves classroom-specific motives, such as the impact of the teacher, the curriculum, the peer group, or the experience of success.

In addition of being empirically supported in diverse learning environments, Dörnyei (2009) asserts that his theoretical framework lays the groundwork for a new era of motivational strategies. He suggests that learners' ideal L2 self can be promoted through generating a language learning vision and through imagery enhancement. These new strategies will complement the wide range of techniques associated with the third component, namely the L2 learning experience. No obvious motivational strategies can be derived from the 'ought-to L2 self', mainly because language learning is influenced by factors that are external to the learner, such as obligations imposed by parents and other authoritative figures (Dörnyei, 2009).

1.3. Types of Motivation and Their Relation to L2 Achievement/Proficiency

The current section describes the different types of motivation identified in the field of motivational psychology and L2 motivation as well as their relation to L2 achievement and proficiency. Although L2 proficiency bears no direct relevance to

the concern of the present thesis, it is deliberately tackled in order to show the role of each type of motivation in improving language learning in general.

1.3.1. Integrative/Instrumental Motivation

Gardner's (1985) research on L2 motivation pinpointed two major types of motivation, integrative and instrumental motivation. Integratively motivated learners are primarily interested in making social connections with the members of the L2 community, usually because of a genuine interest in the people and the culture associated with the target language. In some extreme cases, integrative motivation might imply a complete identification with the L2 community (Gardner, 2001). Instrumentally motivated students, on the other hand, perceive language as a means to achieve some utilitarian benefits, such as furthering a career, earning money, or meeting educational requirements. While Integrative motivation was initially theorized to be a more powerful predictor of successful language learning than instrumental motivation, later studies induced Gardner to acknowledge the important role of instrumental motivation (Ellis, 1994).

Research investigating the relationship between integrative motivation and L2 achievement has not always yielded conclusive results; however, a series of studies led by Gardner and his associates provided evidence supporting a positive correlation (e.g., Gardner, 1985; Gardner, Day, & MacIntyre, 1992; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). For example, in a paper examining the empirical findings obtained with 29 samples of French language learners from different grade levels and geographical areas in Canada, Gardner (1980) reported a strong correlation (a median correlation of 0.37) between

the attitude motivation index (AMI), a measuring instrument primarily designed to assess integrative motivation, and students' grades. Although much less research has been undertaken on instrumental motivation, the findings suggest that instrumentally motivated students may achieve success in language learning. In a study involving Anglophone Canadian students enrolled in a French university-level course, Gardner and McIntyre (1991) concluded that both integrative motivation and instrumental motivation promote French-second language vocabulary acquisition. In Bombay, Lukmani (1972) investigated the nature of high school students' motivation. The findings indicate that the 60 non-westernized Marathi-speaking females who participated in the study showed little desire to identify with westernized English-speaking Indians, but instead perceived English as a means to get a better job and to cope with university classes, among other pragmatic reasons. Moreover, instrumental motivation was found to correlate significantly with measures of English proficiency. Similarly, Gardner & Lambert (1972) investigation of the Philippines' context revealed that instrumental motivation, which represented the most important type of motivation among learners, correlated substantially with English proficiency. Gardner and Lambert's (1972) study of English-speaking learners of French in North American areas housing a French-speaking community demonstrated that higher levels of integrative motivation were related to greater proficiency. On the basis of two aforementioned studies, Gardner and Lambert (1972) concluded that the functional role of the target language in the social context of learning determines the type of motivation that is more susceptible to facilitate the language learning process. More specifically, they assume that integrative motivation proves more effective than

instrumental motivation in foreign language contexts. On the other hand, instrumental motivation appears to be more important in second language contexts. Yet, researchers such as Dörnyei (1990) and Oxford (1996) challenged Gardner and Lambert's position, maintaining that instrumental motivation plays a more significant role in foreign language settings, where learners have little opportunity to interact with members of the L2 community and, therefore, little possibility of developing integrative tendencies. Moreover, Dörnyei (1990) asserts that foreign language learners may pursue language learning for integrative purposes without nurturing the desire to identify with the L2 community but rather to identify with the cultural and intellectual values associated with the language.

Regardless of whether L2 learners are integratively or instrumentally motivated, it seems that motivation, as measured in terms of motivational intensity, desire to learn the target language, and attitudes toward learning the target language, contributes more significantly to L2 achievement than do the associated integrative and instrumental orientations. Gardner and Masgoret (2003) conducted a meta-analysis which examined the relationship of integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, motivation, integrative orientation and instrumental orientation to second language achievement. The highest correlation was found between motivation and second language achievement, suggesting that both instrumental and integrative orientations exert an indirect influence on L2 achievement through the mediating effect of motivation.

1.3.2. Intrinsic/Extrinsic Motivation

According to Ryan and Deci (2000, p.55) intrinsic motivation refers to "doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable", whereas extrinsic motivation refers to "doing something because it leads to a separable outcome". Put differently, intrinsic motivation refers to being engaged in an activity in order to satisfy some inner needs, such as curiosity and pleasure. Extrinsic motivation involves the need to achieve an external, tangible outcome, such as obtaining a reward. In language learning, research on the role of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation supports the role of intrinsic motivation in generating desirable learning outcomes, including language achievement/proficiency. For example, Ramage (1990) investigated the role of both motivational and attitudinal factors characterising high school continuing and discontinuing students. The results indicated that students who pursued their studies beyond the second level have an interest in culture, in increasing their knowledge, and in learning the language thoroughly, and had better course grades than discontinuing students, who were more interested in fulfilling a college entrance examination. Erhman's (1996) research involving 1,109 foreign affairs agency employees learning English for work-related reasons revealed a positive correlative between intrinsic motivation and end-of-training reading and speaking proficiency. Tachibana et al. (1996) reported that high school students who were more intrinsically motivated expressed interest in the English culture and people and attained higher levels of proficiency than their extrinsically motivated counterparts. The correlational study of Noels et al. (2001), with French-speaking students registered in a university summer immersion program, showed that intrinsically

motivated students, who reported learning English because it is valuable and fun, scored better on final course exams than did extrinsically motivated students. Clément et al. (2001) explain that extrinsic learning patterns do not contribute to achievement because the use of rewards and punishment does not sustain long-term learning. In other words, extrinsically motivated students are likely to engage in learning in anticipation of rewards or punishment, but they are also expected to cease learning as soon as extrinsic pressure is removed.

In addition of being a powerful determinant of L2 achievement/proficiency, research findings established the link between intrinsic motivation and an array of non-linguistic outcomes, including, motivational intensity, persistence, increased sense of self-efficacy, lower anxiety, and perception of autonomy and competence (e.g., Ramage, 1990; Erhman, 1996; Clément et al, 2001).

2. Motivational Strategies in the L2 Classroom

2.1. Definition of Motivational Strategies

Motivational strategies are described as "those motivational influences that are consciously exerted to achieve some systematic and enduring positive effect (Dörnyei, 2001, p.28). Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) define motivational strategies as those instructional interventions teachers use to arouse students' motivation, and distinguish them from the similarly labeled self-regulating strategies students deliberately employ to manage their own motivation. In keeping with the temporal perspective on L2 motivation, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011, p.113) explain that motivational strategies are designed to "generate and enhance motivation, as well as maintain ongoing motivated behaviour and protect it from distracting and/or

competing action tendencies". Brophy (2010) asserts that motivational strategies are primarily intended to motivate students to learn, i.e., motivate them to acquire the knowledge and skills as described in the course objectives. Hence, motivational strategies are instructional principles that teachers intentionally use in order to promote students' motivation and support classroom engagement and learning.

Attempts to convert insights from motivation research into concrete motivational guidelines applicable in classroom context were not undertaken prior to the cognitive turn. The new paradigm brought attention to the importance of environmental factors in shaping classroom aspects of motivation, leading to a series of publications intended to help teachers create motivating classroom environments (Dörnyei & Guilloteaux, 2008). In the field of L2 motivation, a number of motivational techniques were designed and organized by researchers, such as Chambers (1999), Dörnyei (2001), William and Burden (1997), and Oxford and Shearin (1994), into research-based frameworks that draw on findings in the fields of educational psychology and L2 motivation.

2.2. A Selected Framework for Motivational Strategies

The framework selected to inform the present study is Dörnyei's (2001) model of motivational teaching practice in the L2 classroom. Based on Dörnyei and Ottó's (1998) process oriented model, his framework is a highly organized and comprehensive attempt to bring together different motivational techniques derived from research in educational psychology and L2 motivation research. It includes four macrostrategies and twenty microstrategies designed to create, generate, and maintain motivation, and encourage positive self-evaluation (see Figure 2.3).

Creating the basic motivational conditions

- Appropriate teacher behaviours
- A pleasant and supportive atmosphere in the classroom
- A cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms

Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation

- Promoting motivational attributions
- Providing motivational feedback
- Increasing learner satisfaction
- Offering rewards and grades in a motivating manner

Motivational teaching practice

Generating initial motivation

- Enhancing the learners' L2-related values and attitudes
- Increasing the learners' expectancy of success
- Increasing the learners' goal-orientedness
- Making the teaching materials relevant for the learners
- Creating realistic learner beliefs

Maintaining and protecting motivation

- Making learning stimulating and enjoyable
- Presenting tasks in a motivating way
- Setting specific learner goals
- Protecting the learners' self-esteem and increasing their self-confidence
- Allowing learners to maintain a positive social image
- Creating learner autonomy
- Promoting self-motivating strategies
- Promoting cooperation among the learners

Figure 2.3 Components of Motivational L2 Teaching Practice

(Dörnyei, 2001, p.29)

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2.2.1. Creating the Basic Motivational Conditions

According to Dörnyei (2001), motivational strategies cannot be implemented in a 'motivational vacuum'. A number of conditions should be met in order for motivational strategies to be fully operational. These conditions are as follows:

2.2.1.1. Displaying Appropriate Teacher Behaviours

The teacher's attitude inside the classroom has been shown to play a key motivational role from both language teachers' and students' perspectives (e.g., Chambers, 1999; Dörnyei & Csizér's, 1998). One influential aspect of teachers' behaviour is believed to be enthusiasm. For example, Csikszentmihalyi (1997) argues that teachers who show little enthusiasm in their teaching are likely to induce students into thinking that learning lacks intrinsic value. Schunk et al. (2014) assert that teachers who show enthusiasm are likely to foster students' motivational processes (e.g., self-efficacy) and increase their perception of task value. Dörnyei (2001) recommends that teachers show their enthusiasm by sharing their interest in the L2 with their students. He also suggests a number of other strategies to achieve appropriate behaviour. Teachers can, for example, show concern in students' learning and progress, express reasonably high expectations for all the students, and build a relationship based on mutual trust and respect with the students. The latter point entails acceptance of students' different viewpoints, the ability to listen and pay attention to them, and readiness to help them outside the classroom context.

2.2.1.2. Creating a Pleasant Classroom Atmosphere

Creating a supportive learning environment decreases students' anxiety and promotes an engaging classroom climate. Creating a safe atmosphere is particularly crucial in the L2 classroom because it decreases feelings of anxiety that may stem from having to use the L2 in front of the classroom. Moreover, research has demonstrated that anxious students are generally reluctant to communicate in the target language (MacIntyre, 2002). According to Dörnyei (2001), important factors that promote a positive classroom environment are: 1) a good teacher-student relationship, 2) a good relationship between students, 3) a tolerant attitude regarding students' mistakes, and 4) the use of humor in order to create a relaxed learning environment and facilitate communication in the classroom.

2.2.1.3. Promoting Group Cohesiveness with Appropriate Group Norms

Dörnyei and Malderez (1997) assert that group cohesiveness, defined as "the extent to which individuals feel a strong identification with their group" (p.73), is a critical component of success in the L2 classroom. Group cohesiveness is believed to enhance motivation through increasing students' sense of responsibility for achieving the group goal and generating enjoyable learning experiences (Dörnyei, 2001). Dörnyei and Murphey (2003) point to a number of factors that promote group cohesiveness, including getting-to-know each other activities, extracurricular activities, cooperative work, public commitment (e.g., wearing school colours), group legend (e.g., giving the group a name), and inter-group competition. A further step toward promoting group cohesiveness is to set group norms. Group norms are rules that outline a set of adequate behaviours expected of the students inside the

classroom. On the basis of research findings, Dörnyei (2001) proposes that teachers formulate explicitly these norms, state the reasons for implementing them, and then have them discussed by the whole group. Teachers can also engage students in generating and discussing further norms. These steps should lead to a set of rules that are adopted unanimously by the classroom members.

2.2.2. Generating Initial Motivation

Brophy (2010) maintains that schools do not provide optimal conditions for intrinsic motivation to take place. Constraints such as compulsory attendance, externally imposed curricula, and grading systems prevent learners from enjoying an activity for its own sake (Brophy, 2010). Consequently, some learners may feel unmotivated to engage in the learning process. Therefore, Dörnyei (2001) suggests that teachers need to contribute actively in generating initial motivation. This strategy subsumes four microstatgies:

2.2.2.1. Enhancing the Learners' L2-Related Values and Attitudes

Chambers (1999) argues that language learners bring to the classroom a set of values, largely derived from conversations with family, friends, the media, and personal experiences of the L2 community. Dörnyei (2001) asserts that values, defined as internalised beliefs and feelings, determine learners' preferences and approaches to activities. Thus, according to him, promoting learners' positive attitudes and values regarding the target language would produce the most profound consequences on students' motivation. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) identify three value dimensions:

- ***The intrinsic value:*** refers to students' interest in the language learning activity. Stimulating learners' curiosity and attention contributes to reinforcing the intrinsic value of the activity and creating an attractive image for the course.

- ***Intercultural value:*** relates to students' attitudes toward the social and cultural aspects of the target language as well as a general interest in foreignness and foreign languages. Promoting positive intercultural values can be achieved through the use of authentic materials.

- ***Instrumental value:*** has to do with the practical outcomes of L2 learning. The instrumental value of L2 learning can be enhanced by reminding students of the benefits that can be drawn from mastering the L2.

2.2.2.2. Increasing the Learners' Expectancy of Success

Research in the field of motivational psychology provided evidence that both students' expectancies and task value significantly predict a number of variables, including effort, persistence, and choice. In other terms, students who expect success and place high value on a task are more likely to experience motivation than those who do not. In order to increase students' expectancy of success, teachers should assign activities that are within the reach of students, plan pre-task activities in order to prepare students for the task, allow students to work cooperatively, and maximize success by creating favourable learning conditions (e.g., material resources) (Dörnyei, 2001). To increase task value, the main strategy consists in making the teaching material relevant (see Section 2.2.2.4).

2.2.2.3. Increasing the Learner's Goal-orientedness

Research led by Wentzel (2000) demonstrated that learners may adopt various goals, ranging from task related goals (e.g., scoring well in a test) to social goals (e.g., building relationships with peers). Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) explain that goals affect performance by increasing students' motivation through directing attention and effort toward goal-related activities and encouraging persistence until the goal is achieved. Therefore, it would be beneficial to ensure that learners' goals encompass learning objectives (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). To this effect, teachers can engage a discussion about learners' personal goals and come up with a set of common group goals, design activities that address learners' various goals, and define criteria of success (e.g., communicative competence in the L2) (Dörnyei, 2001).

2.2.2.4. Making the Teaching Material Relevant

Most teachers would agree that students' motivation increases when they are presented with material that is personally meaningful to them. Wlodkowski (2008) maintains that relevance fosters students' intrinsic motivation and creates favourable attitudes towardthe learning experience. Relevant motivational strategies require teachers to identify learners' areas of interests (e.g., people, places, events) and fit them into their syllabus (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Other strategies have been proposed by Keller (1987), such as explaining and exemplifying to students the future utility of the task, familiarizing them with the content by relating it to their knowledge and past experiences, and allowing students to have some control over the means of accomplishing the task.

2.2.2.5. Creating Realistic Learner Beliefs

Learners' beliefs regarding the target language are often preconceived ideas, which may come into conflict with teachers' methodology and students' expectations and ultimately hinder L2 learning (Dörnyei, 2001). Dörnyei (2001) suggests that teachers should discuss with their students the main areas of misconceptions by enlightening students on: 1) the nature of language learning in general and L2 learning in particular, 2) the realistic rate of success to be expected by students, 3) the actions required from the learner to achieve L2 mastery, and 4) the existence of various learning strategies.

2.2.3. Maintaining and Protecting Motivation

According to Dörnyei (2001), the motivational strategies that are intended to maintain motivation after it has been triggered should be implemented in order to prevent negative motivational influences to interfere with and ultimately undermine their motivation. To achieve this goal, he cites eight microstratgies.

2.2.3.1. Making Learning Enjoyable

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) claim that any conscious motivational practice should be aimed at promoting the quality of the learning experience. They believe it can be achieved by breaking the monotony of learning. Relevant motivational techniques include the use of various learning tasks, presentation styles, and learning materials. Teachers can also make the task more interesting through fostering students' intrinsic motivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Schunk et al. (2014) identify four sources of intrinsic motivation: 1) *challenge:* tasks should challenge students' skills, 2) *Curiosity:* learning tasks should stimulate students' curiosity, 3) *Control:* tasks

should be designed so that they provide students with some control over the learning outcomes, and 4) *fantasy:* tasks should incorporate fantasy elements, such as games.

2.2.3.2. Presenting Tasks in a Motivating Way

Teachers may sometimes assign tasks that are not inherently interesting for learners. In this case, students are less disposed to expend effort and show persistence in performing the task. When students do not initially feel motivated for an activity, teachers can use some strategies to get them on task. For example, they can point out the purpose and utility of the task and provide students with adequate strategies for achieving the task (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Besides, they can incorporate elements of interest into the task, such as novelty, intrigue, and exotism (Dörnyei, 2001).

2.2.3.3. Setting Specific Learner Goals

Research led over 25 years by Locke and Latham (2006) revealed that goals which satisfy certain conditions lead to a considerable increase in students' motivation. On the basis of Lock and Latham's (2002) ground theory, Schunk et al. (2014) identify four classroom principles: 1) setting challenging tasks, 2) setting clear and specific goals, 3) setting short- and long-term goals, and 4) providing feedback that enhances students' self-efficacy for obtaining the goal. Dörnyei (2001) adds two further principles, namely setting measurable goals and scheduling deadlines.

2.2.3.4. Protecting the Learner's Self-esteem and Increasing Their Self-confidence

Schunk et al. (2014) affirm that self-confidence, or the belief that one is capable of accomplishing a goal, results in higher self-esteem, which might in turn enhance students' motivation to undertake difficult tasks and lead to higher levels of self-confidence when the task is performed successfully. Preserving learners' self-esteem and fostering their self-confidence is of particular importance in the language classroom, often considered as an "inherently face-threatening environment" (Dörnyei, 2001, p.91) in which learners' mistakes are equated with incompetence. In order to promote students' self-confidence, teachers can provide students with regular experiences of success, offer praise or encouragement, remove sources of anxiety, such as competitive activities, and teach them learning strategies (Dörnyei, 2001).

2.2.3.5. Allowing Learners to Maintain a Positive Social Image

For Dörnyei (2001), schools are 'social arenas' in which students are constantly trying to project a positive image to their peers. However, he also maintains that helping students maintain a positive social image can prove effective in fostering students' motivation to learn only insofar as they keep them focused on academic issues. To this end, Dörnyei (2001) exhorts teachers to avoid attitudes that may cause students to lose face, such as providing severe and humiliating criticism and putting students in the spotlight against their will. Instead, they are encouraged to assign students activities that highlight their strengths and promote values such as tolerance and acceptance among students.

2.2.3.6. Promoting Cooperation Among the Learners

Studies on cooperative learning provided ample evidence that working in team results in higher self-esteem, better interpersonal relationships, positive attitudes toward learning, and increased academic achievement (e.g., Astin, 1993). Moreover, research showed that cooperative learning works for all ages, for all subject areas, and for a wide range of tasks (Bossert, 1988). However, for cooperative work to be a successful motivational tool, teachers should ensure that learners are given the opportunity to reflect on the process of how well they function and are taught group skills, such as the ability to resolve differences constructively (Johnson et al., 1994). Additionally, teachers need to take into consideration team products when assessing individual performance and set common group goals (Dörnyei, 2001).

2.2.3.7. Creating Learner Autonomy

Creating learner autonomy is a strategy based on Ryan and Deci's (2002) self-determination theory, according to which motivation is partly determined by the belief that someone is in control of their behaviour. In learning contexts, Holec (1981, p.3) defines autonomy as "the ability to take charge of one's learning". According to him, this entails the ability of setting learning objectives, defining the content and progression of learning, selecting the methods and technique to be used, monitoring the procedures of acquisition, and appraising what has been acquired. The relevance of autonomy to learning motivation lies in the fact that autonomous behaviour both generates and is generated by intrinsic motivation (Little, 2006). While the literature on autonomy abounds with various autonomy-supportive approaches, Dörnyei (2001) believes the most critical measures to be:

- ***Increased learner involvement in organizing the learning process:*** this can be achieved by providing students with the opportunity to make choices relevant to the various aspects of the learning process, encouraging project work, promote peer teaching, allowing self-assessment, and giving students positions of genuine authority.

- ***A change in the teacher's role:*** in autonomous-supportive learning environments, teachers act as facilitators whose role is to encourage learners to discover and construct their own knowledge. According to Heron (1989; cited in Dörnyei, 2001), facilitation involves a combination of three distinct modes: 1) *the hierarchical mode*, i.e., guiding the learning process and taking the most important decisions, 2) *the cooperative mode*, i.e., sharing responsibilities with the students, and 3) *the autonomous mode*, i.e., showing respect for students' decisions and exercise of autonomy.

2.2.3.8. Promoting Self-motivating Learner Strategies

Self-motivating strategies are techniques used by learners to control and maintain their own motivation. Dörnyei (2005, p.91) holds that the notion of motivational self-regulation is based on the premise that "students who are able to maintain their motivation and keep themselves on-task in the face of competing demands and attractions should learn better than students who are less skilled at regulating their motivation". Hence, one way of optimizing students' motivation is to raise students' awareness of these strategies. Dörnyei (2001, 2005) suggests five self-motivating strategies:

- *Commitment control strategies:* they help protect or enhance the student's initial goal commitment (e.g., focusing on rewards)

- *Metacognitive control strategies:* they help monitor and control concentration and prevent procrastination (e.g., ignoring attractive alternatives).

- *Satiation control strategies:* they serve to eliminate boredom that results from routine tasks (e.g., using games)

- *Emotion control strategies*: they are used to manage troublesome emotions and generate emotions that are favourable for the realisation of one's intentions (e.g., self-encouragement).

- *Environmental control strategies:* they are intended to discard negative environmental influences and take advantage of positive external influences (e.g., asking classmates for help).

2.2.4. Encouraging Positive Retrospective Self-evaluation

Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation is a strategy based on the research-based evidence that motivation to engage in a learning task is considerably determined by the evaluation that learners make of their past performance. In Dörnyei's (2001) framework, teachers can help learners form positive evaluations of their achievements by implementing four microstrategies. These microstrategies are:

2.2.4.1. Promoting Motivational Attributions

In Weiner's (1992) attribution theory, the reasons that people ascribe to their past failure or success are viewed as major determinants of their future actions. In educational settings, research pinpointed ability and effort as the most important causal attributions students make about their successful or unsuccessful performance.

According to Brophy (2010) students are more likely to show effort and persistence when performance is attributed to internal and controllable causes, such as insufficient knowledge rather than external or uncontrollable cause, such as bad luck. In line with the educational applications of the theory, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) propose that language teachers provide feedback that promotes effort attribution and avoid ability attributions in case of failure. Indeed, attributing failure to a controllable cause such as effort is likely to convey the message that success can be achieved at the cost of reasonable effort and lead them to put more energy into learning. Success, on the other hand, should be attributed to both effort and a stable cause, such as aptitude.

2.2.4.2. Providing Motivational Feedback

Learners' motivation may be increased through offering effective motivational feedback. Motivational feedback can increase learners' satisfaction, boost their self-confidence, and encourage self-reflection (Dörnyei, 2001). To ensure that feedback exerts a motivating function, teachers can have recourse to social comparison and persuasive feedback. In fact, using peer models to demonstrate how a task can be successfully pursued and expressing confidence in students' abilities are important sources of self-efficacy (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Schunk et al., 2014). A further motivational aspect of teacher feedback is strategy feedback. Strategy feedback gives students information about how well they implemented different strategies and the extent to which strategy use is improving their performance (Dörnyei, 2001). Finally, Dörnyei (2001) insists that teachers should promote informational feedback, which

stresses student learning progress instead of controlling feedback, which measures learner progress against external standards.

2.2.4.3. Increasing Learner Satisfaction and Offering Rewards in a Motivating Way

A task that is successfully accomplished is often a source of satisfaction for the learner. Learner satisfaction is seen as a critically important component of motivation because it enables learners to "validate effort, affirm the entire learning process, reinforce the value of the experience, and in general provide the bright spots along the road towards the ultimate goal" (Dörnyei, 2001, p.125). Motivational interventions that enhance students' sense of satisfaction, as suggested by Dörnyei (2001), include monitoring and recognising students' accomplishments, celebrating their success, making learning progress concrete through the use of visual records (e.g., wall charts), and designing tasks that entail the public display of the students' skills.

2.2.4.4. Offering Rewards and Grades in a Motivating Way

The use of rewards represents one of the most sensitive issues in the field of educational psychology. While many psychologists in the area of motivation do not advocate the use of rewards, it is common practice among teachers to offer them upon good learning behaviour (Dörnyei, 2001). The reason why rewards are negatively viewed is mainly due to fact that most studies (e.g., Deci et al., 2001; Lepper & Henderlong, 2000) pointed out their detrimental effect on learners' intrinsic motivation. On the basis of research findings, Schunk et al. (2014) assert that external incentives may foster intrinsic motivation when they help raise students' self-

efficacy. To this end, they recommend that teachers reward students' progress, skill improvement, and competence. Along the same line of reasoning, Brophy (2010) cautions teachers against using rewards that are highly salient (i.e., highly attractive/distractive rewards), noncontingent (i.e., rewards that are linked to participation rather that goal achievement), and unnatural/unusual (i.e., rewards that are artificially tied to behaviours rather than being natural consequences of the behaviours). According to him, rewards that meet the abovementioned criteria are likely to undermine intrinsic motivation and deteriorate ensuing performance. Additionally, Dörnyei (2001) advises teachers to make a reasonable use of rewards, make rewards meaningful, and offer rewards contingent on task completion. Grades, in particular, can be used in a motivating way by making the grading scale explicit, relating grades partially to improvement, and promoting self-assessment by providing diverse self-evaluation tools (Dörnyei, 2001).

2.3. Classroom Research on the Effectiveness of Motivational Strategies

Research on the effectiveness of motivational strategies has been undertaken after Gardner and Tremblay (1994) stressed the necessity of establishing empirical evidence on the usefulness of motivational strategies.

The first empirical study was carried out by Dörnyei and Csizér (1998), who asked 200 teachers from various teaching institutions about how important they perceived a list of motivational strategies and how frequently they used these strategies as part of their instructional practice. Among a total of 51 strategies, 10 macrostrategies were identified and labeled 'ten commandments for motivating language learners' (see Table 2.3).

Ten Commandments
1. Set a personal example with your own behaviour.
2. Create a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom.
3. Present the tasks properly.
4. Develop a good relationship with the learners.
5. Increase the learners' linguistic self-confidence.
6. Make the language classes interesting.
7. Promote learner autonomy.
8. Personalise the learning process.
9. Increase the learners' goal-orientedness.
10. Familiarize learners with the target language culture.

Table 2.3 Ten Commandment for Motivating Language Learners (Dörnyei and Csizér, 1998, p.215)

In 2007, Cheng and Dörnyei conducted a modified replication of Dörnyei and Csizér's *(*1998) study. The results obtained from a sample of 387 Taiwanese teachers showed some disparity with Dörnyei and Csizér's 'ten commandments' regarding some strategies, though four of the top five strategies were reported in both studies. The results suggest that while some strategies turn out to be culturally sensitive, others seem to be transferrable across various cultural and ethnolinguistic contexts (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007). However, these studies are not without flaws. Their reliance on self-reports in order to document teachers' preferences and practices with regard to motivational strategies provided little objective evidence on teachers' actual motivating behaviours and their impact on students' motivation. In order to overcome these limitations, Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) developed a classroom observation

instrument designed to assess teachers' actual motivational practices as well as student's motivation and motivated behaviour, labeled the motivation orientation of language teaching (MOLT). This instrument was employed in a large-scale study involving 27 EFL teachers and over 1,300 EFL students in South Korea. Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2008) study showed a strong positive correlation between teachers' motivational practices and students' motivation. The other empirical studies that have tested the effectiveness of motivational strategies are those conducted by Alrabai (2014) and Moscovskyet al. (2013) in Saudi Arabia, Papi and Zadeh (2011) in Iran, Sugita and Takeushi (2010) in Japan, and Bernaus and Gardner (2008) in Spain. The findings reported by most studies provided clear evidence that motivational strategies do enhance EFL students' motivation. Only Sugita and Takeushi's (2014) study reported mixed results, with only 4 strategies out of a total of 15 showing a significant correlation with EFL students' motivation. Moreover, the effectiveness of some motivational strategies was found to vary according to students' level of proficiency.

Only two studies have investigated the effectiveness of motivational strategies on EFL learners' achievement. Bernaus and Gardner (2008) examined 28 motivational strategies in terms of frequency of use as reported by 31 EFL teachers and 694 EFL students and their relation to students' motivation and reading and listening achievement. A positive correlation was found between motivational strategies as perceived by students and students' motivation and achievement. In 2014, Alrabai conducted an experimental study on the effect of 10 pre-selected motivational strategies on 269 EFL learners' motivation and achievement. The study documented a positive effect of motivational interventions on learners' motivation but yielded

inconclusive results with respect to the impact of motivational strategies, through increased levels of motivation, on learners' achievement.

Overall, although empirical evidence tends to support the role of EFL teachers' motivational practices in fostering students' motivation, research on the effectiveness of motivational strategies remains relatively scarce and proves truly insufficient with regard to their relation to EFL learners' achievement.

Conclusion

Research has revealed that second/foreign language motivation is a multifaceted concept and a major determinant of L2 achievement. Whereas several types of motivation have been identified, intrinsic motivation is considered as the most powerful driver of L2 learning. Furthermore, understanding of the various motivational factors at work in the language learning process has raised awareness as of the role of language teachers as important motivational agents and led to the emergence of a number of frameworks intended to help teachers create motivating classrooms environments. Dörnyei's (2001) framework, in particular, is a systematic endeavour to synthesise educational applications of motivational theories in the field of educational psychology and second language acquisition into a comprehensive model of motivational strategies. However, despite a general agreement on the importance of motivational strategies in the language classroom, little research has substantiated their effectiveness on L2 learners' motivation. Therefore, further research is needed to support these findings and determine the influence of motivational strategies on L2 achievement.

CHAPTER 3

THE WRITING SKILL IN THE L2 CLASSROOM

Introduction

Over the last decades, the study of L2 writing has become the focus of many researchers and practitioners. The field of L2 writing instruction, in particular, has always been an area of controversy. Various approaches to teaching L2 writing have been developed, based on different ways of conceptualising the construct of writing. The history of L2 writing has also witnessed the emergence of divergent perspectives in relation to the most appropriate grading procedure to assess students' written performance. Despite discordant views, one thing all experts agree on is that learning to write is one of the most important and challenging task in the language classroom.

The current chapter starts with a description of the writing skill, with a focus on writing in academic and language learning contexts. The most important approaches to teaching L2 writing are also presented. Next, the chapter reviews the different factors thought to influence students' written performance. Finally, issues related L2 writing assessments are considered, including practices in L2 writing assessment in general and scoring methods in particular.

1. The Writing Skill

1.1. Academic Writing

Definitions of writing have evolved alongside the different theoretical approaches to the construct. Contemporary definitions, however, recognise the complexities involved in writing by incorporating the different social, cognitive and grammar-oriented views to account for the construct. The different views of writing are brought together in Hyland's (2011, p.31) definition when he puts that "every act of writing is in a sense both personal and individual, it is also interactional and social, expressing

a culturally recognised purpose, reflecting a particular kind of relationship and acknowledging an engagement in a given community". Academic writing, in this sense, is a cognitive, social, and linguistic practice, the aim of which is to communicate ideas using writing conventions that are specific to a given academic group (community). Examples of academic writing include essays, theses, and journal articles.

Academic writing serves a variety of purposes. Some important reasons include: 1) *pedagogical purposes*: to assist students in learning the system of the language, 2) *assessment purposes*: to determine students' level of progress/proficiency, 3) *educational purposes*: to enhance students' intellectual development and self-esteem, and 4) *creative purposes*: to encourage self-expression, and real purposes: to help meet students' needs (Hedge, 2005). Generally, the purpose of writing varies according the field of study. In the language classroom, for example, writing is used as a means of training students to write in various rhetorical contexts (writing for writing) or extending their knowledge of the grammatical and lexical aspects of the target language (writing for learning) (Harmer, 2004).

Academic writing involves various interconnected skills. Brown (2001, p.343) identifies a set of macro and micro skills:

1. Produce graphemes and orthographic pattern of English.

2. Produce writing at an efficient rate of speed to suit the purpose.

3. Produce an acceptable core of words and use appropriate word order patterns.

4. Use acceptable grammatical systems (e.g., tense, agreement, pluralization), pattern, and rules.

5. Express a particular meaning in different grammatical forms.

6. Use cohesive devices in written discourse.

7. Use the rhetorical forms and conventions of written discourse.

8. Appropriately accomplish the communicative functions of written texts according to form and purpose.

9. Convey links and connections between events, and communicate such relations as main idea, supporting idea, new information, given information, generalisation and exemplification.

10. Distinguish between literal and implied meanings when writing.

11. Correctly convey culturally specific references in the context of the written text.

12. Develop and use a battery of writing strategies, such as accurately assessing the audience's interpretation, using prewriting devices, writing with fluency in the first drafts, using paraphrases and synonyms, soliciting peer and instructor feedback, and using feedback for revising and editing.

The variety of these skills is revealing with regard to the heterogeneous nature of academic writing as well as its complexity, as learning to produce academic texts entails learning to balance a multitude of macro and micro skills.

1.2. The L2 Writing Skill

It is generally agreed that writing is one of the most, if not the most, arduous skill involved in learning a foreign language. Nunan (1999, p.271) holds that "in terms of skills, producing a coherent, fluent, and extended piece of writing is probably the most difficult thing there is to do in language". L2 writing, in particular, involves not only complying with the various standards of appropriateness, but also converting one's thoughts into a code that differs from one's native language. For Kroll (2003), gaining mastery over contextually appropriate formats and the various areas of language is nothing less than a 'Herculean' task. Yet, it seems that the difficulty associated with the composing process is not specific to second/foreign language learning. Writing can prove challenging even for native speakers, for it is usually the result of "thinking, drafting and revising procedures that require specialized skills, skills that not every speaker develops naturally" (Brown, 2001, p.335).

The study of L2 writing has known a rapid growth, at both conceptual and empirical levels, starting from the 1990's. From a theoretical point of view, L2 writing has been approached from different perspectives. Theories from different disciplines, such as L1 writing studies, applied linguistics, linguistics, education, and psychology, have influenced the development of theory in L2 writing (Zhu, 2010). So far, however, a comprehensive theory of L2 writing has not yet been explicitly enunciated. According to Silva (1990), a comprehensive theory should inevitably account for the interaction between the L2 writer, the reader, the text, and the context. For Zhu (2010), it is important to develop a theory that incorporates the unique characteristics of L2 writing and draws on insights from L2 writing practice, as

practice "often motivates theory development by raising questions about various aspects of second language writing and serves as the site in which theory is tested" (p.214).

Empirical research of L2 writing has flourished in parallel with theoretical investigations. Topics of interests have encompassed a wide variety of issues related to the cognitive, social, and developmental aspects of writing. Examples include identity issues in relation to L2 writing, the influence of immigration on L2 writing development, workplace writing, the influence of L1 writing proficiency on L2 writing, and the effect of L2 proficiency on L2 writing (Leki et al., 2008). Despite the accumulation of research, many specialists concur to say that much is still to be done in order to gain a better understanding of the nature of L2 writing. In the field L2 writing pedagogy, in particular, questions in relation to effective teacher and peer feedback and its effect on L2 student writing, the role of technology in L2 writing development, and the various ways of promoting critical thinking in L2 writers represent some important areas of inquiry in the field L2 writing instruction (Leki et al., 2008; Zhu, 2010).

The role of the writing teacher is thought to be seminal in helping students learn and expand their L2 writing skills. One of the most important objectives for the writing teacher is to ensure that students are learning and using the various processes and strategies necessary to produce a good piece of writing. Effective techniques involve striking the right balance between product and process, taking into account cultural/literary backgrounds, providing opportunities for authentic writing, planning techniques on the basis of the pre-writing, drafting, and revising stages, promoting

interactive learning, adopting methods of responding and correcting students' compositions, and teaching students the rhetorical and formal conventions of writing (Brown, 2001). Moreover, the role of the teacher as a facilitator is emphasized by current approaches to teaching. In general terms, the teacher acts as a facilitator when his or her students are actively engaged in the process of knowledge construction and decision making in relation to various aspects of their learning. A further important instructional objective is to find ways of fostering L2 students' motivation. In fact, one of the challenges facing writing teachers is students' lack of enthusiasm for writing activities (Harmer, 2004). Motivating in the L2 writing classroom is crucial as it helps students survive the long and difficult task of mastering the various writing skills. It also contributes significantly to helping students become self-regulated learners and L2 writers (Andrade & Evans, 2013). In sum, the role of the L2 writing teacher is to make informed decisions based on a clear understanding of the pedagogical implications associated with effective writing instruction and of the specificities related the learning context.

2. Approaches to Teaching L2 Writing

The following section describes the major approaches to teaching L2 writing: the product, the process and the genre orientations. A description of the integrated approach to teaching writing, reflecting the contemporary conception of writing, is also presented.

2.1. The Product-based Approach

The product-based approach, developed from the synthesis of structural linguistics and behaviourist psychology, emphasizes the correct use of linguistic and

organizational features as the most important criteria of good writing. Measures of writing quality encompass 'content, organization, vocabulary use, grammatical use, and mechanical considerations such as spelling and punctuation' (Brown,2001, p.335). Young (1987, p.31; cited in Silva, 1990) describes the product-based approach to teaching writing as involving:

> The analysis of discourse into words, sentences, and paragraphs; the classification of discourse into description, narration, exposition, and argument; the strong concern with usage (syntax, spelling, punctuation) and with style (economy, clarity, emphasis); the preoccupation with the informal essay and the research paper; and so on.

Focus on the inherent features of a text and how these features differ across different types of written products is, hence, characteristic of product-based teaching. The main objective is to train students in the production of well-constructed, error-free texts, typically through modeling a text type provided by the teacher. Hyland (2003) explains that product-based instruction relies on guided compositions that require students to imitate and manipulate texts through various types of exercises, including fill in the gaps, sentence completion, and grammatical transformation activities. More generally, Pinca (1982; cited in Badger and White, 2000) identifies four steps in learning to write: 1) *familiarization*: involves raising students' awareness of the characteristic features of a particular text and prescribed rules, 2) *Controlled writing*: students practice the rhetorical forms highlighted earlier, 3) *guided writing*: students are required to compose a text that is similar to the model text, and 4) *free writing*: at this stage, students compose their own text using the writing patterns they have practiced (e.g., a letter). Students are usually not allowed to try free writing

unless they have achieved a fairly good mastery of writing (Raimes, 1983). After they have completed the writing assignment, their texts are proofread and allocated a mark that is predominantly based on formal criteria. The role of the product teacher is, therefore, pivotal, extending from the first phase of instruction, through the selection and provision of a text model, to the final grading procedure. This teacher-centered method of instruction often fails to create opportunities for students to engage in group discussion and to embrace students' needs through individualized content.

Some advantages have been associated with the product-based approach to writing. For Badger and white (2000), the product-based approach deserves credit for recognising the importance of imparting linguistic knowledge to student writers and understanding the role of imitation as part of the learning process. From a practical perspective, the product-based approach has been reported to help students learnthe various rhetorical modes, improve their reading skills, raise their awareness of what good writing is, and facilitate the process of selecting a topic by using models as 'theme-starters' (Eschholz, 1980).

It seems, however, that the drawbacks of the process-based approach prevail over its benefits. Richmond (1985) criticises the linear model characterising the product-based approach, which conceptualises writing as a straightforward exercise extending from idea to product. He further notes that emphasis on reproducing a rigid set of grammatical patterns often leads to superficial compositions and limit writing flexibility. For Hyland (2003), the product-based approach disregards the contextual variables that affect writing, such as learners' knowledge of their readers and similar texts. Eschholz (1980) observes that most critics were directed to the way text models

were used in the classroom, including overemphasis on form at the expense of content, the use of inappropriate models in terms of difficulty, length, and style, and the prioritisation of reading over writing. The product approach has also been criticised for not paying due consideration to the composing processes involved in writing and to students' pre-existing knowledge and skills (Badger & White, 2000; Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). Moreover, the use of model texts that students read then imitate is believed to result in "mindless copies of a particular organizational plan or style" (Eschholz, 1980, p.24). Finally, the product approach holds a simplistic view of human communication that reduces writing to a collection of words on a page (Hyland, 2011).

2.2. The Process-based Approach

A major turning point in the teaching of L2 writing has been made possible by the shift in perspective from the product-based view to writing to an emphasis on the thought processes that take place during writing. The cognitive theory of learning provided the most important conceptual means for constructing the process-oriented approach to writing. Its influence, through the work of cognitive scholars like Jean Piaget and Jerome Bruner, can be seen in the underlying conception of writing as a staged process that engages students in a sequence of thinking operations before reaching the outcome product. The question of what take place cognitively when students write was first addressed by Emig (1971), whose pioneering research helped to cast light on the recursive nature of writing and paved the way for subsequent studies on writing processes (Clark, 2003). Evidence from these studies generated a conceptual framework that views writing as a "nonlinear, exploratory, and generative

process whereby writers discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning" (Zamel, 1983, p.165). The process-based approach is also associated with the expressivist view, which stresses writing as a means of promoting self-discovery and self-reflection through the exploration of personally meaningful topics.

The process-based approach is based on the premise that understanding the different steps involved in writing, rather than simply knowing what to compose, would lead to better quality writing (Blyler,1987). It follows that the teachers adhering to this orientation have the responsibility to raise students' awareness of these processes and help them develop appropriate strategies to convert this knowledge into practical skills. More particularly, students taught to write through this approach are generally required to engage in various types of activities, including prewriting, drafting, revising, and editing.

2.2.1. Prewriting

Prewriting is a preliminary stage of the writing process that involves gathering ideas about a given topic. These ideas may originate from the students' own reflection on the topic or may be obtained from note taking, assigned reading/listening, discussing, or researching the topic. In addition to the process of generating or collecting ideas, prewriting involves a planning phase, during which the learner reconsiders and structures his/her ideas in light of the purpose of writing and the audience. During the pre-writing phase, students are usually encouraged to develop their ideas using either structured or unstructured methods. Unstructured methods, held to be the hallmark of the process-based pedagogy, encompass techniques such

as freewriting and brainstorming. Unstructured pre-writing tasks are expected to take place without inhibition, which is believed to stimulate students' creativity and fluency (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). More structured activities require students to produce ideas following pre-set steps, such as questioning or arranging ideas into relationships (e.g., cause-effect, comparison-contrast).

2.2.2. Drafting

Drafting involves turning one's ideas into a text. This entails ordering ideas coherently and developing the main idea with enough supporting details. Getting ideas down on paper is considered to be the most difficult task for L2 learners. For Nation (2009), possible causes may include a lack of fluency resulting from the difference between the L1 and the L2 writing systems or a lack of practice in writing in general. To encourage students in the drafting phase, learners are generally encouraged to focus more on getting their intended meaning conveyed and less on checking grammar and spelling. To help students get started, Hyland (2003) considers the possibility of having students start later in the text and leave the writing of the introductory statement for a later stage. Moreover, students can be allowed time to interact with their peers and teachers in order to elicit new information and receive evaluative feedback (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). Other effective ways consist in assigning the drafts as homework (Urquhart & McIver, 2005) and helping learners develop time management skills (Williams, 2003).

2.2.3. Revising

Revising a piece of writing is a critical phase which takes place after the first draft is finished. It involves reordering, suppressing, altering, and/or expanding ideas as

well as reconsidering word choice. According to Urquhart and McIver (2005), the task of revising is as difficult as it is important. It is also believed that good writers review their work in a manner appropriate for the audience, the purpose, and stance (Williams, 2003). Poor writers, on the other hand, tend to skip this phase of the writing process or to check their text for grammar and spelling mistakes (Nation, 2009). During the revising phase, peer feedback is seen as vital in helping learners refine their writing. Checklists are also effective means of getting students to review their texts effectively (Nation, 2009). Further strategies include, modeling revision strategies, helping learners detach from the text, and having students use word processors (Urquhart and McIver, 2005).

2.2.4. Editing

Editing is the last stage of the composing process. At this point, identifying and correcting mistakes in sentence formation, usage, and writing mechanics is the focal concern of the writer. Issues associated with text format, references, and footnotes should also be addressed (Coffin et al., 2003). Editing is not expected to take place after all the writing has been completed but can occur simultaneously with during revision (Nation, 2009). While editing, students may benefit from their classmates' feedback. They can also use dictionaries and foreign language textbooks to get examples of proper usage (Coffin et al., 2003). Other facilitative measures involve making the list of content words available to students, providing explicit instruction, and creating individualized proofreading checklists (Urquhart and McIver, 2005).

Proceeding through these steps is believed to help learners write better essays. Students are provided with the opportunity to structure their thoughts and "shape their

raw material into a coherent message" to produce "an acceptable and appropriate form for expressing it" (White and Arndt, 1991, p.5). Also, it gives learners numerous opportunities to remodel their texts as they usually cycle back and forth between the different stages before submitting their final text. Students may, indeed, go through several rounds of brainstorming, drafting and revising during the composing process. Moreover, the process-based approach allows the provision of sufficient time for writing and evaluative feedback on students' drafts (Raimes, 1983). In fact, both teachers and fellow students may intervene to help students review and reorganize their ideas, which would further contribute to fostering their writing skills. Although intervention is expected to take place, the writing endeavour is taken to be primarily individual. This conceptualisation brought about a redefinition of the traditional role of the learner, who came to be seen as "an independent producer of texts" (Hyland, 2003, p.10). Theteacher's role, on the other hand, consists in promoting "a positive, encouraging, and collaborative working environment within which students, with ample time and minimal interference, can work through their composing processes" (Silva, 1990, p.15). The process-based approach era has also initiated a vision of writing that was no longer equated with a good command of language structures and conventions (i.e., vocabulary, grammar, spelling, punctuation). Instead, writing was primarily seen as the result of well-executed processes.

The process movement has had considerable impact on the teaching of second language writing. This approach has indeed several merits. For example, Faigley (1986) notes that the process movement has contributed to promoting the importance of composition skills within educational contexts, shifting the focus of writing away

from the purely linguistic concerns characterising current-traditional approaches, and giving students ways of negotiating the world around them. Clarke (2003) explains that the process writing approach helped the creation of writing pedagogy as an established research discipline and brought about renewed attention to individualized instruction. Horowitz (1986) associates the potential benefits of the process-based approach with the use of collaborative work, the exercise of multiple drafting, and the selection of topics that connect to students' personal interests. In Badger and white's (2000) view, the process-based orientation has the merit of understanding the significance of the skills involved in writing and recognising learners' personal contribution to the development of writing proficiency.

Notwithstanding the pedagogical advantages of the process-based approach, there have been a number of criticisms levelled against it. According to Horowitz (1986), the principles of the process-based approach clash with the reality of academic demands. He maintains that by placing too much emphasis on the writing processes, the process-based pedagogy provides students with little support for exercising their linguistic skills, falling short in preparing them for the realities of scholastic work. Along the same line of thought, Badger and White (2000) argue that the process-based orientation does not promote effective writing since it fails to present students with sufficient linguistic input. Beyond language-related concerns, Hyland (2003) points out that the inadequacy of the process approach is due to its failure to recognise and incorporate the social and cultural aspects that constrain and shape L2 writing, asserting that cognition is only one piece of the whole puzzle. For Badger and white (2000), this orientation may underestimate the importance of the contextual factors

that influence writing, including the audience and purpose of writing. Williams (2003) calls into question the core principle of the process-based approach when he maintains that the 'algorithmic' model characterising it does not capture the actual nature of writing, for he believes writing does not consist of discrete stages and is, as such, a non-sequential event. Finally, Tobin (1994; cited in Clarke, 2003) observes that the process-based approach did not offer tangible solutions to the difficulties experienced by the student writers.

2.3. The Genre-based Approach

The genre-based approach holds a socially-oriented perspective of writing that fosters learners' understanding of the rhetorical and contextual features that enable them to use the language for meaningful purposes. Hence, this theoretical stance views language as "both purposeful and inseparable from the social and cultural context in which it occurs" (Paltridge, 2004, p.2). The term genre is defined as "neither a text type nor a situation, but rather the functional relationship between a type text and a type of situation" (Coe, 2002, p.197), and is characterised by "typified rhetorical actions based in recurrent situations" (Miller, 1984, p. 159; cited in Coe, 2002). These definitions highlight the dual nature of genre, made up of both formal (text) and functional (type of situation) components. Miller's (1984; cited in Coe, 2002) definition, in particular, conceptualises genres in terms of conventional linguistic choices that individuals make in a particular situation. A situation or context comprises several dimensions, such as the writer, the audience, the setting, the purpose of writing, and the subject matter.

The concept of genre has been generally associated with three main theoretical orientations: 1) English for Specific Purposes (ESP), 2) Australian genre-based educational linguistics and 3) North American New Rhetoric. These approaches differ primarily with regard to the amount of attention they give to the formal structures and grammatical properties of texts related to different academic settings (Burns, 2000). Proponents of the different schools share, nonetheless, some underlying principles. Some important assumptions include the ideas that texts are socially constructed, purposeful, and ideologically driven (Johns, 2002). The main distinguishing aspect between the genre-based orientation and former approaches to writing is, therefore, its concern with the social purposes of communication, be it spoken or written. Various social purposes associated with genres have been identified, as suggested by Derewianka (2003): 1) give information about a particular person, thing, or place (description), 2) explore the human condition through story telling (story genres), 3) tell what happened (recount), 4) provide factual information (information report), 5) give the audience instructions on how to proceed (procedure), 6) respond to an artistic work (response genres), 7) convince or argue a viewpoint (exposition), and 8) explain why and how phenomena occur (explanation).

Pedagogical applications of genre are largely based on the Australian genre theory. The latter draws largely on hallidyian systemic linguistics, which "addresses the relationship between language and its social functions and sets out to show how language is a system from which users make choices to express meanings" (Hyland, 2003, p.19). Furthermore, genre-based pedagogies vary from one context to another and seem to be contingent on the nature of the student group as well as the focus

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placed on particular aspects of teaching (Derewianka, 2003). Dudley-Evans (1997) explains, however, that much instruction in the genre classroom follows similar steps, which essentially involve introducing and discussing a genre-specific model, raising familiarity with the organizational patterns characterising a particular genre by means of activities that require students to manipulate relevant language form, and getting students to write a text that incorporates the generic and linguistic features practiced in the unit. Hence, in the genre classroom, the teacher has a central role in providing input through explicitly showing to students how texts relate to a particular social context. In this regard, Kelly (1989) observes that, unlike the process-based orientation, the genre approach would "restore the teacher to the centre of the learning process as one who 'models' language to the students" (p.87). Whereas the writing teachers is taken to be key to successful genre pedagogy, Derewianka (2003) insists that further elements need to be takes into consideration. According to her, a preliminary analysis taking into consideration factors such as the cultural and historical contexts of instruction, the type of language that students need to master, learners' expectations, and constraints related to instructional materials is perquisite to successful genre teaching.

Genre-based pedagogies have been associated with many advantages. For Hyland (2003), the genre-based approach makes textual conventions explicit, considers the social dimension of writing, and enables learners to express social purposes effectively. Hence, genre teaching promotes awareness of the rhetorical conventions needed to manipulate genres that fit different social purposes and helps, in this sense, build flexible-thinking skills, as learners become able to produce different responses

to different situations. Moreover, the genre approach provides opportunities to "discuss the expectations of the academic community that students aspire to join in ways that are comprehensible to both the language teacher and the student" (Dudley-Evans, 1997, p.156). Further, genre teaching promotes understanding of how social contexts and purpose shape discourse, allows students to make sense of the world around them, and helps them become aware of the instrumental nature of writing (Kay & Dudley-Evans, 1998).

The genre-based approach has also been subject to criticism. Kelly (1989), for example, notes the naivety of the ideological view underlying the genre-based approach, according to which genres are means of empowering students. According to him, evidence form historians of literacy tends to demonstrates that literacy alone is not conducive to political power or economic well-being. For Badger and white (2000), the genre-based approach underestimates the importance of the skills involved in writing and fails to promote students' active participation. Hyland (2003) warns that emphasis on getting students to reproduce appropriate linguistic behaviours may lead to prescriptive teaching and ultimately undermine students' creative potential. Similarly, Kay and Dudley-Evans (1998, p.311) hold the view that genre pedagogy can be "restrictive, especially in the hands of unimaginative teachers, and this is likely to lead to lack of creativity and demotivation in the learners". Finally, Bazerman (1988; cited in Dudley-Evans, 1997) believes that the genre approach fails to account for the features of the learning environment that determine the form and nature of communication.

2.4. An Integrated Approach to Writing

Many experts in the field of writing instruction believe that writing can be best promoted by combining the principles underlying the product, the process, and the genre perspectives into a single integrated approach. Silva (1990) argues that viable approaches to teaching ESL compositions should be grounded in a comprehensive theory of writing that accounts for the role of writer, the reader, the text, and context as well as their interaction. Amplifying students' writing potential would, hence, require that writing be viewed through multiple lenses: as a social activity, a cognitive process, and a linguistic exercise. The basic assumption is that writing involves "knowledge about language (as in product and genre approaches), knowledge of the context in which writing happens and especially the purpose for the writing (as in genre approaches), and skills in using language (as in process approaches)" (Badger & White, 2000, p. 157). This perspective entails a holistic approach to writing that brings together the three orientations in a complementary fashion.

In order to effectively incorporate the integrated approach into writing instruction, Hyland (2011) identifies various types of knowledge that teachers should aim to promote: 1) *Content knowledge:* the ideas and concepts associated with the topic of the text, 2) *system knowledge*: the appropriate syntactic, lexical, and conventional patterns, 3) *process knowledge:* the different steps and strategies involved in carrying out a writing task, 4) *genre knowledge:* the communicative purpose of the genre and its value in particular contexts, and 5) *context knowledge:* the expectations and cultural preferences of the readers. Badger and white (2000) elaborated a genre process model of teaching writing that involves initiating students to the contextual

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features and the purpose of writing as well the stylistic dimensions (field, tenor, mode) that influence the choice of language prior to engaging them in the recursive process of writing (pre-writing, drafting, publishing). Moreover, the model allows students to benefit from various sources of input: the teacher, other learners, and textual examples of the target genre.

The integrated approach to teaching writing would contribute to heightening students' consciousness of the complexity characterising the writing skill and help them develop a more accurate representation of the skills needed to be successful writers. Ahmed and Ahsan (2011) believe that students would benefit from an integrated approach to writing in terms of confidence and knowledge about language, through the implementation of the product and the genre approaches to writing. The process approach, on the other hand, would engage students in developing their own ideas and deal with language in order to compose their texts (Ahmed & Ahsan, 2011). Moreover, being able to match the appropriate content, organization, and style with the context and the audience's expectations is significantly more motivating for English-language students and ultimately more useful (Hedge, 2005).

3. Factors Affecting L2 Writing Performance

Numerous factors have been reported to influence L2 writing performance, including aptitude, L2 proficiency, L1 writing ability, motivation/attitude, anxiety, and L2 writing strategies. These factors are described in the following section.

3.1. Aptitude

Language aptitude is defined as "both an underlying language learning capacity and a capacity to handle decontextualized language" (Ellis, 1994, p.522). This

suggests that some L2 learners are naturally skilled at learning languages. Caroll (1962; cited in Ellis, 1994) suggests that four subcomponents are involved in aptitude: 1) *Phonemic coding ability:* the ability to code and remember new sounds, 2) *grammatical sensitivity:* the ability to recognise how words function grammatically in sentences, 3) *inductive language learning ability*: the ability to infer and use grammatical rules on the basis of the linguistic input, and 4) *associative memory:* the ability to memorize words. The extent to which aptitude affects second/foreign language learning has been widely studied. The findings derived from research on the topic have shown that aptitude is one of the most significant predictor of L2 learning (Ellis, 1994). Yet, scant attention has been paid to the role of aptitude in L2 writing processes (Kormos, 2012). One of the few studies exploring the link between aptitude and L2 writing was conducted by Kormos and Sáfár (2008). Their study addressed the role of phonological short-term and working memory capacity in the acquisition of various language skills, including writing. The participants were Hungarian secondary school students receiving intensive English language training as part of a bilingual education programme. The results demonstrated a strong correlation between measures of phonological short-term memory and writing scores of pre-intermediate students but no significant correlation in the case of beginner students. No significant correlation was found between the backward digit span test, used to evaluate working memory capacity, and writing performance. Another study, carried out by Kormos and Trebits (2012), investigated the relationship between foreign language aptitude and a number of linguistic performance criteria, including fluency, accuracy, syntactic complexity, and lexical variety in written and spoken narrative

tasks. The participants were 44 students enrolled in the second year of a bilingual education programme in Hungary.

The findings indicated that two subcomponents of aptitude, namely grammatical sensitivity and inductive ability correlated with syntactic complexity and accuracy in a statistically significant manner. While evidence emanating from these studies tends to support the facilitative effect of aptitude on L2 writing, Kormos (2012), points out that the absence of a consistent body of research allows us to make only hypothetical assumptions. She identifies the potential effects of aptitude as follows:

1. Aptitude may influence the L2 writing processes that involve linguistic processing, which would benefit high aptitude learners during the drafting and reviewing phases of the writing process.

2. Students with high levels of grammatical sensitivity and good deductive abilities are believed to encode ideas into the target language more efficiently and, consequently, direct more attention to syntactic complexity and linguistic accuracy.

3. Phonological sensitivity, in particular, may facilitate the conversion of phonemes into graphemes, leading to more accurate spelling performance.

4. Students with good rote learning ability might have a larger vocabulary repertoire, which can contribute to higher lexical variety and complexity in their written production.

5. Aptitude might enhance the efficiency of monitoring linguistic accuracy, which may help students identify their errors more easily.

3.2. L2 Proficiency

The quality of L2 writing performance has been shown to be related to learners' general level of L2 proficiency. Hirose and Sasaki (1994), for example, explored the relationship between Japanese university students' English expository compositions and a number of factors that may influence the writing quality, including the students' general English proficiency, Japanese writing ability, Japanese and English writing processes, meta-knowledge of English expository writing, past writing experiences, and instructional background. The findings indicated that the CELT (Comprehensive English Language Test) total score predicted significant variation in the English composition total scores, suggesting that general L2 proficiency contributes importantly to the quality of L2 writing. Kiany and Nejad (2001) investigated the relationship between English proficiency, writing ability, and the use of conjunctions by Iranian EFL learners studying at elementary, intermediate, and advanced levels. The results obtained from correlation and regression analyses indicated that students with high levels of L2 proficiency outperformed students with medium and low L2 proficiency. Despite the availability of evidence suggesting a link between general L2 proficiency and L2 writing ability, evidence generated from other studies shows no significant relationship. To explain contradictory findings, Hirose and Sasaki (1994) point out the high proficiency levels of the participants taking part in these studies, mostly ESL students enrolled in American universities. They hypothesize that L2 proficiency may contribute less significantly to L2 writing after the students' proficiency has reached a certain level, and that linguistic competence plays a key role in explaining their L2 writing ability before this stage has been attained.

3.3. L1 Writing Ability

Several studies have reported a link between L1 writing ability and L2 writing ability, suggesting that L1 composition skills are transferable across languages. In a study conducted with Chinese university students of English, Carson and Kuehn (1992) found out evidence of transfer of discourse competence from the L1 to the L2. Their research findings revealed that good L1 writers tended to become good L2 writers. Intriguingly, increase in L1 writing proficiency was found to be associated with decrease in L2 writing proficiency. Similarly, Carson et al. (1990) explored the difference between L1 literacy skills and L2 writing development in ESL academic settings. The participants were Japanese and Chinese adult students who were required to write an essay in both their first and second languages. The findings revealed a significant correlation between L1 writing ability and L2 writing ability. In Hirose and Sasaki's (1994) study, L1 writing ability was found to account for a large portion of the variance in the L2 composition scores of Japanese students, which led them to suspect the existence of a 'composing competence' or aptitude that may influence both L1 and L2 writing. Ma and Wen (1999; cited in Leki et al., 2008) provided evidence that L2 writing ability could be significantly predicted by L1 writing ability at different levels of proficiency. L1 writing ability was found to affect L2 oral expression ability, L2 vocabulary comprehension, and L2 discourse comprehension ability, which in turn seemed to influence L2 writing ability. It appears, therefore, that L1 writing ability exerts only an indirect influence on L2 writing ability.

3.4. Motivation and Attitude

Learners' attitudes are closely related to their motivation. Students' negative attitudes about L2 writing may cause reluctance to engage and invest effort in the writing process and ultimately lead to poor writing skills. For example, students who equate proficiency in the second or foreign language with the ability to speak it may not be motivated to attend to written tasks, with the results being errors in writing that might not be made in speech (Carson, 2001). Andrade and Evans (2013) relate students' attitudes toward L2 writing to students' knowledge of the writing process, their reasons for learning to write, their past successes and failures to write in the L2, their personal interest in L2 writing, and their L1 writing background. They believe these aspects determine students' motivation, which in turn affects their writing performance.

Motivation to write in the L2 derives from two primary sources: 1) the student's motive for learning English in general, and 2) the student's motive for learning to write in the L2, including writing in a particular genre (Andrade & Evans, 2013). The goal underlying students' motivation to write in the L2 determines, therefore, how much effort and time they will put into acquiring L2 composition skills. In the context of genre writing, Carson (2001) asserts that students' perception of a given genre as irrelevant to their goals may lead to lack of attention and failure in acquiring the rhetorical patterns associated with it.

Given the level of difficulty and amount of time required to gain mastery of the various writing skills, Kormos (2012) postulates that L2 writing ability is affected by learner motivation through the influence of self-efficacy beliefs and interest.

Research findings tend to prove her right as self-efficacy and interest are found to be strong predictors of L2 writing performance (e.g., Chen & Lin, 2009; Erkan & Saban, 2011;Woodrow, 2011).These results are in concert with those obtained in the field of L1 writing (e.g., Pajares & Valiante, 2001; Multon et al., 1991).At a more general level, studies substantiating the link between motivation and L2 writing performance derive evidence from exploring the role of integrative and instrumental motivation in L2 writing. Hashemian and Heidari's (2013) study, for example, explored the relationship between integrative vs. instrumental motivation and L2 writing success. The relationship between positive and negative attitude and L2 writing success was also investigated. Their findings showed a negative correlation between instrumental motivation and negative attitude and L2 writing proficiency. However, both integrative motivation and positive attitude were found to correlate in a significant and positive manner with L2 writing proficiency, suggesting that students with high integrative motivation and positive attitude toward language learning in general are better writers than students with instrumental motivation and negative attitude.

3.5. Anxiety

Several sources of L2 writing anxiety have been identified in the literature. These include the fear of negative evaluation, limited planning/writing time, lack of writing skills, practice, and instruction, self-imposed pressure for flawless work, lack of confidence in one's writing abilities, problems with topic selection, and difficulty with expressing one's ideas in appropriate English (Razaei & Jafari, 2014). Despite the availability of research on the role of anxiety in L2 leaning, studies on L2 writing anxiety are relatively underdeveloped. This is because L2 speaking, thought to be the

most anxiety-provoking skill when learning a second/foreign language, has been the primary research focus. These exist, however, a number of studies showing the debilitating effect of L2 writing anxiety on L2 writing performance. One of them was conducted by Hassan (1999), who sought to determine the relationship between L2 writing anxiety and the quality and quality of university Egyptian students' compositions. The results indicated that students with low levels of anxiety wrote better quality compositions than those experiencing high levels of anxiety. Cheng et al (1999) investigated the relationship between second language classroom anxiety and L2 writing anxiety and their association with L2 speaking and writing achievement. The participants were Taiwanese English majors taking speaking and writing courses simultaneously. A significant and negative correlation was found between L2 writing anxiety and L2 achievement scores, suggesting that anxious students performed better than their less anxious counterparts. They also concluded that language classroom anxiety and L2 writing anxiety are two related but independent constructs. Interestingly, both studies, as led by Hassan (1999) and Cheng et al. (1999), reported a link between self-confidence and L2 writing anxiety. Cheng et al. (1999) consider two possibilities: the construct of anxiety subsumes the construct of self-confidence; anxiety is a subcomponent of self-confidence.

3.6. L2 Writing Strategies

The use of L2 writing strategies is believed to be instrumental in learning second/foreign language writing. Numerous studies have demonstrated the important supportive role of writing strategies in L2 composition. Some of them addressed the differences between EFL students with high and low writing proficiency in terms of

strategy use (e.g., Bai et al., 2013; Chien, 2012). The findings indicated that students with high writing proficiency used significantly more planning, revising, and reviewing strategies compared to their less proficient counterparts. Other studies explored the effects of writing strategy instruction on L2 learners' writing proficiency (e.g., De Silva, 2015; Nguyen & Gu, 2013.) Once again, the benefits of using L2 writing strategies during the composing process led to significantly better writing performances.

Several strategies have been identified and various classifications of L2 writing strategies have been set forth. Mu (2005) put forward a taxonomy based on the synthesis of previous studies on ESL writing strategies. He identifies five broad categories: 1) *rhetorical strategies*, used to organize and express ideas following the right conventions, 2) *meta-cognitive strategies*, used to control the writing process consciously, 3) *cognitive strategies*, used to execute the actual writing actions, 4) *communicative strategies*, used to overcome communication difficulties, and 5) *social/affective strategies*, used to interact with others and regulate emotions. Table 3.1 presents the various substrategies subsumed under each category and the corresponding descriptions.

Writing Strategies	Substrategies	Description
Rhetorical Strategies	• Organisation • Use of L1 • Formatting/Modelling • Comparing	-Beginning/development/ending -Translate generated idea into ESL -Genre consideration -Different rhetorical conventions
Meta-cognitive Strategies	• Planning • Monitoring • Evaluating	-Finding focus -Checking and identifying problems -Reconsidering written text, goals
Cognitive Strategies	• Generating ideas • Revising • Elaborating • Clarification • Retrieval • Rehearsing • Summarising	-Repeating, lead-in, inferencing, etc. -Making changes in plan, written text -Extending the contents of writing -Disposing of confusions -Getting information from memory -Trying out ideas or language -Synthesising what has been read
Communicative Strategies	• Avoidance • Reduction • Sense of readers	-Avoiding some problem -Giving up some difficulties -Anticipating readers' response
Social/Affective Strategies	• Resourcing • Getting feedback • Assigning goals • Rest/deferral	-Referring to libraries, dictionaries -Getting support from professor, peers -Dissolve the load of the task -Reducing anxiety

Table 3.1 Mu's (2005) Classification of L2 Writing Strategies (Mu, 2005, p.9)

4. L2 Writing Assessment

Following is a description of general practices in L2 writing assessment including test types and scoring procedures (holistic and analytic scoring). Scoring procedures are discussed in more detail in terms of their definition, corresponding advantages and disadvantages, and differences with regard to validity and reliability.

4.1. Assessing L2 Writing

The assessment L2 writing has been traditionally conducted using indirect or direct methods of measurement. Indirect methods of assessment are usually used to make inferences about students' writing ability by testing their verbal reasoning, error recognition, or grammatical accuracy (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). A direct writing assessment, on the other hand, is a performance-based test that involves numerous

components, including the writer, the task, the rater, and the rating procedure (Hamp-Lyons, 1994), with the most common forms being essay-based tests. In recent years, direct methods of assessment have become the most widely used type of measurement, mainly because they engage students in writing products that are more reflective of their ability.

Writing is generally believed to be a crucial process for effective teaching and learning. When conducted properly, writing assessment can help promote teaching at the conceptual and practical level (White, 1995). Hyland (2003) identifies five main objectives for assessing writing:

- *Placement:* the aim is to place the student in the course that fits his/her skill level.

- *Diagnostic:* the objective is to pinpoint students' areas of strengths and weakness. The information provided is usually used as part of needs analysis, but can also serve to determine appropriate remedial actions, adjust lessons to accommodate students' needs, or give students feedback about their progress.

- *Achievement:* the test is used to know the extent to which the lesson objectives have been achieved. It usually involves testing the genres that have been taught in class.

- *Performance:* the test tells if examinee is able to perform particular writing tasks. It is usually associated with educational and professional requirements.

- ***Proficiency:*** it is usually a standardised test which evaluates the writer's general level of language competence, with the aim of providing certification for university study and employment.

A further distinction is commonly made between formative and summative assessment. The goal of formative assessment is to gauge students' understanding in order to identify the instructional activities that best address their writing needs. This type of assessment is very helpful in familiarizing students with the demands of a particular subject matter, identifying struggling students, and determining common areas of writing deficiency among students (Coffin et al., 2003). Summative assessment, on the other hand, is conducted with the aim of determining how well students have acquired the course objectives and is usually administered at the end of the term. The two types of assessment practices are not exclusive, since they can be combined to take instructional decisions and grade students' achievement simultaneously.

The assessment of L2 writing involves two central considerations: identifying the scoring rubric and ensuring the reliability and validity of scores (Weigle, 2002). A scoring rubric or scale is a grading tool used to evaluate a piece of writing against a set of criteria, generally grammar, content, organization, and mechanics. Three main types of scoring rubrics can be identified: holistic scoring, analytic scoring, and primary trait scoring. The latter is the least widely used scale, as limited information exists on its applicability in L2 writing context (Weigle, 2002). The second most important aspect of L2 assessment is reliability and validity, deemed essential in determining the quality of a test. Issues of reliability and validity along with the most

common types of scoring rubrics (holistic and analytic) are discussed in more details in the following sections.

4.2. Types of Scoring Procedures

Following is a description of the two major types of scoring procedures used to assess writing, namely holistic and analytic scoring. The advantages and drawbacks associated with each type are also discussed.

4.2.1. Holistic Scoring

4.2.1.1. Defining Holistic Scoring

Holistic scoring emerged as the result of a growing dissatisfaction among teachers and researchers with the use of multiple choice tests to assess writing. Multiple choice tests were deemed unreliable in classroom assessment contexts and invalid for testing large student populations (Williams, 2003). Holistic scoring is based on the assumption that "there are inherent qualities of written text which are greater than the sum of the text's countable elements" (Hamp-Lyons, 1990, p.79). In other terms, this evaluative method relies on the rater's general judgment or impression of the overall quality of a text. This impression is shaped by several aspects, including the organization of ideas, word choice, syntactic variety, spelling and punctuation, sentence structure, and figures of speech. For Wolcott and Legg (1998, p.72), holistic scoring is a "matter of the reader's mentally absorbing and balancing all the elements - rhetorical as well as mechanical and grammatical- that contribute to the overall impression a paper makes".

Holistic scoring procedures involve at least two trained raters. A scoring rubric and benchmark papers corresponding to different levels of proficiency are usually provided. The aim is to ensure that the raters reach a consensus on the criteria to be evaluated and enhance the reliability of the writing scores. The grading criteria or rubrics are developed to suit different learning contexts and course objectives and can be designed to handle complex forms of writing that require students to draw on interpersonal strategies (Hyland, 2003). Holistic raters are usually required to adhere to some guidelines while assessing papers, such as avoiding the temptation to re-read the paper, make suggestions or corrections, and change the score. During the marking process, the writing sample is evaluated as a whole and assigned a score in the form of a letter grade, a percentage, or a number based on a scale ranging from zero to four or six points. Any discrepancy in the scores attributed is generally settled by calling on a third rater. The final grade represents the average of the three raters' scores.

Holistic scoring is usually appropriate for large-scale testing, where a large number of papers can be assessed relatively quickly. It can also be used in classroom context. Wolcott and Legg (1998) suggest some guidelines to help teachers implement holistic assessment:

1. The criteria of writing need to be identified. Criteria should reflect the aspects featured in the course.

2. The writing samples should be sorted out on the basis of the quality of the writing criteria, from high to poor quality papers. Teacher should then explain to their students the qualities distinguishing the different proficiency levels.

3. Students can be familiarized with holistic grading by having them score anonymous writing samples.

4. Students can be involved in using the scale to assess their own papers. It usually takes some time for students to acquire self-assessment skills.

4.2.1.2. Advantages and Disadvantage of Holistic Scoring

Adopting a holistic method to assess students' writing has both advantages and disadvantages. For Weigle (2002), the advantage of holistic scoring lies in its practicality. Holistic scoring takes less time and is, consequently, less expensive compared to other types of scoring procedures, which is particularly useful in large-scale testing contexts. Additionally, holistic grading allows for a more open-ended appreciation of the unique properties of students' writing samples (Nichols & Nichols, 2005). Another advantage is that holistic scoring provides an adequate description of students' overall performance and gives them a single perspective on their achievement level (Goh & Burns, 2012). According to White (1985), one of the most fervent proponents of holistic scoring, this technique concentrates on the writer's areas of strengths instead of lingering over his weaknesses. He also believes that validity is greater, in comparison to analytic scoring, because it reflects the rater's authentic reaction to a text. Finally, holistic scoring offers possibilities for teachers to train students in assessing their own and their classmates' writing samples (Ketter, 1997).

With regard to the disadvantages of holistic scoring, Cunnigham (1998) explains that assigning students overall scores is difficult to defend in classroom context as students usually prefer concrete information on how points were assigned to their

performance. According to White (1995), the "most important limitation of the holistic score is that it gives no meaningful diagnostic information beyond the comparative ranking it represents" (White, 1985, p. 28). For Hamp-Lyons (1991), this feature of 'holism' is severely constraining because it creates a disjunction between teaching and assessment. Weigle (2002) observes that the absence of diagnostic information is a major problem in second language contexts since different aspects of writing ability develop at different paces depending on the learner. She further criticises the opaque character of holistic scoring, which gives no information about how raters weigh the different criteria when assigning similar scores. Charney (1984) believes that holistic scores are largely influenced by superficial features of writing, such as handwriting and spelling. He also considers holistic scoring to be a product-based type of assessment, which is rooted in the idea that "writing ability can be inferred from an end-product of the writing process" (Charney, 1984, p.68). Finally, Hamp-Lyons (1991) points out the reductive nature of holistic scoring, which conflates the cognitive and linguistic complexity of writers' response to one single score.

4.2.2. Analytic Scoring

4.2.2.1. Defining Analytic Scoring

Contrary to holistic scoring, analytic writing requires the rater to make a judgment about each of the different components of writing performance. Moreover, the grader can make comments on the different aspects of writing and give guidance on how the text can be improved (Wolcott & Legg, 1998). The criteria against which the text is evaluated depend on the type of assessment (Weigle, 2002) and the components

involved in the construct definition (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). Most generally, however, analytic scoring takes into account five aspects: organization, vocabulary, content, grammar, and mechanics. These quality criteria can be measured using the same numerical scale or weighted to emphasize some aspects in particular, usually content and organization. In some analytic rubrics, numerical scales are replaced by verbal labels, such as excellent, good, average, and poor. Analytic rubrics can also differ in the number of mastery levels that are associated with the various scales. Generally, analytic rubrics contain category descriptors and bullet statements that describe different skill levels. The importance of using analytic rubrics that maximize the rater's objectivity by featuring well-articulated levels for each scale has been emphasized by several specialists (Weigle, 2002).

Various analytic rubrics have been developed for classroom use (Wolcott & Legg, 1998). In some case, however, teachers can choose to adapt a particular analytic rubric to suit the course objectives. Teachers may also train students in using these rubrics to assess their own texts. Wolcott and Legg (1998) describe the procedure as follows:

1. Teachers should determine the central components to be included in the rubric, and decide whether a particular scale should include a broad category or various subcategories (e.g., mechanics (broad category)/spelling – punctuation- capitalisation (subcategories))

2. Teachers should discuss with their students the most suitable rating system to adopt (numerical system or verbal system).

3. The students can be familiarized with use of the scoring rubric by practicing on sample papers.

4. After the students have gained some experience in using the scale, they can evaluate their own papers against the criteria.

4.2.2.2. Advantages and Disadvantages of Analytic Scoring

The use of analytic scoring entails obvious advantages. First, analytic scoring provides information on the extent to which students have mastered the different writing components, allowing teachers to fine-tune their instruction accordingly (Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Hyland, 2003; Wolcott & Legg, 1998; Weigle, 2002). In the same way, it helps students locate the writing areas that need further practice (Wolcott & Legg, 1998). The kind of information provided by analytic scoring is particularly useful for second-language learners because they are "more likely to show a marked or uneven profile across different aspects of writing" (Weigle, 2002, p.120). A further advantage lies in the explicit nature of the scoring procedure. For Bachman and Palmer (1996), the existence of discrete areas of performance is useful because it gives information about the elements that are taken into consideration by the raters when assigning their scores. Ferris and Hedgcock (2005) believe that the use of explicit textual features facilitates the training of raters. They also note the possibility of adapting analytic rubrics to prioritise the writing aspects and processes featured in the syllabus.

Although valuable in many regards, analytic scoring is not without its flaws. Scoring each writing component independently is time and effort consuming, which is more likely to generate substantial costs in large-scale assessment (Wolcott &

Legg, 1998). A further drawback of analytic scoring emerges when analytic grades are combined to form a single score. In this case, not only is the pedagogical potential of analytic scoring unexploited, but raters become more inclined to evaluate a text holistically rather than analytically (Weigle, 2002). Moreover, analytic scoring may unduly bias raters in favour of the writing samples that can be easily analysed in terms of the rubric's criteria and descriptors (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005). White (19985) questions the analytic conception of writing as the sum of its components, stating that "the lack of agreement on subskills in the profession suggests that writing remains more than the sum of its parts and that the analytic theory that seeks to define and add up the subskills is fundamentally flawed" (p. 123). Lastly, critics have raised the issue of the 'halo effect' that takes place when the score associated with one component influences another (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005; Hyland, 2003).

4.3. Holistic vs. Analytic Scoring: Reliability and Validity Issues

Deciding about the type of rating procedure to use is not a straightforward matter (Weigle, 2002). It seems, however, that the purpose and context of rating plays a central role in determining the most appropriate alternative. In large-scale assessment, for example, holistic scoring is recommended. When the purpose is to evaluate how well students are doing in the different writing abilities, analytic scoring does a better job. To help language testers choose the most suitable option, Bachman and Palmer (1996) suggest the notion of test usefulness, a combination of six criteria: reliability, construct validity, impact, authenticity, practicality, and interactiveness. According to them, the choice of which test to adopt entails an appropriate balance among these aspects in relation to the situation. When a test is intended to serve

research purposes, more particularly, reliability and construct validity are central concerns (Weigle, 2002).

Reliability is generally described as the extent to which an assessment tool produces stable and consistent results. Cohen et al. (2000) define reliability as "essentially a synonym for consistency and replicability over time, over instruments and over groups of respondents" (p.117). Reliability is usually established on the basis of how well two or more scores are related. When the scores assigned by two different raters are significantly correlated, the test is said to have inter-rater reliability. When the same rater assigns the same scores on different occasions, then intra-reliability is confirmed. Construct validity, on the other hand, is the extent to which a test measures up what it claims to measure. Construct validity is generally established by comparing a test with other tests that measure similar qualities to see how highly correlated the two measures are. In this case, a high correlation between scores attributed holistically and analytically provides evidence of construct validity.

Research comparing holistic and analytic scoring in terms of these criteria tends to yield inconclusive results, with research showing either equivalence between the two scoring methods or superiority of one method over the other (Harsh & Martin, 2013). For example, Bacha's (2001) study on the pedagogical benefits of holistic versus analytic grading, conducted with a sample 30 students attending the EFL programme at the Lebanese American University, reported high correlation coefficients of intra- and inter-reliability scoring for both types of grading procedures. Vacc's (1989) research on the concurrent validity of holistic and analytic scoring found a significant correlation between a teacher's holistic and analytic scores and across teachers using

different scoring methods. East and young's (2007) exploratory case study investigated the reliability and validity of a holistic and multiple-trait analytic scoring. The writing proficiency of 30 ESL students at intermediate level was double-scored using each time a different scoring method. Holistic and analytic rating techniques were found to be highly correlated, both individually and in comparison with each other. Bauer (1981) investigated the reliable uses and cost effectiveness of analytic, holistic, and primary-trait scoring in secondary school context. Data was partly analysed for inter-rater and intra-rater reliability as well as the comparative rater reliabilities. This time, the results revealed that analytic scoring is more reliable than holistic and primary-trait scoring. Nakamura (2004) carried out a comparative study of both methods on the basis of Bachman and Palmers' (1996) criteria of test usefulness. The results revealed that raters show more consistency when they use analytic scoring. To explore the validity of analytic versus holistic rating, Harsh and Martin (2013) adopted qualitative methods that required holistic raters to justify their grades with reference to the rating rubric. It turned out that inter-rater agreement on holistic scores masked discrepancies in how the raters applied the descriptors defining a particular criterion, which, they argue, represents a threat to rating validity. They conclude by stating that "a holistic scoring procedure for an assessment criterion which in turn is defined by several descriptors can only be called valid if the descriptors are interpreted fairly consistently and in line with the construct by all raters" (Harsh & Martin, 2013, p.294).

Despite a lack of agreement, Weigle (2002) gives advantage to analytic over holistic scoring. It is believed that analytic rating can "simplify and objectify the

rating of essays, and that it therefore might lead to more reliable writing scores than more holistic rating procedures" (Schoonan, 2005, p.10). In addition, in L2 writing contexts, analytic scoring is more valid than holistic scoring. This is because analytic scoring accounts for the fact that learners may develop different writing skills at different rates (Weigle, 2002). It is, in fact, difficult to assign an overall score when a student displays different levels of proficiency in the various areas of writing. The resultant score, in this case, can be made in favour of some aspects (e.g., grammar) at the detriment of others (e.g., content). Scores may also be negatively affected due to weaknesses in some areas, despite noticeable strengths in others.

In view of these arguments and in consideration of the researcher's experience with the use of analytic scoring, as part of her regular teaching practice, it was decided to score the writing achievement of the teacher-trainees involved in the current study using an analytic rubric.

Conclusion

The review of the literature points to the heterogeneous nature of academic L2 writing in terms of the skills required to produce appropriate texts. The complexity associated with writing in a second/foreign language brings with it equally complex challenges in researching the construct and the various factors involved in it. An important factor that is now much emphasized is the writing teacher and his role as a trainer, motivator, and facilitator. Moreover, the multifaceted nature of L2 writing requires that teachers adopt an eclectic method of instruction that draws on the product, the process, and the genre approaches to teaching L2 writing. More specifically, an integrated approach promotes the use of writing processes

(prewriting, drafting, revising, and editing activities), of appropriate rhetorical patterns, and of linguistically accurate language. It also appears that L2 writing is affected by a variety of factors, including language aptitude, L2 proficiency, L1 writing ability, motivation and attitude, anxiety, and L2 writing strategies. With regard to L2 writing assessment, both holistic and analytic scoring procedures are reported to have advantages and disadvantages. However, it has become clear that analytic scoring methods are more valid than holistic scoring rubrics in assessing L2 writing.

CHAPTER FOUR:
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter outlines the design and research methodology that guided in planning and implementing the present study. It includes a description of a) the sample, b) the research design and method, c) the research instruments, and d) the data collection and analysis procedures used to provide empirical answers to the following research questions:

1. How often do EFL writing teachers use motivational strategies?

<u>**Sub-questions:**</u>

    1.1. What motivational strategies do EFL writing teachers use the most frequently?

    1.2. What motivational strategies do EFL writing teachers use the least frequently?

2. Does the use of motivational strategies as implemented by EFL writing teachers match the relative importance attached to them by their teacher-trainees? If not, what are the most important areas of mismatch?

3. Does the level of match between the use of motivational strategies and the relative importance attached to them affect the teacher-trainees' writing motivation?

4. Does the level of match between the use of motivational strategies and the relative importance attached to them affect the teacher-trainees' writing achievement?

5. What additional information do the teacher interviews provide about the motivational teaching practices of EFL writing teachers?

6. What additional information do the focus group interviews provide about the teacher-trainees' perceptions of motivational strategies?

1. Sample of the Study

Data collection for this study takes place in the 'École Normale Supérieure de Bouzareah'. The ENS of Bouzareah provides training in elementary, middle, and secondary school teaching and counts different departments, including the Department of French, English, Arabic, Philosophy, and History and Geography. Teachers-trainees pursing English studies are trained to become middle (Baccalaureate +4 years) and secondary (Baccalaureate + 5 years) school teachers. The level of certification is determined by an initial selection, conducted via a national admission platform, based on the students' baccalaureate average and their baccalaureate English examination grade. An oral interview determines the final selection of the candidates.

1.1. Teacher Participants

The teachers taking part in our study are 6 EFL teachers delivering academic writing courses to first- and second-year students at the teacher training college of Bouzareah (Algiers). They are randomly selected from a population of 12 teachers. Table 4.1 provides a description of the background information of the teacher participants, including their gender, age, nationality, EFL teaching experience, position, and qualification.

Characteristics		Number	Percentage
Gender	Female	5	83.3%
	Male	1	16.6%
Age Range	30-40	3	50%
	40-50	2	33.3%
	50-60	1	16.6%
Nationality	Algerian	6	100%
EFL Teaching Experience (yrs)	1-10	3	50%
	10-20	1	16.3%
	10-30	2	33.3%
Position	Full-time assistant lecturer	4	66.66%
	Associate teacher	2	33.3%
Qualification	Bachelor's degree	1	16.6%
	Magister degree	5	83.3%

Table 4.1 Background Information of the Teacher Participants

As can be seen from table 4.1, the participating teachers are all (100%) Algerian citizens. The majority of them are female (83.3%) full-time assistant lecturers (66.66%). Half of the total number of teachers is aged less that 40 (50%), with an EFL teaching experience of less than 10 years. The remaining teachers (50%) are aged more than 40, with an EFL teaching experience of more than 10 years. Additionally, most of them (83.3%) hold a Magister degree (1 teacher (16.3%) holds a bachelor's degree). It can, therefore, be said that the sample of teachers is heterogeneous in terms of age and EFL teaching experience and less in terms of qualification, gender, and position.

1.2. Student Participants

The participating students are first- and second-year cohorts of students enrolled as middle and secondary school teacher-trainees at the teacher training college of Bouzareah. The participants involved in the quantitative phase of the study consist of 120 students, 18 male and 102 female students, selected though stratified random sampling from a population of 530 students. Table 4.2 describes the background information of the students.

Aself-selected subset of the students from the initial quantitative phase takes part in the qualitative phase. A total of 26 students, 3 male and 23 female students, participate in the focus group interviews.

Characteristics		Number	Percentage
Gender	Female	102	75%
	Male	18	15%
Age Range	18-22	120	100%
Nationality	Algeria	120	100%
EFL Learning Experience	8 (yrs)	60	50%
	9 (yrs)	60	50%
Grade Level	1st Year	60	50%
	2nd Year	60	50%
Pursued Level of Certification	PES	80	66.6%
	PEM	40	33.3%

Table 4.2 Background Information of the Student Participants

From Table 4.2, it can be seen that the participating students are all Algerian students whose age varies between 18 and 22. The solid majority (75%) of them are female students. Also, PES (professeur de l'enseignement secondaire) students

(66.6%) outnumber PEM (professeur de l'enseignement moyen) students (33.3%). Half of the student participants are first-year students in their 8th year of EFL learning. The remaining students (50%) are second-year students in their 9th year of EFL learning.

2. Research Method and Design

The current case study uses a mixed-methods approach. A mixed-methods approach involves a mixture of quantitative and qualitative data in the study of a given phenomenon, generally through the use of different data collection methods such as observations, questionnaires, and interviews. Quantitative data is generally defined as any information that can be quantified using numerical values, such as measurement units, percentages, etc. Qualitative data, on the other hand is any information which describes something that cannot be measured using numbers, such as people's feelings, attitudes, etc. The mixed-methods design is described as an effective method of inquiry that helps the researcher achieve a greater understanding of the research problem and corroboration of the results. In describing the advantages of mixed methods research, Morse (2003, p.189; cited in Mertens, 2010) states:

> By using more than one method within a research study, we are able to obtain a more complete picture of human behaviour and experience. Thus, we are able to hasten our understanding and achieve our research goals more quickly.

Over the last thirty years, the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods has gown very popular in a variety of fields, including psychological, educational, and health sciences, with an extensive body of research conducted with the aim of

achieving triangulation. Triangulation is succinctly defined by Denzin (1978, p.291) as "the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon". Put differently, triangulation involves the use of data from multiple sources to answer the same research problem. In Denzin's (1978) view, the necessity of drawing on both research approaches stems from the fact that each method captures a different dimension of reality, and as such does not provide a comprehensive perspective on the phenomenon under study. While usually taken to refer to the procedure of converging data in a single study in order to validate research findings, Jick (1979) asserts that triangulation can also be used to promote a deeper, contextualized understanding of the phenomenon under study, usually by using qualitative methods that allow for new or deeper perspectives to emerge. In a similar vein, Olsen (2004) notes that triangulation should not be limited to convergent validation, but should also be used to shed light on the topic from different angles. Morse (1991) associates the objectives behind triangulation with two mixed-methods designs: simultaneous and sequential triangulation (Morse, 1991). In simultaneous triangulation, quantitative and qualitative data are collected at the same time, with limited interference between the two datasets, in an attempt to ensure that the results yielded by the various methods measuring the same concept are similar. In Sequential triangulation, the aim is to obtain different but complementary data on the same topic by using the findings of one method to inform the design of the next method.

Data triangulation can be achieved at different levels. Denzin (1978) suggests four levels or types of data triangulation: Space triangulations, time triangulation, person triangulation, and methodological triangulation. Space triangulation seeks

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convergence of data collected from different regions, cultures, countries, etc. Time triangulation explores similarity of data collected synchronically or diachronically. Person triangulation involves data collection at the individual level, the group level, and the collective level. Methodological triangulation involves 'within-method' and 'between-method' triangulation. The 'within-method' triangulation is described as the use of different techniques within the same quantitative or qualitative research tradition. It is generally used in order to ensure reliability or internal consistency. The 'between-method' triangulation, on the other hand, involves the use of quantitative and qualitative methods in an effort to consolidate research findings or gain an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under investigation.

Many advantages of triangulation have been documented in the literature. Triangulation is used as a means for cross-checking validity of the findings, which contributes to increasing both the accuracy and the credibility of the study (Creswell, 2012). Furthermore, triangulating data enables to exploit the strengths of one method in order to compensate for the weaknesses inherent to the other (Denzin, 1978). Triangulation can also encourage the creation of new ways by which a phenomenon can be explored, help refashion or elaborate new theories, lead to a synthesis of theories, and yield a rich description of the contextual factors that play a prominent role in explaining the phenomenon (Jick, 1979).

The current study used triangulation primarily for the purpose of completeness. The student (three-part) questionnaire is employed in order to derive quantitative data (by transforming students' answers into weighted answers, i.e., quantified through a given scale), which is subsequently used to design the follow-up interviews. The

intended objective is to gain a deeper understanding of EFL teachers' motivational practices and their teacher-trainees' perceptions of motivational teaching strategies. Triangulation for the purpose of convergence is achieved through quantitative data collection procedures: the observation checklist and the student questionnaire (frequency questionnaire). It aims to ascertain the reliability of the results in relation to the frequency of use motivational strategies as implemented by the participating teachers. The decision to use an observation checklist in conjunction with the questionnaire is based on the researcher's concern over the possibility that inaccurate answers may be provided by the students. This may result from:

1. The students' fear of the consequences to their answers since the questionnaire does not guarantee anonymity.

2. Feelings of boredom in filling out the five-page questionnaire

This step (within-method triangulation) is particularly important in consideration of the fact that the obtained findings will determine subsequent results and help design the follow-up interview questions.

3. Research Instruments

The initial quantitative phase instruments comprise: a) a classroom observation checklist, b) a three-part questionnaire, and c) an analytic scoring rubric (used to evaluate students' examination responses). The subsequent qualitative phase instruments involve an individual (teacher) interview and a (student) focus group interview.

3.1. Observation Checklist

In scientific fields of inquiry, direct observations are used to collect data about phenomena as they naturally occur. Wellington (2015, p.247) explains that "observations deal with behaviour rather than reported behaviour". In fact, when carefully conducted, observations are generally believed to bring about more reliable data than self-report data. This is because they describe what people actually do rather than what they say they do. People may, indeed, be tempted to provide inaccurate answers or simply fail to accurately describe their behaviour. Other advantages of observation include the ability to record data as it occurs, and study individuals who have difficulty verbalising their ideas (e.g., children) (Creswell, 2012). Observations can be structured, semi-structured, or unstructured. In classroom context, the most commonly used type of observation is structured observation (Dörnyei, 2007). Structured observations involve a set of observation categories that are determined well before getting into the classroom and serve usually to derive quantitative data. When the focus is on the incidence, presence, and frequency of behaviour, a structured observation protocol is the most appropriate alternative (Cohen et al., 2005).

3.1.1. Design of the Observation Checklist

The classroom observation tool used to document the present study is a 39-item checklist aimed at identifying the motivational strategies used by EFL teachers and the frequency of use of each strategy. The check list is largely based on Dörnyei's (2001) motivational teaching taxonomy. The 39 motivational strategies that are incorporated in the checklist are restricted to those behavioural features that lend

themselves to direct observation and accurate measurement in terms of frequency of occurrence. The inclusion criteria are also determined by the age of the student participants. Finally, the motivational strategies that are used on an occasional basis or that are contingent on the occurrence of sporadic events are not taken into consideration. Instead, priority is given to the motivational strategies that are likely be implemented on a daily basis. Hence, strategies such as avoiding social comparison, making sure that there are no serious obstacles to success, keeping parents informed about their children's progress, encouraging learners to personalise the classroom environment according to their taste, occasionally do the unexpected, and never let any violations go unnoticed are deliberately excluded.

The motivational strategies included in the checklist are grouped under fifteen conceptual categories: 1) group cohesiveness, 2) classroom climate, 3) self-confidence, 4) task-related interest, 5) goal-orientedness, 6) proper presentation of the task, 7) L2-related values, 8) evaluation, 9) teacher behaviour,10) autonomy, 11) recognition of effort, 12) display of performance, 13) relevance of the lesson, 14) finished products, and 15) peer assessment. Most categories are based on the survey instruments used in studies led by Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) and Dörnyei and Csizér (1998).

A number of motivational strategies are adapted to fit the situated context of the L2 writing classroom. Most specifically, these strategies are redefined with reference to the L2 writing skill. For example, the items 'remind students of the factors that can contribute to success', 'teach students learning strategies', and 'give students the opportunity to display the final outcome in public' are respectively adapted to: 'raise

students' awareness of the factors that can contribute to successful English writing', 'teach English writing strategies (e.g., brainstorming, outlining)', and 'give students the opportunity to display good written productions in front of the class'.

3.1.2. Conducting the Classroom Observation

The classroom observation procedure extends over a period of 6 weeks, starting from early April up to mid-May 2016. A total of 36 observation sessions are conducted with the six EFL writing teachers taking part in the current study. Each session lasts 120 minutes and is scheduled in accordance with the starting time corresponding to the different writing classes. Permission for carrying out the observation is obtained from the head of department and the participating teachers.

In order to avoid biased results, the teachers know they are going to be observed, but the purpose of the observation is kept confidential and is revealed to them only after the observation phase is completed. During the observations, the researcher sits in a back corner of the classroom, whilst ensuring an unobstructed view of the teacher. The aim is to avoid any involuntary interference with the lesson and minimize the influence that may be occasioned by her presence on both the teachers' and the students' behaviour.

In order to record the frequency of the 39 motivational strategies included in the checklist, an event-sampling protocol is adopted, which requires a tally mark to be entered against a specific strategy each time it occurs. Event-sampling is an observational method of sampling data which is used when the focus is on the frequency of a set of pre-defined categories. Hence, in order to determine the

frequency of occurrence of each motivational strategy, event-sampling is selected as the most suitable recording procedure.

3.2. Questionnaire

Brown (2001) defines a questionnaire as "any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting them among existing answers" (p.6). This is to say that questionnaires consist of lists of closed-ended or/and open-ended items. Open-ended forms require the respondents to answer using their own words in order to express their opinions, attitudes, knowledge, experiences, etc. Conversely, closed-open items require the respondents to select a response from a set of alternative answers. The questionnaire used in the present study comprises closed-form items. The main advantages of this type of questionnaire is that data can be collected from a large number of people in a relatively short amount of time, and that the yielded results can easily be processed using computer software packages such as SPSS or EXECL.

3.2.1. Design of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire used in the present study is a three-part questionnaire. The aim of the first questionnaire is to obtain data on how important EFL teacher-trainees perceive the 39 motivational strategies included in the observation checklist. Part two of the questionnaire looks into how frequently EFL writing teachers use the same set of strategies, from the teacher-trainees' perspective. The last part is used to investigate the teacher-trainees' motivation in the EFL writing classroom.

The perception and the frequency questionnaires are designed in agreement with Dörnyei's (2003) recommendations, as stated in his book *"Questionnaire in Second Language Research: Construction, Administration, and Processing"*. According to him, constructing a good questionnaire requires researchers to take into consideration a number of aspects, encompassing:

- ***The general features of the questionnaire***: it has to do with aspects such as the length and the layout of the questionnaire. The items included in the current questionnaire are tabulated and numbered. The questionnaire contains five pages and takes 30 minutes to complete.

- ***The main parts of the questionnaire***: The questionnaire contains three sections, each given a title and provided with specific instructions. The general information section is provided at the end of the questionnaire to avoid confidentiality concerns among students. The students are required to enter their name, age, gender, EFL learning experience, pursued level of certification, and nationality. The students' name is necessary in order to relate the students' answers to the questionnaire to their writing achievement scores.

- ***The questionnaire items and multi-scales***: the questionnaire items represent a set of motivational strategies derived from Dörnyei's (2001) motivational strategy framework. The 39 strategies are grouped into 15 subcategories. A Likert scale is used to explore the spectrum of the students' perceptions of motivational strategies in terms of importance and frequency of use (as implemented by their teachers).

- ***The rules for writing the items:*** the questionnaire items are brief and worded using plain language. Some of them are supplemented with concrete examples in order to leave no room for misinterpretation or ambiguity.

- ***The pre-testing of the questionnaire through a pilot study***: the questionnaire goes through an initial piloting which helps us spot and sort out problems with ambiguous or confusing sentences. A final piloting is conducted in order to assess the internal consistency of the questionnaire and determine the length of time needed to complete it.

3.2.1.1. Part One: The Perception Questionnaire

The first part of the questionnaire is used to find out about how important EFL teacher-trainees consider motivational strategies in the EFL writing classroom. More particularly, the motivational strategies included in the checklist are converted into 39 closed-ended items and rated by the students in terms of their perceived importance in the EFL writing classroom. The numerical scale used requires students to enter a number from 1 to 5, each corresponding to a different response (not important at all=1, not important=2, moderately important=3, important=4, very important=5).

3.2.1.2. Part Two: The Frequency Questionnaire

The second part of the questionnaire is used to gather information about how frequently EFL teachers use the same set of motivational strategies based on their students' answers. A five-point scale is used to measure the frequency of use of each strategy, ranging from never=1 to very frequently=5. The reasons for administering the second questionnaire to students rather than teachers are twofold. First, it helps in

obtaining a more faithful picture of their teachers' strategy use and avoiding the biased results that may have been generated by the teachers' answers to the questionnaire. This kind of measurement error, known as the social desirability bias, occurs when the participants (teachers) provide answers that do not reflect their actual attitude or behaviour (motivational strategy use) in an attempt to project a positive image of themselves. In King and Brunner's (2000, p.80) terms, the social desirability bias is "the pervasive tendency of individuals to present themselves in the most favourable manner relative to prevailing social norms and mores". According to them, it is one of the most invasive sources of bias affecting the validity of experimental and survey research findings in psychology and the human sciences, adding that it is the researcher's responsibility to identify the situations that involve bias in responses and use the most appropriate alternative. Secondly, research carried out by Bernaus and Gardner (2008), exploring the relationship between EFL teachers' motivational strategies to their EFL students' motivation and achievement, documented no relation between language achievement and motivational strategy use when reported by the teachers but did find a relation when reported by the students. This is in line with King and Brunner's (2000) view, according to which socially desirable responses in self-report data can induce false correlations between variables and, in some cases, the suppression or moderation of relationships between the variables under study. Because the current study uses regression analysis (research questions 3 and 4), which is based on correlation, the frequency of use of motivational strategies is measured on the basis of what the students consider to be the most frequent strategies

3.2.1.3. Part Three: The Writing Motivation Questionnaire

The third part is used to gather data on the teacher-trainees' motivation in the writing classroom. The questionnaire is largely based on the student motivational state questionnaire used in Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2008) South-Korean large-scale study, exploring the effects of motivational strategies on EFL students' motivation. Although a number of questionnaires have been developed in an attempt to measure students' level of motivation (e.g., Clement et al., 1994; Taguchi et al., 2009), Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2008) questionnaire is designed to investigate situation-specific motivation and is, therefore, the most suitable tool for measuring the teacher-trainees' motivation in the writing course. Some minor modifications are brought to the original questionnaire and consist mainly in rephrasing the twenty items with reference to the 'writing course' instead of the 'English lessons'. Besides, the six-point Likert scale used to rate the original questionnaire items is abandoned in favour of a three-point scale allowing the students to express the extent to with they identify themselves with the twenty statements. Scale anchors are untrue of me= 1, occasionally true of me= 2, true of me= 3. This scale is selected in order to parallel the three-point scale used to measure the level of match between the use of motivational strategies as implemented by teachers and the importance attached to them by the teacher-trainees. The questionnaire is divided into three categories: 1) attitudes toward the course (9 items), 2) linguistic self-confidence (8 items), and 3) L2 classroom anxiety (3items).

3.2.2. Administration of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire is handed to twenty (20) students in each class, for a total of 120 students. It is administered the second week of April (2015/2016 academic year). The administration of the questionnaire is carried out in five different stages:

1. ***Selecting the sample***: the sample is selected using stratified random sampling. Stratified random sampling is a combination of random and quota sampling which requires the researcher to identify sub-groups in the general population and then proceed to a random selection of the participants within each stratum according to the existing proportions. The sample of the present research is divided into two distinct groups: males and females. The female-male ratio is 85%-15%, knowing that each class size varies from 40 to 60 students, among which there are from 4 to 6 male students. In order for the sample to reflect the actual proportions of each sub-group, it is decided to include 18 male students and 102 female students.

2. ***Informing the participating students of the forthcoming administration***: the students are given notice of the questionnaire one week prior to its administration. The general purpose of the questionnaire is explained and the students are assured confidentiality. Some questions regarding the questionnaire are asked, which the researcher answers while ensuring that every student understands the general procedure.

3. ***Obtaining the cooperation and consent of teachers***: Dörnyei (2007) rightly argues that quite often researchers collect information in someone's 'home

ground'. The questionnaire is intended to take place during the last 30 minutes of class time; therefore, an important step is to obtain the teachers' consent. Permission to administer the questionnaire is given by all the teacher participants.

4. ***Explaining the purpose and significance of the study and re-emphasizing confidentiality***: on the day of the administration, the aim of the study is explained as clearly as possible, and the students' attention is drawn to its importance in generating pedagogical recommendations that would help us improve the motivational practices of EFL writing teachers and enhance the learning experience of EFL teacher-trainees. The students are also reassured of complete confidentiality. Considering the nature of the questionnaire, this step is particularly crucial in maximizing its potential to elicit accurate information about the teachers' motivational strategy use, the students' perceptions, and their motivation in the writing classroom.

5. ***Giving instructions about how to fill in the questionnaire***: the questionnaire is provided with clear, explicit instructions; however, it was felt necessary to re-explain orally every step required to complete it given that most students were responding to a questionnaire for the first time. Each questionnaire is personally handed to the researcher, who makes sure that no question has gone unanswered. The students are eventually thanked for their time and cooperation.

3.3. Follow-up Interviews

Interviews are conversations that involve asking and getting answers from an individual or a group of people and are, in this respect, very similar to questionnaires. However, interviews are regarded as instrumentally more flexible than questionnaires in that they give researchers the opportunity to probe the respondents for further information or disentangle any ambiguity that may arise in understanding the questions. Three types of interviews are generally distinguished: structured, unstructured, and semi-structured. A structured interview, usually equated with a verbal questionnaire, involves a set of pre-determined questions that are asked to participants using the same wording an order. Contrarily, unstructured interviews do not rely on pre-defined questions, although a general plan is set before the interview is conducted. A semi-structured interview involves prearranged questions, which the interviewer can follow up with additional questions in order to obtain clarification or elicit further information as well as change the order and the wording of the questions used with each respondent. Semi-structured interviews are suitable when the focus is on obtaining in-depth information about a specific topic.

3.3.1. Design of the Follow-up Interviews

The questions used in the follow-up interviews are formulated bearing in mind the research questions guiding the current study. The aim is to shed light on the motivational practices of EFL writing teachers and gain insight into the teacher-trainees' perceptions of motivational teaching strategies.

The questions included in the focus group and teacher interviews are designed taking into consideration five general guidelines for writing survey questions:

- *Ask simple questions:* Interview questions should address one topic at a time. Questions combining two ideas (double barrelled questions) are likely to cause the respondents to become confused. Confusion may also arise from the inability to know which part of the question is being answered. To avoid this problem, the interview questions revolving around the same issue are divided into closed-ended questions followed by open-ended questions.

- *Use simple language:* interview questions should be characterised by grammatical and lexical simplicity. The questions should not include technical terms, acronyms, abbreviations, slang, or any other linguistic form that can create difficulties in understanding the questions.

- *Ask neutral questions:* interview questions should not influence the respondent to answer in a certain way. The most obvious reason why leading questions should be avoided is that they are quite susceptible to yield inaccurate answers. Examples of leading questions start with formula such as 'I suppose you.........?'or 'don't you think that.......?'

- *Avoid loaded words:* Interviewers should avoid using emotionally charged words. Questions involving emotive language may cause the respondent's emotions to interfere with the answer, leading to biased results. Examples of loaded words include peace, justice, and abortion.

- *Move from the general/easiest to the specific/most difficult:* it is generally recommended to arrange the interview questions starting from the general to the specific. This would enable the interviewer to build on their respondents answers and ask for specific details or examples. It also ensures the logical

flow of ideas. Alternatively, questions can be arranged from the easiest to the most difficult. This helps the interviewee gain confidence and makes him more talkative for later questions.

3.3.1.1. Teacher Interview

The one-to-one interview requires the interviewer to record responses emanating from one single interviewee. During the one-to-one interview conducted in the present study, the teachers are asked 4 closed-ended questions and 5 open-ended questions (4 follow-up questions). Two questions require the teachers to respond with reference to a total of 14 motivational strategies. Questions 1 and 4 seek to confirm the frequency of use of motivational strategies as implemented by the 6 participating teachers (the most and least frequently used strategies). They are also asked about the reasons underpinning their motivational strategy practices. This question is based on the idea that classroom motivational strategies do not happen in a vacuum but are inevitably bound to concomitant contextual factors that determine how and why motivational strategies are used. Question 2 and 3 enquire into whether the teachers think their motivational teaching practices affect their students' writing motivation and achievement. The corresponding follow-up questions aim to determine the factors (if any) that have a crippling impact on their motivational practices. Finally, question 5 invites the teacher interviewees to add anything to what they have already mentioned. Closing questions are used to get valuable information that could not be elicited earlier during an interview. Dörnyei (2007) points out the importance of closing questions, as emphasized in the literature, in disclosing important information on the topic under investigation.

3.3.1.2. Focus Group Interview

A focus group interview involves a group of people made up of four to six individuals with similar background in a discussion revolving around a specific topic (Wellington, 2015). During the group interview, the participants are given the opportunity to listen and share each other's responses. The interaction among the participants can lead to a rich discussion, which is commonly believed to help achieve a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon under study. Wellington (2015) explains that when brought together in a suitable environment, the members of the group 'spark each other off', generating an insightful discussion that adds value to qualitative interview studies. The role of the interviewer is particularly important in group interviews and consists mainly in moderating and facilitating the group discussion in addition to encouraging the contribution of all the participants.

The students participating in the focus group interview are asked 3 closed-ended questions, and 4 open-ended questions (3 follow-up questions). One question requires the students to answer with reference to a list of 13 motivational strategies. Question 1 and 2 are designed to generate information on how effective EFL teachers' motivational practices are in fostering their teacher-trainees' writing motivation and achievement. The corresponding follow-up questions are designed to identify potential factors hindering the effectiveness of teachers' motivational practices, as perceived by the teacher-trainees. Question 3 is used to confirm the students' perceptions of the motivational strategies that are found (phase I) to be underused relative to the importance attached to them and elucidate the reasons why they are

deemed important. The interview does not include the motivational strategies that are overused relative to their importance for two main reasons:

1. Overuse entails the teachers' familiarity with the motivational strategies involved and can, therefore, not be used to generate practical guidance,

2. Underutilisation of motivational strategies relative to their perceived importance is likely to have a more detrimental effect on the teacher-trainees' motivation and achievement.

Finally, question 4 is a closing question that brings the interview to an end.

3.3.2. Conducting the Follow-up Interviews

Prior to the administration of the interviews, a review of the literature of interviewing techniques in education enables the identification of a few guiding principles, which are later adopted in order to ensure that the interviews are properly conducted.

- ***Establish a rapport with the interviewees:*** Cohen et al. (2005, p.279) assert that 'it is crucial to keep uppermost in one's mind the fact that the interview is a social, interpersonal encounter, not merely a data collection exercise'. Establishing rapport with the interviewee is usually achieved by stating the purpose of the interview, providing assurance of confidentiality, explaining what will happen to the interview data, and making small talk before starting the interview in order to create a non-threatening atmosphere.

- ***Be an active listener:*** active listening is considered a key component of successful interviewing. Active listening involves carefully listening to the interviewee while evaluating what is being said and ensuring that the

discussion flows naturally. Active listeners use strategies such as asking clarification questions, using probes to obtain additional information, using facial and bodily expressions to show interest in the interviewees' responses, such as smiling and leaning slightly forward, and maintaining the interviewer's attention through the use of introductory statements and transition announcements (e.g., The next questions is about a very important topic…).

- *Strive for neutrality:* a non-judgmental, neutral stance should characterise the interviewer's attitude. Personal opinions (e.g., I do agree), nodding, or any other facial or bodily expression that reflect what the interviewer thinks can have a biasing effect on the interviewee's responses.

- ***Recapitulate the main points of the discussion and thank the interviewee:*** Recapitulating the central points of the interview is an important step because it helps the interviewer check the accuracy of the information gathered and give the interviewee the opportunity to rectify any information found to be incorrect or add further comments. Thanks and gratitude should be re-expressed at the end of the interview.

3.3.2.1. Teacher Interview

The teacher interview takes place during the second term examination period in a vacant classroom at the teacher training college of Bouzareah in Algiers. It is important to choose a physical setting that is both familiar and convenient to the participants. Hence, the teachers' immediate work environment is considered the most suitable location for conducting the interviews. The interview sessions are

scheduled on different days, depending on the availability of the teachers and the classrooms. Moreover, the timing of each interview is planned to coincide with the examination sessions. The objective is to avoid any background noise occasioned by the students gathering in the college yard.

The interview starts with an informal chat about the examinations. Next, the teachers are introduced to the objectives of the study and assured confidentiality. The collegial relationship between the researcher and the teacher interviewees helps create a favourable atmosphere and is expected to encourage the participants to speak their minds and disclose information that may not be elicited by a stranger. The interviews are audio recorded and last from 40 to 50 minutes.

3.3.2.2. Focus Group Interview

The focus group interview is conducted during the second term examination period with self-selected students who have already completed the questionnaire. 3 male students are personally approached by the researcher and asked to participate in the interview to preserve the representative character of the sample with respect to gender. The students are invited to volunteer because many of them are reluctant to take part in the interview. Some of them show concern over not being able to express themselves fluently in English. While this may raise issues of representativeness, Creswell (2012) explains that volunteers are likely to provide useful information for the research. Actually, self-selection sampling provides the opportunity of including the students who are really committed to take part in the interview, which implies a stronger interest in the study, less absenteeism, and a greater willingness to provide insight into the current research questions.

29 students are intended to take part in the interviews, but only 26 students turn up. Four parallel group interviews are run. Knowing that a focus group usually involves from 6 to 10 participants, it is decided to include from 6 to 7 students in each focus group. It is generally recommended to conduct multiple focus groups, involving from 4 to 5 groups as a minimum, in order to gather in-depth information and minimize the idiosyncratic effect that may result from unexpected internal or external factors affecting the dynamics of the group (Dörnyei, 2007). The four interview sessions take place in a vacant classroom at the teacher training college of Bouzareah. Before starting the interview, the students are seated in a circular arrangement in order to give the opportunity to students to interact face to face. Next, they are given a set of instructions in order to ensure than the interview runs smoothly (see Chapter 6, section 1). The focus group interviews start with a brief overview of the research objectives. The focus group interviews are recorded using a digital voice recorder and last about 45-55 minutes each.

3.4. Scoring Rubric

To gather data on the teacher-trainees' writing achievement, the current study evaluates their written responses to an achievement test. A test is an instrument that is designed to measure learners' level of attainment against pre-established criteria. Heaton (1975) classifies tests according to the type of information they provide: a) *achievement test*: indicates the extent to which the learner has mastered the course objectives, b) *proficiency test*: evaluates the linguistic skills of learners who received no prior training, c) *diagnostic test*: measures students' linguistic skills in particular

areas before starting a course of study, and d) *placement tests*: sort students into groups so that they are nearly at the same level before starting a course of study.

Their writing achievement is actually evaluated on the basis of their examination (achievement test) papers. The teacher-trainees taking part in the study are required to choose a topic from among a set (4-6) of pre-defined topics and develop an essay or a paragraph, depending on the grade level. An alternative to grading students' exam papers consists in administering a writing test during class time. However, this option is ruled out because it would increase the risk of students not taking seriously the writing task, which would lead some of them to demonstrate less than their full potential. This possibility is believed to overweigh the risk associated with exam anxiety.

The students' exam papers are photocopied shortly after the writing examination session before being returned to the teachers in charge of the module. In order to enhance the reliability and validity of the scores attributed to the students' written production, the present study employs a slightly modified version of Weir's (1990) Test English for Educational Purposes (TEEP). Weir's (1990) rating scale is an analytic scoring rubric which has been extensively piloted and revised to render its application reliable (Weigle, 2002). The choice of using an analytic scoring rubric, as alternative to holistic scoring rubric, is grounded in the following justifications:

1. The familiarity of the researcher with the analytic scoring procedure, as part of her regular teaching practice.

2. The superiority of analytic scoring over holistic scoring in terms of validity in the L2 writing context (see Chapter 3, section 4.3)

Weir's (1990) rating scale consists of 7 rating criteria, each described in terms of four levels of performance. Each level is assigned a score ranging from 0 to 3 points. The criteria included in the TEEP scale are based on large-scale survey findings, which suggested relevance and adequacy, compositional organization, cohesion, referential adequacy, grammatical accuracy, spelling and punctuation as the most appropriate for assessing students' written production. Minor changes are brought to the original version of the scale, consisting mainly in redefining the compositional organization rubric in terms of essay/paragraph components. The objective of the first-and the second-year writing courses is to equip students with the basic skills related to academic paragraph and essay writing, respectively. The following table illustrates the adjustments that are made to weir's (1990) scale in order to evaluate first- and second-year students' paragraphs and essays.

Compositional Organization (Original Version)	Compositional Organization (Modified Version)
No apparent organization of content	No apparent organization of content in terms of paragraph/essay components.
Very little organization of content. Underlying structure not sufficiently controlled.	Very little organization of content in terms of paragraph/essay components.
Some organizational skills in evidence, but not adequately controlled.	A moderately good organization of content in terms of paragraph/essay components.
Overall shape and internal pattern clear. Organizational skills adequately controlled.	A good organization of content in terms of paragraph/essay components.

Table 4.3 Main Adjustments Made to Weir's (1990) Analytic Scoring Rubric

4. Data Analysis

4.1. Quantitative Data Analysis

Research question N°1:

How often do EFL writing teachers use motivational strategies?

Sub-questions:

- *What motivational strategies do EFL writing teachers use the most frequently?*

- *What motivational strategies do EFL writing teachers use the least frequently?*

In order to answer the first research question, qualitative data is derived from the observation checklist and the students' questionnaire (frequency questionnaire).

The frequency of classroom motivational strategies as implemented by the teachers and evidenced by the observation is calculated using a relative frequency distribution of data. Relative frequency distribution lists the frequency of each category compared to the total frequencies of all the categories. In other terms, it shows the proportion or fraction of one occurrence relative to all occurrences. The equation for calculating relative frequency is:

$$\text{Relative frequency } (f/n) = \text{frequency } (f) \text{ /sum of all frequencies (n)}$$

The tally marks corresponding to every motivational strategy in the 36 observation checklists are summed and converted into numerical values. Their relative frequency distribution is computed and the decimal scores are multiplied by 100 in order to obtain a percentage value.

The relative frequency score of the various scales represents the sum of the relative frequency scores obtained by the microstrategies subsumed under each scale, known as cumulative relative frequency.

The frequency of motivational strategies as implemented by the teachers and reported by the teacher-trainees is computed using frequency distribution of the variables. This is achieved by measuring the difference between the mean frequency of each strategy and the mean frequency of all the strategies. This will show the extent to which the use of a specific strategy is below or above the average frequency of strategy use and enable us to draw comparison with the results obtained from the analysis of the observation checklists.

Research question N° 2

Does the use of motivational strategies as implemented by EFL writing teachers match to the relative importance attached to them by their teacher-trainees? If not, what are the most important areas of mismatch?

In line with Cheng and Dörnyei's (2007) recommendations, this question is investigated through calculating the difference of the importance z-score and the frequency z-score of each scale and microstrategy. The z-score represents the number of standard deviations a data point is from the mean and can be calculated using the formula $z = (X - \mu) / \sigma$, where X stands for the value of the element, μ for the population mean, and σ for the standard deviation. The obtained score can be positive or negative. A positive score shows that value X is to the right of the mean and indicates that the corresponding motivational strategies are overused relative to their

perceived importance. Conversely, a negative score means that value Yis to the left of the mean, and indicates that the corresponding motivational strategies are underused relative to their perceived importance.

Research question N° 3 and 4

-Does the level of match between the use of motivational strategies and the relative importance attached to them affect the teacher-trainees' writing motivation?
-Does the level of match between the use of motivational strategies and the relative importance attached to them affect the teacher-trainees' writing achievement?

In order to answer the aforementioned questions, the first step is to determine the level of correspondence between the frequency of use of classroom motivational strategies and the relative importance attached to them. To achieve this objective, the response options used in the students' frequency and importance questionnaires are merged into three parallel categories:

1. **Frequency:** very frequently/frequently=high frequency, sometimes=moderate frequency, rarely/never=low frequency.

2. **Importance:** Very important/important=high importance, so-so=moderate importance, not important/not important at all=low importance.

Not doing so would result in intricate associations, which would complicate to a great extent the task of identifying the different levels of match. Table 4.4 describes the categories and the numerical values used to code each categorical response.

	High Importance	Moderate Importance	Low Importance
High Frequency	3	2	1
Moderate Frequency	2	3	2
Low Frequency	1	2	3

Table 4.4. New Categories and Corresponding Codes

Finally, regression analyses are run in order to determine the effect of the level of match between the use of motivational strategies and their perceived importance on the teacher-trainees' writing motivation and achievement.

A regression analysis in statistics is about the relationship between a predictor variable (or an independent variable) and a dependent variable, usually expressed as a linear model. The value of the dependent variable is equal to the weighted value of the independent variable plus a constant. In terms of the regression toward the mean, it can be said that the higher the correlation between the predictor variable and the dependent variable, the less the regression toward the mean, but unless the correlation is perfectly reliable, the expected value of the dependent variable is always somewhere between its predicted value and its mean. The regression line or line of best fit expresses the strength of association or correlation between the scattered values (the y values and the x values): closer to the regression line (high correlation) or dispersed (low correlation).

Quantitative data is analysed using the SPSS package. Tables and scatter plots are used to present the results.

4.2. Qualitative Data Analysis

Qualitative data analysis of the student and the teacher interviews is conducted in five major steps:

- **Step one:** The interviews are transcribed in a word processor (Microsoft Word) and classified into electronic files, each corresponding to a different interview question (closed-ended/follow-up questions).

- **Step two:** A preliminary Analysis (pre-coding) of the transcripts is carried out. It consists in reading the transcripts in order to obtain an overall idea of the content. During this stage, analytical memos are used in order to help develop a structured reflection on students' answers.

- **Step three:** Following a close examination of the transcripts, the content is coded into descriptive categories and sub-categories. Marginal remarks are used in order to facilitate the analytical procedure.

- **Step four**: categories and subcategories are combined into major and minor themes, which represent the major insights that are drawn from the analysis.

- **Step five:** the findings drawn from the interviews are used to shed light on the motivational teaching practices of the participating teachers and their teacher-trainees' perceptions of motivational teaching strategies.

Conclusion

The chapter discusses the research methodology used to conduct the current research. Most specifically, the chapter includes a description of the sample, the research method and design of the study, the research instruments, and the steps

involved in designing and administering the research tools. It concludes with the quantitative and qualitative data analysis techniques used in describing and interpreting the research findings.

CHAPTER FIVE:

PHASE I
QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS
AND INTERPRETATION

Introduction

The quantitative chapter addresses the four questions guiding the current research. The answers to these questions will help us meet the following research objectives:

1. To determine the frequency of use of motivational strategies as implemented by EFL writing teachers.

The focus is placed on:

    1.1.   The motivational strategies that are used the most frequently.

    1.2.   The motivational strategies that are used the least frequently.

2. To determine whether the use of motivational strategies as implemented by EFL writing teachers matches the relative importance attached to them by their teacher-trainees and identify the most important areas of mismatch, if any.

3. To determine whether the level of match between the use of motivational strategies and the importance attached to them affects the teacher-trainees' writing motivation.

4. To determine whether the level of match between the use of motivational strategies and the importance attached to them affects the teacher-trainees' writing achievement.

In order to meet the aforementioned objectives, the analysis and interpretation of data gathered on the basis of a structured classroom observation, a three-part questionnaire, and students' examination papers (using a slightly modified version of Weir's (1990) analytic scoring rubric) are conducted. In order to ensure the reliability

of the results, the observation checklist and the three-part questionnaire are piloted prior to the main study.

1. The Pilot Study

In research methodology, pilot testing is regarded as an essential step in determining the feasibility and suitability of the research instruments, and identifying the aspects that need to be improved, such as the wording, the layout, the scoring procedure, etc.

1.1. The Observation Checklist

The pilot study of the observation checklist takes place during the first week of March before the main study and spreads out over two observation sessions. The first session, which lasts two hours, provides the researcher with the opportunity to get familiar with the observational procedure. This step is particularly important given the number of motivational strategies that have to be observed and recorded. The observation is video-recorded (using a smartphone) in order to establish intra-rater reliability. The second observation session is conducted in order to test the inter-rater reliability of the observation checklist. According to Cohen et al, (2000), researchers using structured observation that yields quantitative data should consider testing both inter-rater and intra-rater reliability.

1.1.1. Intra-rater Reliability

Intra-rater reliability refers the extent to which the same observer is consistent in assigning the same score to the same variables. High intra-rater agreement indicates that the observed aspect is stable and that the rater has clearly understood what he is

intended to observe (Perry, 2005). Intra-rater reliability is generally achieved by measuring a test at two different times by the same rater. In the present context, the teacher's behaviour is measured in real time and subsequently on the basis of the video recorded with the researcher's personal smartphone. Intra-rater agreement is then calculated using the formula:

(Number of times the same observer agrees/Total number of observations) X 100

Intra-rater agreement is established at 92%, which is a fairly high level of intra-rater reliability.

1.1.2. Inter-rater Reliability

Inter-rater reliability is the extent to which two different raters assign the same score to the same categories or variables. When conducting observations, inter-rater reliability is crucial in determining whether the items in the research are correct representations of the behaviours measured. In the present study, both the researcher (first rater) and a doctoral candidate colleague (second rater) observe the teacher behaviour during 120 minutes. The second rater is given a one-hour time slot at the beginning of the observation in order to make her familiar with the observational process. During the following hour, the two raters sit in opposite corners and record their observations independently.

Inter-rate agreement is measured using the percentage agreement formula:

(Number of times the different observers agree/total number of observations) X 100

The raters achieve an overall agreement of 79%. According to Mackey and Gass (2005), there are no general guidelines in the field of second language research as to what represents an acceptable level of inter-rater reliability; however, they suggest that percentages above 75% may be considered good.

1.2. The Questionnaire

It is important that the pilot study be conducted with individuals similar to the participants taking part in the main study (Dörnyei, 2007). In the current context of research, the student participants are first- and second-year students. Therefore, the questionnaire is pre-tested with the researcher's second-year students, studying at the same teacher training college as the target sample of the pilot study. This choice is also based on the belief that the familiarity of the researcher with the students might predispose students to say more about the questionnaire. The pilot of the questionnaire is conducted in two distinct stages: initial piloting and final piloting.

1.2.1. Initial Piloting: Revising the Questionnaire

The objective of the initial piloting is to bring corrections or refinement to the questionnaire items based on the students' feedback on the clarity of the language and the directions, the appropriateness of scales, and the general appearance of the layout. While it is common practice to ask students to mark unnecessary questions or to think about any other additional items, this step is deliberately overlooked. This is because the items included in the list have all been documented in the literature on motivation, in both psychology and second language acquisition, as potentially effective techniques in fostering learners' motivation.

The first pilot session takes place the first week of March during the last 50 minutes of class time. Ten students are chosen to examine the three-part questionnaire and spot the problematic areas. The initial piloting uncovers difficulties encountered in understanding the vocabulary and the sentence structures involved in the first two questionnaires. No particular problems are reported regarding the scales and the layout. Table 5.1 displays the initial and revised wording of the questionnaire items.

Initial Wording	Revised Wording
• *Encourage students to set learning goals.*	• *Encourage students to select learning objectives and work toward them (e.g., writing good topic sentences).*
• *Set completion deadlines when giving tasks.*	• *Mention the latest time/date by which the task should be completed.*
• *Monitor students' progress when they work on task.*	• *Walk around the class to check on students' progress while on task.*
• *Engage students in peer assessment.*	• *Have students correct their classmate's written production.*
• *Have students self-assess their written production.*	• *Have students correct their own written production.*
• *Raise students' awareness of self-motivating strategies.*	• *Raise students' awareness of the strategies they can use to motivate themselves (e.g., self-encouragement).*

Table 5.1 Initial and Revised Wording of the Questionnaire Items

1.2.2. Final Piloting: Assessing the Internal Consistency of the Questionnaire

During the second pilot session, held one week after the first pilot session, the revised version of the questionnaire is administered to 50 students. The main objective is to measure the internal consistency of the questionnaire. Internal

consistency refers to the extent to which different items on the various subscales of a questionnaire measure the same construct. Dörnyei (2007) makes it clear that researchers can feel fairly 'safe' if the subscales making up their questionnaires demonstrate adequate internal consistency. In the context of our research, only the perception questionnaire is subjected to reliability analysis. The frequency questionnaire includes the same set of strategies and is not a self-report questionnaire.

The motivation questionnaire, on other hand, has already been assessed for internal consistency and used in Guilloteaux and Dörnyei's (2007) study.

The following table displays the results of the Cronbach's alpha analysis. Three questionnaires with missing answers are discarded from the analysis.

Scales	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Alpha if Item Deleted
Group Cohesiveness	3	α= 0.68	
Classroom Climate	3	α= 0.62	
Self-confidence	3	α= 0.60	
Interest	5	α= 0.43	α= 0.76 (Relate the subject matter to the everyday experiences of the students)
Goal-orientedness	6	α= 0.83	
Task	3	α= 0.54	α= 0.63 (Include tasks that require students to write finished paragraphs/ essays).

Table 5.2 (continued)

L2-related Values	4	α= 0.74	
Evaluation	5	α= 0.51	α= 0.80 (Have students read and correct their classmate's written production)
Teacher behaviour	3	α= 0.67	
Autonomy	3	α= 0.70	
Recognition of Effort	3	α= 0.58	α=0.71 (Give students the opportunity to display good written paragraphs/essays in front of the class.)

Table 5.2 Internal Reliability of the Perception Questionnaire

For a scale to be internally consistent, many specialists require a minimum reliability threshold of 0.7. However, Cortina (1994; cited in Larson-Hall, 2010) notes that interpretation of Cronbach's alpha coefficient depends to a large extent on the number of items included in the scale. Dörnyei (2003b) explains that alpha coefficients lower than 0.7 are to be expected with short scales because the wording of individual items can have a greater impact on the results than with scales of 20 items or more. He adds that Cronbach's Alpha falling lower than 0.6 should raise concerns about the internal consistency of the scale. On the basis of these observations, it is reasonable, then, to assume that scales 1, 2, 3, and 9 (α= 0.6-0.67) as well as scale 6 (α= 0.63) after the item is deleted achieve acceptable reliability. Scales 5, 7, and 10 as well as scales 4, 8, and 11 after the items are deleted achieve a fairly good reliability coefficient, ranging from 0.7 to 0.83.

Following the reliability analysis, the items which reduce the internal consistency of the scale are deleted (see Appendix B) and reintroduced as one-item scales as shown in table 5.3.

Initial Scales	New Scales	Number of Items
Interest	Task-related Interest	2
	Relevance of the lesson	1
Task	Proper presentation of the task	2
	Finished products	1
Evaluation	Evaluation	3
	Peer assessment	1
Recognition of Effort	Recognition of effort	2
	Public display of performance	1

Table 5.3 Reconstruction of Low Alpha Coefficient Scales After Reliability Testing

The final piloting is also conducted in order determine the amount of time required to complete the questionnaire. It took approximately 25 minutes for the pilot sample to fill out the questionnaire.

2. Main Study

2.1. Research Question N°1: Analysis and Interpretation

'How often do EFL writing teachers use motivational strategies?'

The first research question is divided into two subquestions:

- *What motivational strategies do EFL writing teachers use the most frequently?*

- *What motivational strategies do EFL writing teachers use the least frequently?*

In order to answer these questions, a parallel convergent approach is adopted. A closed-ended questionnaire (frequency questionnaire) including a list of motivational

strategies is administered to EFL teacher-trainees. In order to obtain confirmation of the results and enhance the robustness of the evidence, these are compared to the findings derived from the classroom observation checklist.

2.1.1. Analysis and Interpretation of Data Obtained from the Observation Checklist

Table 5.4 describes the data obtained across the 36 observation sessions in terms of the relative frequency of motivational strategies.

N°	L2 Motivational Strategies and Scales	Relative Frequency (%)
1.	Encourage students to share academic knowledge.	0.2
2.	Involve small group competition games.	00
3.	Use pair/group work.	3.2
	Group Cohesiveness	**3.4**
4.	Use humor in the classroom.	3.8
5.	Encourage risk taking in the classroom.	2.6
6.	Use an interesting opening activity to start each class.	0.2
	Classroom Climate	**6.6**
7.	Teach English writing strategies.	2.6
8.	Draw students' awareness of their strengths and abilities.	1.2
9.	Explain to students that they are able to succeed if they work hard.	2.2
	Self-Confidence	**6**
10.	Include challenging tasks.	0.2
11.	Include tasks that incorporate creative elements.	0.4
12.	Vary the learning tasks.	1.4
13.	Include tasks that allow students to express their opinions/feelings/Experiences.	0.6
	Task-related interest	**2.6**
14.	State the lesson objectives or review progress made toward achieving the lesson objectives.	5.2
15.	Draw students' attention to the activities that can help them make progress.	0.8
16.	Raise students' awareness of the factors that can contribute to successful English writing.	4.2
17.	Mention the latest time/date by which the task should be completed.	5.4
18.	Encourage students to select learning goals and work toward them.	0.4
19.	Walk around the class to check on students' progress while on task.	5
	Goal-orientedness	**21**
20.	State the purpose or utility of the task.	4.8
21.	Give clear instructions about how to carry out the task.	7.6
	Proper Presentation of the Task	**12.4**
22.	Remind students of the benefits of successful English writing.	0.2
23.	Use authentic texts.	1.8
24.	Encourage students to explore the British/American culture.	0.2
	L2-related Values	**2.2**

Table 5.4 (continued)

No.	Strategy	Value
25.	Have students correct their own written production.	0.2
26.	Check students' understanding of previously covered material through questioning, assigning homework, etc.	5.2
27.	Provide students with feedback about their progress.	0.2
	Evaluation	**5.6**
28.	Share personal interest in the English writing skill with the students.	0.8
29.	Show availability to help students with all things academic.	1.6
30.	Assist students when they work on task.	4.8
	Teacher Behaviour	**7.2**
31.	Involve the students in preparing and presenting the course.	00
32.	Allow learners to make choices about aspects of their learning.	1.8
33.	Raise students' awareness of the strategies they can use to motivate themselves.	00
	Autonomy	**1.8**
34.	Offer rewards for successful accomplishments/progress.	00
35.	Offer praise for effort or successful achievement.	7.2
	Recognition of Effort	**7.2**
36.	Give students the opportunity to display good written productions in front of the class.	**5.6**
	Display of Performance	
37.	Relate the lesson to the everyday experiences of the students.	**5.8**
	Relevance of the Lesson	
38.	Include tasks that require students to write finished paragraphs/essays or constituent parts.	**9.2**
	Finished Products	
39.	Have students correct their classmate's written production.	**3.4**
	Peer Assessment	

Table 5.4 Relative Frequency of L2 Motivational Strategies Calculated on the Basis of the Observation Checklist

2.1.1.1. Most Frequently Used Motivational Strategies

Analysis of table 5.4 indicates that the strategies scoring the highest percentage values are, in ascending order, *'proper presentation of the task'* (12.4%) and *'goal-orientedeness'* (21%), suggesting that these are the most frequently implemented strategies among EFL writing teachers. Analysis at the microstrategy level is presented below. Interpretation of the relative frequency scores obtained by the different microstrategies is performed on the basis of the lowest (00%) and highest values (9.2%).

2.1.1.1.1. Proper Presentation of the Task

The microstrategy 'give clear instructions about how to carry out the task' has a relatively high occurrence rate (7.6%). Also, it contributes largely to inflating the relative frequency distribution of the scale. The teachers' instructions relating to the learning tasks are most of the time formulated using clear and structurally simple language. Even when the tasks are part of pre-defined activities provided in ESL/EFL writing textbooks, it is not unusual for the teachers to go back over the instruction and explain it using paraphrases. Some of the participating teachers are in the habit of sparing a few seconds to make additional remarks and ensure that the instruction is fully explicit, regardless of task difficulty. The microstrategy 'state the purpose or utility of the task' is used either frequently or not at all. Actually, it is exclusively implemented by first-year EFL writing teachers, which explains its moderate relative frequency score (4.8%).

2.1.1.1.2. Goal-orientedness

A closer examination of the results shows that a number of microstratgies are responsible for the high frequency distribution of the scale, including 'state the lesson objectives or review progress made toward achieving the lesson objectives' (5.2%), 'mention the latest time/date by which the task should be completed (5.4%), and 'walk around the class to check on students' progress while on task' (5%). In the present context of instruction, 'state the lesson objectives or review progress made toward achieving the lesson objectives' is implemented on a regular basis. Two out of the six EFL teachers use lesson planners to write the lesson objectives on the board. The remaining teachers list them orally. The objectives are described either at beginning of the writing session or at any given moment to mark the beginning of a new lesson. Furthermore, the teachers often stop instruction midstream to summarize the main ideas that have just been dealt with before proceeding through the lesson. 'Mention the latest time/date by which the task should be completed' is utilised virtually every time a task is assigned to students and is applied to both in-class and homework tasks. 'Walk around the class to check on students' progress while on task' is common practice among the six EFL writing teachers. This strategy is implemented invariably both during individual and group work.

Three microstrategies appear to have a low to moderate relative rate of occurrence. With a relative frequency of 0.8%, 'draw students' attention to the activities that can help them make progress' is not implemented systematically but only in relation some specific topics (e.g., coherence and cohesion, complex sentence structures, vocabulary), depending on the teacher. This is mainly done through suggesting

activity books that contain appropriate learning activities or a set of activity types. 'Raise students' awareness of the factors that can contribute to successful English writing' is employed by the six teachers with a relatively moderate frequency (4.2%). Focus is largely put on the linguistic dimension of paragraph/essay writing, the importance of practicing writing outside the classroom context, and the necessity for using writing strategies in general and pre-writing strategies in particular (brainstorming and outlining). Finally, the motivational strategy 'encourage students to select learning goals and work toward them' is observed only twice and implemented by the same teacher. The strategy is executed in very general terms that stress the benefits of setting objectives in helping students develop focused attitudes toward learning. Of all the strategies subsumed under 'goal-orientedness', this strategy is the least frequently used, with a relative frequency of 0.4%.

2.1.1.2. Least Frequently Used Motivational Strategies

Further analysis of table 5.1 reveals that the strategies having the lowest percentage scores are '**_autonomy_**' (1.8%), '**_L2-related values_**' (2.2%), and '**_task-related interest_**' (2.6%), indicating that these are the least frequently used strategies among EFL writing teachers.

2.1.1.2.1. Autonomy

During the six-week observation, the microstrategy 'involve the students in preparing and presenting the course' is not observed in any of the six EFL classrooms (00%). The motivational strategy 'allow learners to make choices about aspects of their learning' is used relatively rarely (1.8%). The students are usually not involved in organizing the different aspects of the learning process, such as choosing the type

of activity, the number of assignments, the materials, the learning format, etc. The few illustrative cases that are observed consist in teachers (2) allowing their students to decide on preferred topics in writing argumentative and comparison/contrast essays and choosing their teammates at the beginning of small-group tasks. Finally, no single occurrence is recorded in connection with the microstrategy 'raise students' awareness of the strategies they can use to motivate themselves' (00%). This strategy is seemingly not part of the teachers' motivational strategy repertoire.

2.1.1.2.2. L2-related Values

'Remind students of the benefits of successful English writing' is used relatively scarcely (0.2%), with only one recorded occurrence. The use of this strategy consists in highlighting the benefits of having a good command of the EFL writing skill with reference to social media communication. 'Use authentic texts' is used by some teachers (four out of six) at different intervals, though not frequently (1.8%). The teachers rely on authentic, referenced texts provided in Oshima and Hogue's (2006) workbook, entitled '*writing Academic English*'. These texts serve either as illustrative models, used to introduce the students to a new type of paragraph/essay, or as part of pre-defined learning activities. Again, 'encourage students to explore the British/American culture' (0.2%) is implemented with a particularly low relative frequency. This strategy materializes in a list of reading recommendations, consisting of short stories in English that students can read online.

2.1.1.2.3. Task-related Interest

The microstrategy 'include challenging tasks' is virtually non-existent. The assigned tasks do not require the students to solve problems, surmount obstacles, or

discover new things by themselves. This strategy is observed only once during an activity based on identifying the meaning of idioms from context and using them to write a paragraph (first-year class), which explains the low relative frequency rate (0.2%). With regard to the next microstrategy (0.4%), the learning tasks do not usually incorporate creative elements; however, two topics are geared toward fostering students' imaginative thinking (story starters). 'Vary the learning tasks' (1.4%) is used rarely and involves the same type of activities, which seem to be implemented on a rotational basis. Finally, the microstrategy 'include tasks that allow students to express their opinions/feelings/experiences' (0.6%) is associated with a relatively low rate of occurrence. This strategy is used with argumentative paragraphs/essays, a pattern of organization tackled by three EFL writing teachers.

2.1.2. Analysis and Interpretation of Data Obtained from the Frequency Questionnaire

In order to analyse the responses from the frequency questionnaire, descriptive statistics are generated. These include the percentage of respondents associated with the different scale items, the mean, and the standard variation of the various microstrategies and scales (see Appendix G). The mean difference is then calculated in order to determine the frequency of each strategy relative to the frequency of all the strategies. This allows us to identify:

1. The motivational strategies that are used the most frequently (highest positive values).

2. The motivational strategies that are used the least frequently (lowest negative values). The results are reported in table 5.5.

N°	L2 Motivational Strategies	M diff.
1.	Encourage students to share academic knowledge.	-0.84
2.	Involve small group competition games.	-1.34
3.	Use pair/group work.	0.34
Group Cohesiveness		**-0.29**
4.	Use humor in the classroom.	0.42
5.	Encourage risk taking in the classroom (e.g., encourage students to express their ideas or tell students not to worry about their mistakes).	0.8
6.	Use an interesting opening activity to start each class (e.g., crossword activity).	-0.75
Classroom Climate		**0.15**
7.	Teach English writing strategies (e.g., brainstorming, outlining).	0.77
8.	Draw students' awareness of their strengths and abilities.	-0.15
9.	Explain to students that they are able to succeed if they work hard.	0.34
Self-confidence		**0.31**
10.	Include challenging tasks.	-0.82
11.	Include tasks that incorporate creative elements (e.g., poems)	-0.38
12.	Vary the learning tasks.	-0.52
13.	Include tasks that allow students to express their opinions/feelings/experiences.	-0.46
Task-related Interest		**-0.55**
14.	State the lesson objectives or review progress made toward achieving the lesson objectives.	1.12
15.	Draw students' attention to the activities that can help them make progress.	0.06
16.	Raise students' awareness of the factors that can contribute to successful English writing.	0.32
17.	Mention the latest time/date by which the task should be completed.	1.17
18.	Encourage students to select learning goals and work toward them (e.g., write good topic sentences).	-0.62
19.	Walk around the class to check on students' progress while on task.	1.13
Goal-orientedness		**0.52**
20.	State the purpose or utility of the task.	0.27
21.	Give clear instructions about how to carry out the task.	1.11
Proper Presentation of the Task		**0.69**
22.	Remind students of the benefits of successful English writing.	-1.11
23.	Use authentic texts (e.g., English magazines/newspapers).	-0.08

Table 5.5 (continued)

24	Encourage students to explore the British/American culture (e.g., read English novels).	-0.92
L2-related Values		**-0.37**
25.	Have students correct their own written production.	-0.28
26.	Check students' understanding of previously covered material through questioning, assigning homework, etc.	0.71
27.	Provide students with feedback about their progress.	-0.92
Evaluation		**-0.17**
28.	Share personal interest in the English writing skill with the students.	-0.27
29.	Show availability to help students with all things academic.	0.24
30.	Assist students when they work on task.	0.54
Teacher Behaviour		**0.17**
31.	Involve the students in preparing and presenting the course.	-0.82
32.	Allow learners to make choices about aspects of their learning (e.g., choice of the topic or the activity).	-0.33
33.	Raise students' awareness of the strategies they can use to motivate themselves (e.g., self-encouragement).	-0.88
Autonomy		**-0.68**
34.	Offer rewards for successful accomplishments/progress.	-0.93
35.	Offer praise for effort or successful achievement.	0.73
Recognition of Effort		**-0.16**
36.	Give students the opportunity to display good written productions in front of the class.	**0.46**
Display of Performance		
37.	Relate the lesson to the everyday experiences of the students.	
Relevance of the Lesson		**0.21**
38.	Include tasks that require students to write finished paragraphs/essays or constituent parts (e.g., introductory paragraph).	**0.82**
Finished Products		
39.	Have students correct their classmate's written production.	**-0.13**
Peer Assessment		

Table 5.5 Mean Difference Scores of L2 Motivational Strategies Calculated on

the Basis of the Frequency Questionnaire

2.1.2.1. Most Frequently Used Motivational Strategies

As indicated in Table 5.5, '***finished products***' (0.82), '***proper presentation of the task***' (0.69*),* and '***goal-orientedness***' (0.52) have the highest mean difference, suggesting that these are the most frequently used strategies among the participant teachers. *'Proper presentation of the task'* and *'goal-orientedness'* are also characterised by the highest relative frequency scores, i.e., 12.4%, and 21%, respectively, as demonstrated by the classroom observation. However, the motivational strategy *'finished products'* does not score a comparably high relative frequency score. The reason is that 'finished products' consists of a single-item strategy. Hence, its cumulative frequency score is based on the relative frequency score obtained by the single microstrategy representing it. The presence of various microstrategies, as is the case with 'proper presentation of the task' (2 items) and 'goal-orientedness' (6 items) strategies, may have inflated its score. This being said, 'finished products' ranks among the top three of the most frequently used motivational strategies, both as evidenced by the classroom observation and the frequency questionnaire. This leads us to conclude that our findings are so far concordant.

Analysis at the microstrategy level indicates that both strategies subsumed within 'proper presentation of the task', i.e., 'state the purpose or utility of the task' (*M diff.* =0.27) and 'give clear instructions about how to carry out the task' (*M diff.* = 1.11) are used above the average frequency of strategy use. The latter strategy is used particularly frequently since it obtains a significant mean difference score of 1.11.

This is closely in line with the results obtained through classroom observations (*rel. freq.* = 4.8 % and 7.6 %, respectively).

Three out of the six strategies comprised within 'goal-orientedness', namely 'state the lesson objectives or review progress made toward achieving the lesson objectives' (*M diff.* = 1.12),' mention the latest time/date by which the task should be completed' (*M diff.* = 1.17), and 'walk around the class to check on students' progress while on task' (*M diff.* = 1.13) are overutilised. Indeed, relatively high rates of occurrences (5.2%, 5.4%, and 5%, respectively), are observed in relation with the aforementioned strategies. The microtrategies 'draw students' attention to the activities that can help them make progress' (*M diff.* = 0.06) and 'raise students' awareness of the factors that can contribute to successful English writing' (*M diff.* = 0.32) are reported to occur with moderate frequency. These findings seem to be corroborated by the observation only with regard to the latter strategy. The microstrategy 'draw students' attention to the activities that can help them make progress' is used only rarely (*rel. freq.* = 0.8%). A look at the descriptive statistics table (see Appendix G) suggests that the current strategy is more likely to be used with moderate rather than low frequency rates since the 45.8% of the student respondents ticked the 'moderately frequent' box. This can be explained by a possibly higher occurrence rate of this strategy during the first term of the academic year, i.e., prior to the classroom observation. It may have been implemented as part of general learning guidelines provided by the teachers in order to help their students identify the books, websites, etc., that contain writing activities relevant to the course objectives. Finally, the strategy 'encourage students to select learning goals and work toward them' appears to be a low-frequency strategy, both

as inferred from the questionnaire responses (-0.62) and evidenced by classroom observations (0.4%).

2.1.2.2. Least Frequently Used Motivational Strategies

The results displayed in table 5.6 show that '***autonomy***' (-0.68), and '***task-related interest***' (-0.55) exceed the critical threshold level of -0.50, which, from a statistical point of view, suggests the quasi-inexistence of these motivational strategies in the current context of study. Moreover, *'**L2-related values'** (-0.37) and '**group cohesiveness'** (-0.29) have a low mean difference score, indicating that these strategies are relatively underutilised, albeit to a lesser extent compared to the former strategies. A look at the results derived from the classroom observation checklists confirms these findings since 'autonomy', 'task-related interest', and 'L2-relatd values' rank in the top three of the least frequently employed strategies, with a relative frequency percentage of 1.8%, 2.6%, and 2.2%, respectively.

With a mean difference in the order of 0.1, the scores associated with '**peer assessment**' (-0.13), 'evaluation' (-0.17) and 'recognition of effort' (-0. 16) seem to suggest that these strategies are used with nearly moderate frequency relative to the average frequency of all the strategies.

Analysis at the microstrategy level reveals that the motivational strategies subsumed within 'task-related interest', i.e., 'include challenging tasks' (-0.82), 'include tasks that incorporate creative elements' (-0.38), 'vary the learning tasks' (-0.52), and 'include tasks that allow students to express their opinions/feelings/experiences' (-0.46), are used below the mean frequency of strategy use. This is consistent with the results yielded by the observation, which reveals that

these microstrategies are employed comparatively rarely, each scoring a relative frequency score of 0.2 %, 0.4%, 1.4 %, and 0.6%, respectively.

The same applies to the microstrategies comprised within 'autonomy', namely 'involve the students in preparing and presenting the course' (-0.82), 'allow learners to make choices about aspects of their learning' (-0.33), and 'raise students' awareness of the strategies they can use to motivate themselves' (-0.88), each associated with a corresponding relative frequency of 00%, 1.8%, and 00 %.

Two out of the three strategies defining 'L2-related values', i.e., 'remind students of the benefits of successful English writing' (*M diff.* =-1.11) and 'encourage students to explore the British/American culture' (*M diff.* =-0.92) are critically underused. With a mean difference falling barely below zero -0.08, the strategy 'use authentic texts' (-0.08) seems to be used at moderate frequency level. The statistical results associated with the former microstrategies are in agreement with the observation, which points to the relative underuse of the first two strategies (0.2% obtained by both strategies). However, the mean difference obtained by the microstrategy 'use authentic texts' does not seem to reflect the low relative frequency score (1.8%) associated with it. Once again, the large percentage of answers (44.2%) indicating the moderate use of this strategy, as shown in the descriptive statistics table (see Appendix G), tends to suggest that this strategy is, indeed, used with moderate rather than low frequency rates. One possible explanation is that students may have been exposed more frequently to authentic texts (especially those included in the copybooks used by most teacher participants), during the first semester of study, i.e.,

prior to the classroom observation. The aim may have been to familiarize students with genres before shifting focus on practice.

The first two strategies included within 'group cohesiveness', 'encourage students to share academic knowledge' (*M diff.* =-0.84) and 'involve small group competition games' (*M diff.* =-1.34), are virtually non-existent. Similar results are obtained from the observation, with the first (*rel. freq.* = 0.2%) and the second (*rel. freq.* = 00 %) strategies being noticeably underexploited. 'Use pair/group work' (*M diff.* = 0.34), on the other hand, is somehow overused, but obviously not enough to tip the balance in the opposite direction since the scale remains overall underutilised. This finding is not corroborated by the classroom observation (*rel. freq.* = 3.2%), which suggests a near moderate use of pair/group work. Some observations made by the researcher at different times during the writing sessions may help explain dissimilarity of the results. In fact, in some classes, students seem to be in the habit of pairing up spontaneously to work on individual tasks without any prior directive from the teacher. While these instances of pair work might have been taken into consideration by the students when providing their answers, they were deliberately overlooked during the recording procedure since no explicit use of this strategy (by the teacher) is involved. More generally, however, 'group cohesiveness' turns out to be underused, as indicated by the questionnaire (-0.29) and the classroom observation (3.4%), though not the extent of 'autonomy', 'task-related interest', and 'L2-related values' strategies.

To conclude, despite some rare discrepancies at the miscrostrategy level, the statistical results in relation the most and least frequently used motivational strategies

as implemented by EFL writing teachers and derived from the observation checklist and the frequency questionnaire tend to converge. More precisely, they indicate that 'goal-orientedness', 'proper presentation of the task' and 'finished products' are the most commonly used strategies among EFL writing teachers; whereas, 'task-related interest', 'autonomy', and 'L2-related values' appear to be the least frequently employed strategies. This implies that quantitative triangulation has been achieved.

2.2. Research Question N°2: Analysis and Interpretation

'*Does the use of motivational strategies as implemented by EFL writing teachers match the relative importance attached to them by their teacher-trainees? If not, what are the most important areas of mismatch?*'

This research question is used to construct the following general research hypothesis:

'*The use of motivational strategies as implemented by EFL teachers would not match the relative importance attached to them by their teacher-trainees because these strategies do not appear to be used in line with the teacher-trainee's perceptions*'.

In order to answer the second research question, the responses provided in the perception questionnaire are analysed. Descriptive statistics, including the percentage of respondents associated with the five scale items, the mean, and standard deviation of each scale and corresponding microstrategies are produced (see Appendix H). Next, the difference of the importance z-score and the frequency z-score of each scale and microstrategy are calculated. The findings will allow us to identify:

1. The motivational strategies that are overused relative to the importance attached to them by teacher trainees (positive values)

2. The motivational strategies that are used in line with the importance attached to them by teacher trainees (values approximating zero).

3. The motivational strategies that are underused relative to the importance attached to them by teacher trainees (negative values). The results are shown in table 5.6.

N°	L2 Motivational Strategies	Z diff.
1.	Encourage students to share academic knowledge.	-1.02
2.	Involve small group competition games.	-2.48
3.	Use pair/group work.	-0.28
	Group Cohesiveness	**-0.29**
4.	Use humor in the classroom.	0.44
5.	Encourage risk taking in the classroom (e.g., encourage students to express their ideas or tell students not to worry about their mistakes).	1.30
6.	Use an interesting opening activity to start each class (e.g., crossword activity).	-0.49
	Classroom Climate	**0.61**
7.	Teach English writing strategies (e.g., brainstorming, outlining).	0.09
8.	Draw students' awareness of their strengths and abilities.	-0.69
9.	Explain to students that they are able to succeed if they work hard.	0.72
	Self-confidence	**0.04**
10.	Include challenging tasks.	-1.89
11.	Include tasks that incorporate creative elements (e.g., poems).	-1.26

Table 5.6 (Continued)

N°	L2 Motivational Strategies	Z diff.
12.	Vary the learning tasks.	-1.21
13.	Include tasks that allow students to express their opinions/feelings/experiences.	-1.11
	Task-related Interest	**-2.6**
14.	State the lesson objectives or review progress made toward achieving the lesson objectives.	1.62
15.	Draw students' attention to the activities that can help them make progress.	-0.58
16.	Raise students' awareness of the factors that can contribute to successful English writing.	-0.5
17.	Mention the latest time/date by which the task should be completed.	2.22
18.	Encourage students to select learning goals and work toward them (e.g., write good topic sentences).	0.07
19.	Walk around the class to check on students' progress while on task.	2.22

Table 5.6 (continued)

Goal-orientedness		**2.15**
20.	State the purpose or utility of the task	0.43
21.	Give clear instructions about how to carry out the task.	1.14
Proper Presentation of the Task		**0.82**
22.	Remind students of the benefits of successful English writing.	-1.84
23.	Use authentic texts (e.g., English magazines/newspapers).	-0.30
24	Encourage students to explore the British/American culture (e.g., read English novels).	-0.79
L2-related Values		**-1.6**
25.	Have students correct their own written production.	-0.43
26.	Check students' understanding of previously covered material through questioning, assigning homework, etc.	-0.02
27.	Provide students with feedback about their progress.	-1.95
Evaluation		**-1.18**
28.	Share personal interest in the English writing skill with the students.	0.46
29.	Show availability to help students with all things academic.	0.66
30.	Assist students when they work on task.	0.82
Teacher Behaviour		**0.96**
31.	Involve the students in preparing and presenting the course.	-1.83
32.	Allow learners to make choices about aspects of their learning (e.g., choice of the topic or the activity).	-1.56
33.	Raise students' awareness of the strategies they can use to motivate themselves (e.g., self-encouragement).	-1.06
Autonomy		**-2.12**
34.	Offer rewards for successful accomplishments/progress.	0.02
35.	Offer praise for effort or successful achievement.	0.70
Recognition of Effort		**0.44**
36.	Give students the opportunity to display good written productions in front of the class.	**0.57**

Table 5.6 (continued)

	Display of Performance	
37.	Relate the lesson to the everyday experiences of the students.	**1.23**
	Relevance of the Lesson	
38.	Include tasks that require students to write finished paragraphs/essays or constituted parts (e.g., introductory paragraph).	**0.84**
	Finished Products	
39.	Have students correct their classmate's written production.	**0.01**
	Peer Assessment	

Table 5.6 Difference Between the Frequency and Perception Z-scores of L2 Motivational Strategies

2.2.1. Motivational Strategies Overused Relative to Their Perceived Importance

The results displayed in table 5.6 demonstrate a significant overuse of two motivational strategies relative to the importance attached to them by the teacher-trainees. These strategies are **'*goal-orientedness'*** (2.15) and **'*relevance of the lesson'*** (1.23). A closer inspection of the results reveals underutilization of two microstrategies defining 'goal-orientedness' compared to their attached importance: 'draw students' attention to the activities than can help them make progress' (-0.58) and 'raise students' awareness of the factors that can contribute to successful English writing' (-0.5). However, these results do not seem to affect the general tendency of the scale, with only two out of six strategies scoring a negative z-difference value.

A less marked discrepancy seems to exist between the actual use of the macrostrategies 'recognition of effort' (0.44), 'display of performance' (0.57), 'classroom climate' (0.61), 'proper presentation of the task' (0.82), 'finished

products' (0.84), and 'teacher behaviour' (0.96) and their perceived importance, suggesting that they are slightly to moderately overused, depending on the strategy.

A detailed investigation uncovers important areas of mismatch between motivational strategy use and perceived importance: 'give clear instructions about how to carry out the task' (1.14) and 'encourage risk taking in the classroom' (1.30). Moreover, these strategies contribute largely to inflating the score obtained by the corresponding macrostrategies. Despite the positive scores obtained by the six macrostrategies, one microstrategy turns out to be underused relative to its attached importance: 'use an interesting opening activity' (-0.49) (classroom climate).

2.2.2. Motivational Strategies Used in Line with Their Perceived Importance

With a z-difference approximating zero, there seems to be an overall match between the frequency of use of the motivational strategies *'self-confidence'* (0.04) and *'peer assessment'* (0.01) and their perceived importance. A closer investigation indicates that, except for the microstrategy 'teach English writing strategies' (0.09), no other strategy is used in consonance with the teacher-trainees' perception. In fact, the motivational strategy 'explain to students that they are able to succeed if they work hard' (0.72) is employed above the level of importance ascribed to it. However, the z-difference score obtained by this strategy counterbalances the single negative value identifiable at the microstrategy level ('draw students' awareness of their strengths and abilities' (-0.69).

2.2.3. Motivational Strategies Underused Relative to Their Perceived Importance

Further analysis of the results reveals an important mismatch between four motivational strategies and the importance ascribed to them by the teacher-trainees.

Scoring below the -0.5 threshold, these strategies are **'task-related interest'** (-2.6), **'autonomy'** (-2.12), **'L2-related values'** (-1.6) and **'evaluation'** (-1.18).It also turns out that '*group cohesiveness*'(-0.29) is underused relative to the importance attached to it, however, the corresponding z-difference score suggests a less serious mismatch compared with the former strategies. It is interesting to note that all the microstrategies subsumed by these scales obtain a negative z-score value below -1. Also, a look at the importance mean value (see Appendix H) associated with these scales show that the teachers underuse the motivational strategies that are perceived as the most important ones on the part of their students, which explains the considerable level of disparity (relatively high z-score values) between the reported use of the these macrostrategies and their importance as perceived by the teacher-trainees. Only one microstrategy seems to be implemented very slightly below the level of importance attached to it: 'check students' understanding of previously covered material through questioning, assigning homework, etc.' (-0.02) (evaluation). Actually, this microstrategy can be said to be implemented in line with the teacher-trainees' perceptions.

Overall, the results show that the use of motivational strategies as implemented by EFL writing teachers does not match the relative importance attached to them by their teacher-trainees because these strategies do not appear to be in line with the teacher-

trainee's perceptions. The most important areas of mismatch encompass largely overused strategies, including the motivational strategies 'goal-orientedness' and 'relevance of lesson', as well as seriously underused strategies, including 'task-related interest', 'autonomy', 'L2-related values', and 'evaluation' strategies.

2.3. Research Question N° 3: Analysis and Interpretation

'Does the level of match between the use of motivational strategies and the relative importance attached to them affect the teacher-trainees' writing motivation?'

This research question is converted into the following null hypothesis:

'The level of match between the use of motivational strategies and the relative importance attached to them does not affect the teacher-trainees' writing motivation'

A simple linear regression analysis is run in order to ascertain the extent to which the teacher-trainees' motivation is affected by the level of match existing between the use of motivational strategies and the relative importance attached to them. A number of statistical tests are performed prior to conducting the regression analysis. The aim of these tests (see Appendix I) is to ensure that the four perquisites to running a regression analysis are not violated. In fact, violations may distort or affect the interpretability of the regression output, leading to flawed conclusions. The four assumptions are:

- *Linearity:* The dependent variable should have a linear relationship with the explanatory variable. Inspection of the regression scatterplot (see Figure 5.1) shows that the linearity assumption is met.

- *Normality of the data:* the data should be normally distributed, i.e., forming a symmetrical bell curve with a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1.

Normality of data is tested using the Jarque-Bera test. The obtained p-value equals 0.96. Since the p-value is greater than 0.05, we accept the null hypothesis that the data follows a normal distribution.

- *Homoscedasticity*: the error variance around the regression line should be the same for all values of the explanatory variable. The white test is used to check this assumption. The obtained p-value (0.89) is greater than 0.05, which leads us to conclude that the null hypothesis for equal variance is true.

- *Independence of errors:* The value of one observation should be different from the value of other observations. The Durbin-Watson test is used to test this assumption. The value obtained in close to 2 ($DW = 1.74$), which indicates that the independence assumption is fulfilled.

Given the nature of the variables under study, Cohen's (1988) guidelines, used as a frame of reference for interpreting correlation coefficients in behavioural sciences, are adopted to interpret the correlation coefficients obtained with the simple regression analyses. According to him, scores falling around 0.10 are considered small, 0.30 medium, and 0.50 large. Table 5.7 depicts the results of the linear regression analysis involving the two variables of interest (see Appendix I for detailed statistics).

	B	SE B	β	t	Sig.
(Constant) **Level of Match**	20.570	1.916		10.730	.000
Writing **Motivation**	.287	.026	.714	11.666	.000

Note. **R²** = .509; Adjusted **R²**= .505

p < .01

Table 5.7 Simple Linear Regression of Writing Motivation on the Level of Match

B = the unstandardised beta. It represents the change in the value of y (dependent variable) when the value of x (independent variable) increases by one unit; **SE B** = the standard error for the computed value of the unstandardised beta. It represents the deviation of a sample mean from the mean of a population. It is used to assess the accuracy of the prediction; **β**= the standardised beta. It represents the parameter estimates obtained when the independent variable and dependent variable have been standardised to have variance = 1. In simple linear regression (one independent variable), the absolute value of the standardised coefficient equals the correlation coefficient; **t**= the t-statistic. It represents the coefficient divided by its standard error. This t-statistic is a measure of the likelihood that the actual value of the coefficient is different from zero; **Sig**. = the significance probability. It indicates the probability that we would obtain the regression coefficient we have actually found if the null hypothesis is true.

The results of the simple linear regression analysis show that the coefficient of the correlation between the level of match and writing motivation is 0.71, which is very significant at the 0.01 level of probability. The coefficient is greater than 0.5, which suggests that the two variables are strongly correlated. The unstandardised slope coefficient (.278) and standardised slope (0.714) for writing motivation are statistically significantly different from 0 ($t = 11.066$), with writing motivation scores increasing by .287 for each change of one unit in the level of match. The R-squared value indicates that 50.9% of the variation in writing motivation scores is explained by variation in the level of match, which suggests a fairly large effect. The F-test of overall significance equals 10.228, which confirms that the linear equation was a good fit to the data ($F = 12.247$). The visual representation of the regression with a

line representing the prediction of mean for each data point (line of best fit) is presented in figure 5.1.
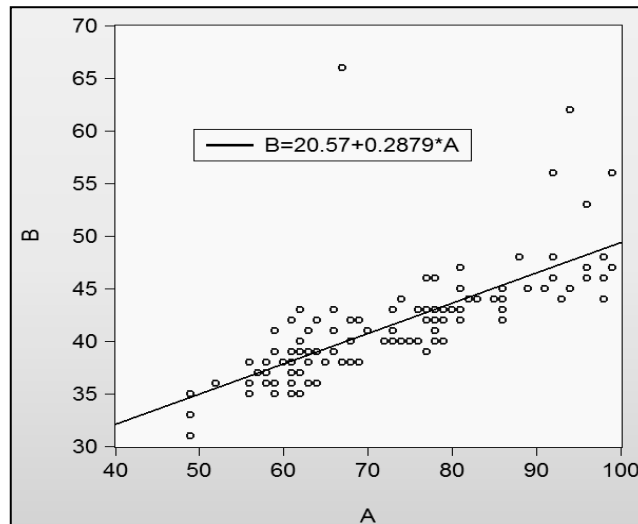
Figure 5.1 Scatter Plot of Writing Motivation vs. Level of Match

The scatter plot above shows that the spotted values obtained are somehow close to the line. This suggests a strong relationship. The slope of the line rises from lower left to upper right, with data displaying a linear pattern. This indicates a positive linear association between the two variables. This is consistent with the numerical value of the correlation (.71). The regression equation is:

Writing Motivation (value)=20.57+0.2879* Level of Match (value)

The regression equation is used to predict the approximate unknown value of writing motivation (B) using the known value of the level of match (A). Hence, if we suppose that the score associated with the level match is 40, the corresponding value of writing motivation can be predicted using the equation 20.57+0.2879(40).

These findings highlight the idea that the teachers who use motivational strategies in consonance with their learners' perceptions are more likely to impact positively on their learners' motivation than those who do not. This suggests that the motivating potential of the strategies that EFL teachers use in the classroom may be to a large extent contingent upon the degree of importance attached to them by their students.

In view of the results obtained, we can confidently reject the null hypothesis and conclude that that the level of match between the use of motivational and the relative importance attached to them affects the teacher-trainees' writing motivation.

2.4. Research Question N° 4: Analysis and Interpretation

'Does the level of match between the use of motivational strategies and the relative importance attached to them affect the teacher-trainees' writing achievement?'

This research question is converted into the following null hypothesis:

The level of match between the use of motivational strategies and the relative importance attached to them does not affect the teacher-trainees' writing achievement.

The same statistical procedure is conducted in order to examine the effect of the level of match between the use of motivational strategies and the relative importance attached to them on the teacher-trainees' writing motivation. The principle assumptions are all fulfilled (see Appendix I), (linearity (see Figure 5.2), normality (p-value=0.92>.05), and homoscedasticity (p-value=0.055>.05), expect for independence. In order to remedy autocorrelation, the Cochrane-Orccut transformation procedure is applied (the resulting *Durbin-Watson* test= 1.93). Table 5.8 reports the results of the linear regression analysis.

	B	SE B	β	t	Sig.
(Constant) **Level of Match**	6.156	.843		7.297	.000
Writing Motivation	.057	.010	.383	5.380	.000

Note. R^2= .209; Adjusted R^2= .188

p < .01

Table 5.8 Simple Linear Regression of Writing Achievement on the Level of Match

B = the unstandardised beta. It represents the change in the value of y (dependent variable) when the value of x (independent variable) increases by one unit; **SE B** = the standard error for the computed value of the unstandardised beta. It represents the deviation of a sample mean from the mean of a population. It is used to assess the accuracy of the prediction; **β**= the standardised beta. It represents the parameter estimates obtained when the independent variable and dependent variable have been standardised to have variance = 1. In simple linear regression (one independent variable), the absolute value of the standardised coefficient equals the correlation coefficient; **t**= the t-statistic. It represents the coefficient divided by its standard error. This t-statistic is a measure of the likelihood that the actual value of the coefficient is different from zero; **Sig**. = the significance probability. It indicates the probability that we would obtain the regression coefficient we have actually found if the null hypothesis is true.

As shown in the table above, the correlation between the level of match and writing achievement turns out to be significant, with a coefficient of 0.38. The correlation coefficient is in the order of 0.3, which means that the two variables are very moderately correlated. The unstandardised slope coefficient for writing achievement is significantly different from 0 (t = 5.380), and indicates that writing achievement scores increase by .057 for each change of one unit in the level of match. The R^2 value indicates that 20.9% of the variation in writing achievement scores was predicted by variation in the level of match, which suggests a very moderate, indirect effect. However, the R-squared value is relatively good if we consider the nature of the two variables. The model is a good fit for the data (F= 10.228). The scatter plot of the regression is presented below.
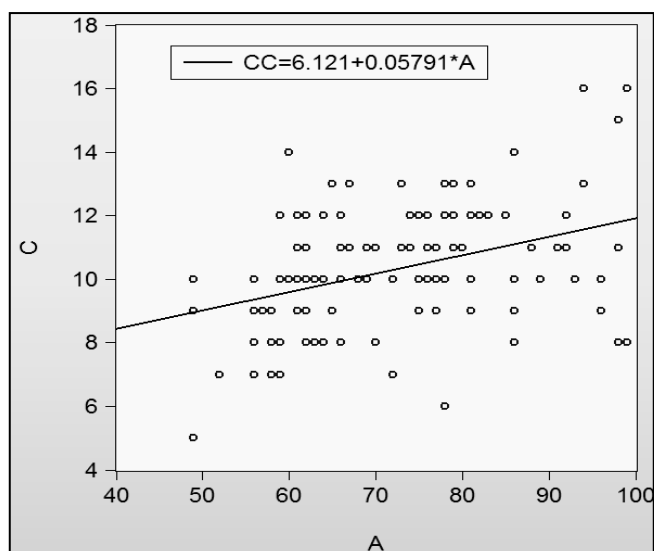
Figure 5.2 Scatter Plot of Writing Achievement vs. Level of Match

Figure 5.2 shows a roughly linear association between the variables, with no discernible curve or underlying form in the data points. The values scatter rather widely about the regression line, with the slope of the line rising from lower left to upper right. This suggests that the correlation between the spotted values is positive but very moderate. Once again, the strength and direction of the relationship, as indicated by the correlation coefficient (.38), are reflected in the trend line. The regression equation is:

Writing Achievement (value) = 6.121 + 0.05791* Level of Match (value)

The results imply that the teacher-trainees' writing achievement is influenced to a certain extent by the degree of match existing between the importance they ascribe to motivational strategies and the frequency with which their teachers use these strategies. This leads us to assume that the teacher-trainees' writing achievement may be actually impacted by higher/lower levels of writing motivation resulting from the

match/mismatch between the teachers' motivational strategy use and their students' strategy perception. Put differently, the frequency/perception level of match may exert an indirect influence on students' achievement through the mediating effect of motivation. The moderate positive correlation (.38) found between the two variables can be explained by the fact that motivation is not the sole determinant of writing achievement. Many factors are thought to operate in conjunction with motivation and attitude, including language aptitude, L1 writing ability, L2 proficiency, L2 writing anxiety, and L2 writing strategies (see Chapter 3, section 3).

On the basis of these findings, we can reject the null hypothesis and draw the conclusion that the level of match between the use of motivational strategies and the relative importance attached to them affects the teacher-trainees' writing achievement.

Conclusion

All in all, quantitative data analysis reveals that *'proper presentation of the task', 'finished products',* and *'goal-orientedness'* strategies rank in the top three of the most frequently occurring strategies among EFL writing teachers in the current context of study. Moreover, a number of motivational strategies are found to be underused. More specifically, *'autonomy', 'task-related interest',* and *'L2-related values'* are the least commonly used strategies. The findings derived from the questionnaire are similar to those obtained through classroom observation, implying that quantitative data triangulation is achieved. Furthermore, statistical analyses of data indicate eight overused and five underused strategies relative to the importance attached to them by the teacher-trainees. Moreover, some important areas of

mismatch are identified, including largely overused strategies relative to their importance: '*goal-orientedness' and 'relevance of the lesson'*, and seriously underused strategies relative to their importance: '*task-related interest', 'autonomy', 'L2-related values',* and *'evaluation'*. Only two strategies appear to be implemented in line with their perceived importance. These findings suggest an overall mismatch between the use of motivational strategies as implemented by EFL writing teachers and the relative importance attached to them by the teacher-trainees. Finally, the level of match between the use of motivational strategies and their perceived importance is found to have a fairly large effect on the teacher-trainees' writing motivation and only a very moderate effect on their writing achievement.

CHAPTER SIX:

PHASE II
QUALITATIVE DATA
ANALYSIS

Introduction

The present chapter describes the quantitative data analysis of the follow-up interviews, used to supplement and shed some light on the findings obtained from the initial quantitative phase. The chapter provides a description of the pilot study, followed by the analysis of the focus group interviews and individual interviews conducted with the teacher-trainees and their teachers of writing techniques. The aim of this chapter is to provide answers to the qualitative research questions. In doing so, it helps achieve the following research objectives:

1. Gain further insights into the motivational practices of EFL writing teachers.
2. Gain further insights into the teacher-trainees' perceptions of motivational strategies.

1. Pilot Study

Pilot testing an interview helps the interviewer identify and reformulate poorly worded questions, eliminate insensitive or overlapping questions, and determine the length of time required to conduct the interview.

Given the sequential-explanatory design of the current study, the teacher interview, involving the totality of the participating teachers, cannot be conducted. To make sure that the interview questions are clearly worded, the written version of the interview is handed to a doctoral fellow candidate. Her feedback reveals no problems with respect to the clarity or sensitivity of the questions.

Conducting the pilot study of the focus group interview is made possible by choosing a subset of four students from of the quantitative phase. The pilot stage,

held in May, is a great opportunity to gain a hands-on experience in using the different interviewing techniques suggested in the literature. For instance, the researcher is able to familiarize with note taking while interviewing the participants. Note taking would later help recapitulate the key pieces of information at the end of the interview. Moreover, probing techniques such as elaboration probes and carry-on feedback (e.g., backchannel signals) help a lot in obtaining the qualitative data required for the present study.

The main problem encountered during the pilot study of the focus group interviews has to do with over-talkative students, who are very enthusiastic to make their voice heard but who end-up monopolizing the conversation. The researcher has to intervene several times by encouraging the less loquacious ones to express their opinions, which affects somehow the flow of conversation. According to David and Sutton (2004), this is problematic because it may create a situation in which the less dominant members not only abstain from talking, but also tend to comply with the ideas and arguments of the dominant members. Following the pilot study, a review of the literature on the issue of dominant participants in focus group interviews helps in identifying a set of ground rules, as suggested by David and Sutton, (2004). These rules help the group to manage itself and ease the interviewer's task of moderating the discussion. In line with their recommendations, the following rules are outlined right at the outset of the main study interviews:

- Only one person should speak at a time.

- No subgroup discussions.

- Allow others to speak.

- Respect the right of others to express views that are not your own.

- Speak clearly.

- Respect the confidentiality of other members of the group.

(David & Sutton, p.97)

The pilot study of the focus group interview lasts54 minutes.

2. Main Study

2.1. Teacher Interview

2.1.1. Reasons Behind Motivational Strategy Overuse

The current section presents the analysis of the teachers' answers to the first interview question. Overall, all six respondents report using the selected microstrategies subsumed under 'proper presentation of the task', 'finished products', and 'goal-orientedness' on a regular basis. The teachers' responses are concordant with the survey and the classroom observation findings. Analysis of the teachers' responses to the follow-up question is presented below.

2.1.1.1. Goal-orientedness

- ***Mention the latest time/date by which the task should be completed***

Deadlines are commonly used as part of teachers' time management plan. The aim is to ensure that every aspect of the lesson plan is properly covered within the set time limit. Timing learning activities can also be used in order to energise students' learning by helping them prioritise the task objectives and avoid irrelevant distractions. For some participant teachers, the aim is to maximize active task

engagement by preventing students from discussing matters that are irrelevant to the task at hand. As one teacher remarks:

> *Students take every possible opportunity to talk about their daily experiences in the classroom. If I do not set deadlines, students do not focus on the task and keep talking about things that have nothing to do with it.* **(T1)**

A pedagogy-oriented view of the strategy is held by one EFL teacher, who stresses the benefits of setting deadlines in helping students learn time management skills:

> *When the students know that there is a deadline, they learn how to manage their time effectively. They learn how to organize the different parts of the task in order to save time for the most difficult parts and achieve the task successfully.* **(T5)**

While the instructional practice of the teacher participants with regard to task completion deadlines appears to stem from two different perspectives, the objective remains fundamentally the same; that of helping students stay committed to their work by creating and maintaining behaviours that are conductive to task commitment.

- ***State the lesson objectives or review progress made toward achieving the lesson objectives***

Stating the lesson objectives or reviewing progress made toward achieving the lesson helps learners determine and direct their attention to the learning objectives. Moreover, it helps students structure their learning and facilitates the incorporation of new information. Schunk et al. (2014) explain that "information is easier for students as they integrate new information with prior learning and thereby build better

organized mental networks of knowledge" (p.279). The six teacher respondents report using this strategy because it helps their students know what is expected from them to learn, to link up the different bits of information, and to help them stay actively engaged in the lesson. According to some of them, the fact that their classes meet once a week makes it even more important to stimulate the recall of previously acquired knowledge and enable students to relate it to the newly presented material.

One of the teacher respondents stresses:

> *The student should know what is expected from him to learn or to do.*
> *When he feels he knows what is expected from him to do or to learn, he*
> *is going to be more focused on the subject and make the link between*
> *the different aspects of the lesson.* **(T4)**

The different responses provided by the teachers revolve around the previously stated benefits, which suggest that they are aware of the way in which the current motivational strategy operates in keeping students engaged in the learning process.

- *Walk around the class to check on students' progress while on task*

Walk around the class to check on students' progress while on task is used to ensure that nothing hampers the proper conduct of the task or slows down students' progress. The aim is to keep students actively involved in the task. The teachers taking part in the interview appear to be primarily concerned with spotting off-task students and getting them back to work. It also appears that large classes might influence the use of the current strategy. One teacher puts:

Some students do not take their tasks seriously. When you ask them whether they are working on the task, they pretend like they are. So I need to make sure by myself that they are really working on it. **(T3)**

Another teacher explains:

To check if students are involved. I cannot ask all the students since I have a very large classroom. The only way for me to ensure that they did the task is to check their work one by one while they work. **(T1)**

Given the number of students per class (50-70 students), the teachers' concern over disengaged learners is understandable. Unless teachers walk around the classroom, it is usually difficult to know whether students are discussing matters that are relevant to the task at hand or not. Regrettably, the focus is placed on the quantity rather than the quality of the students' on-task behaviour, with the teachers using the strategy with the sole purpose of getting students to perform the task. I personally believe that teachers should grant more importance to the process by which the task is conducted. They can, for example, use corrective feedback to ensure that the students are heading in the right direction. I also think that a genuine understanding of how motivational strategies impact students' motivation is necessary if one is to unlock their full potential.

2.1.1.2. Proper Presentation of the Task

- *Give clear instructions about how to carry out the task*

The teacher participants provide answers that are all articulated around the same idea. According to them, clear instructions prevent the students from getting confused over the task requirements. Confusion, they believe, would result in many students

disengaging from the task. Some responses suggest that students' insufficient level of English proficiency is a subsidiary factor leading to the extensive use of this strategy. This is exemplified in the comment made by one teacher interviewee:

> *Giving clear instructions is important to avoid confusion. Moreover, our students already lack vocabulary knowledge. If I do not use simple words and sentences, they will get confused. They will waste time on trying to figure out what they have to do, and this will discourage them from doing the task.* **(T2)**

The teachers are right to guard against the possible confusion generated by unclear instructions. According to Wlodkowski (2008), learners often stop paying attention because they are confused about what they are expected to do. For Schunk et al. (2014), giving unclear explanations about how to carry out the task compels learners to engage in complex mental processing to find out what the teacher has said. This suggests that intellectual effort spent on deciphering teachers' assignments decreases students' readiness for the task and leaves them vulnerable to external distractions.

- *State the purpose or utility of the task*

Stating the purpose or utility of the task involves making students aware of the relevant aspects of learning activities with reference to their academic learning or life outside school. Some teachers taking part in the current study use this strategy on a regular basis. They also demonstrate knowledge of the motivational dimension of the strategy since they report using it with the aim of increasing task engagement:

> *When the students know the purpose of the strategy, they are more aware about the way it can help them to better their writing skill. They will become more involved in the task.* **(T1)**

Other teachers, on the other hand, hardly ever use the strategy. According to them, their students are quite capable of relating the task to the lesson and figuring out the purpose/utility of the task on their own. The following quotation sums up their position on the issue:

> *I don't use this strategy very frequently. At this stage, students know that the purpose of any task is to help them practice what they have just learnt in class. I mean, they know these kinds of things. I don't think we should repeat it several times.* **(T3)**

This attitude denotes a lack of proper appreciation of the strategy potential for stimulating and maintaining students' motivation for the task. If the teacher-trainees are already aware of the immediate usefulness of the task, they would certainly benefit from a more elaborate understanding of how the task contributes to improving their daily lives or current situation. Most specialists in the field of motivation insist on the importance of making the rationale for including the task explicit. For example, Brophy (2010) asserts that optimally mediated learning experiences are those which raise students' awareness of the purpose of each learning task. For the task to be valuable, he suggests that learning tasks be described in terms of the added abilities that students will acquire, such as knowledge or coping strategies. As a matter of example, teachers can explain to students how a learning task can help them improve their memory or their organizational skills.

2.1.1.3. Finished Products

- ***Include tasks that require students to write finished paragraphs/essays or constituent parts***

Tasks that require students to create finished products can be used to make L2 leaning enjoyable and, therefore, increase students' task engagement (Dörnyei, 2003). Finished written texts, in particular, provide the best means for L2 writing teachers to ensure that their learners are able to integrate the various micro-skills involved in the foreign language writing skill into a tangible, coherent whole effectively, and to spot the areas that need further practice. In the current context of study, assigning students finished products seems to be exclusively guided by this practice-oriented approach to teaching the EFL writing skill. This reflects in the following quotes:

> *-I think that the purpose of teaching writing techniques is to help students to write. By the end, the production shows whether the students can write in the correct way or not. Writing will help them to put into practice what they have learned and improve their skills.* **(T4)**

> *-It permits to the learners and to me to see what they have mastered and what they haven't yet mastered, so that they can focus on their mistakes and better their writing skills.* **(T1)**

It is noteworthy that the six teacher interviewees appear to be unaware of the motivational component underlying the strategy since no reference is made to it. Therefore, we believe it is important to call the teachers' attention to the motivational component involved in their teaching practices in order to help promote well-informed instructional decisions. For example, EFL writing teachers can intentionally

combine motivational strategies such as finished products and public display of performance in order to amplify their impact on students' writing motivation.

2.1.2. Effectiveness of Teachers' Regular Practices on Teacher-trainees' Writing Motivation (Teachers' Perspective)

Three different views come out of the discussion related to the second interview question. Two teachers believe that their regular strategies are effective in motivating their teacher-trainees. According to them, this reflects in their students' active engagement, participation, and interest. The remaining teachers perceive their strategies as having only a limited effect on their students' motivation to write. They explain that their students' motivation seems to be fluctuating, which shows in the students' varying levels of involvement and enthusiasm. According to them, this is mainly due to the lack of diversity in their motivational teaching practice. Large classrooms are reported to be the main obstacle hindering the inclusion of various motivational techniques, for they compel the teachers to maintain focus on concerns such as students' comprehension and classroom management issues. One teacher admits:

> *Perhaps because I do not vary my strategies. I know there are other strategies which I do not use in my class. But, to be honest, it is very difficult to focus on these strategies. With very large classes, my priority is to control the class. I also have to make sure that everyone understands.* **(T3)**

Some strategies, such as pair/group work, lesson presentations, and diversified learning, have been suggested in the literature to cope with large classes (e.g., Baker

& Westrup, 2000). The same strategies are found to be underutilised by the participating teachers. This being said, I believe that the responsibility of promoting students' motivation to learn is also incumbent upon local educational authorities, who should mobilise the human and material resources that ensure proper teacher-to-student ratio and allow teachers to refocus their instructional practices.

One teacher shares the view that some of the motivational strategies she uses seem ineffective in fostering her students' motivation. She clarifies the idea by pointing to the students' conspicuous resistance to follow certain instructions or recommendations, saying that:

> *Not always. These strategies are effective to a certain extent. This is because students show resistance to some strategies, and this can be a real obstacle or hinder the effect of these strategies. For example, if I motivate my students by telling them that successful writing requires them to start with brainstorming, but deep inside they reject the idea of brainstorming, so how can my strategy be effective? The students show resistance to what we tell them to do and keep writing without brainstorming or outlining.* **(T6)**

My insider's perspective concurs with the teacher's view that many students exhibit well-established habits that are difficult to get rid of and which may decrease students' receptiveness to certain strategies. Students' reluctance to brainstorm, in particular, may be explained by the fact that they are not taught the different steps involved in the writing process at secondary school level. In fact, many Algerian secondary school teachers adhere to traditional approaches to writing that emphasize the final product rather than the writing process. In order to help students move from

a product-based to a process-based approach in their writing practice, Rao (2007) recommends that EFL instructors teach brainstorming through group work and classroom discussion, which would encourage the generation and interchange of ideas among learners. Therefore, I suggest that teachers consider finding ways to get their students to change their habits in parallel with using the relevant strategy.

2.1.3. Effectiveness of Teachers' Regular Practices on Teacher-trainees' Writing Achievement (Teachers' Perspective)

Analysis of the answers provided to the third interview question reveals that the majority of the teacher respondents believe that their motivational strategies are moderately effective in improving their students' writing achievement; however, opinions differ as to the causes that explain this situation. Most teachers allude to students' laziness to study, which they believe would counteract the influence that their strategies are intended to exert on students' achievement. The following response illustrates this point:

> *Sometimes, the strategies I use seem to have an effect only immediately.*
> *The majority of the students are lazy when it comes to working hard*
> *and this, I think, prevents the motivational strategies I use to be entirely*
> *effective.* **(T3)**

One teacher takes a completely different view on the question. More precisely, she considers the effectiveness of her motivational strategies to be contingent upon the students' flexibility and willingness to change their learning habits:

They are effective to a certain extent. They impact only those who are ready to change their misconceptions or habits; those who don't show resistance to my instructions. **(T6)**

It is quite conceivable that both the students' laziness and reluctance to change their learning habits can negatively affect their writing achievement. Their laziness, in particular, can actually be due to their disinterest and lack of motivation, which may be a direct consequence of the uncovered mismatch between the teachers' motivational strategy use and their students' strategy perception. Moreover, the level of match between strategy use and perceptions is found to affect the students' writing motivation and achievement, which may suggest that the teacher's motivational practices are not fully effective because they do not match up with the importance attached to them by their teacher-trainees. I believe that this possibility should be seriously envisaged and that adequate measures should be taken in order to align classroom motivational practices with students' strategy preferences.

2.1.4. Reasons Behind Motivational Strategy Underuse

This section presents the analysis of the teachers' answers to the fourth interview question. The teachers describe their use of the various microstrategies comprised within 'autonomy', 'task-related interest', and 'L2-related values' as infrequent. Only one teacher reports varying the learning tasks regularly, a practice which is neither supported by the classroom observation nor by the student questionnaire. Overall, the teachers' answers reflect the results obtained in phase I of the present research. Following is the analysis of the teachers' responses to the follow-up question.

2.1.4.1. Autonomy

- ***Involve the students in preparing and presenting the course***

The solid majority of the teacher participants express skepticism about their students' ability to design and present the course. Given the complex nature of the writing skill, most teachers think that the strategy is simply not well-suited to the context of EFL writing. This is reflected in the following statement:

> *The writing module is technical. We need to work on the skills. So, we feel like we need to be the source of knowledge in the classroom, which may not always be right. You know, we always think that our students are novice or beginners. They are still struggling with writing, that is why we do not involve them in preparing and presenting the course. So maybe it is because we think they are not ready.* **(T6)**

It is unfortunate that the teachers' beliefs prevent them from offering their students a hands-on learning experience. The learning-by-doing principle has long been advocated by the constructivist approach as conductive to genuine learning. I have often been strongly impressed with my students' performance when asked to prepare and present a lesson in writing. I could sense their excitement about stepping into their teacher's shoes and taking over the reins of their learning. Moreover, the strategy has a particular significance in the context of teacher education, for teacher-trainees can experience life-like situations with direct relevance to their specialty. What is more, Queen (1984) associates simulated activities with a range of positive outcomes, including active learning, increased motivation, creativity, engagement, and improved skills in decision-making and problem solving. Hence, if we cannot offer

first- and second-year students opportunities for real-world application, we can, at least, involve them in simulated teaching activities.

- ***Allow learners to make choices about aspects of their learning***

The teachers hold similar views. According to them, their students are not fully equipped in terms of the skills and knowledge required to make appropriate decisions in relation to their own learning. The following response is illustrative:

> *I don't think that students would be able to make good decisions. I think the teacher knows better than the students what is good for them. It is risky to allow learners to make choices when you know that your learners do not have the skills required to make appropriate decisions.*
> **(T1)**

The teachers' apprehension about the fact that giving students some control over their learning may constitute an instructional risk is understandable. Dörnyei (2001) admits that the other side of the coin is the risk that genuine choices may lead students to make wrong choices. To prevent it, he suggests that teachers allow students' choice within a large but limited range of alternatives as a preliminary step to open-ended choices. I recommend that teachers consider implementing this strategy, for a consistent body of evidence tends to demonstrate that empowering students by giving them the opportunity to invest in their own learning leads to increased competence, intrinsic motivation, engagement, and well-being (e.g., Ryan & Deci, 2002).

- ***Raise students' awareness of the strategies they can use to motivate themselves***

The six teachers, without exception, report being unaware of this strategy. It actually comes as no surprise to learn that this strategy is unknown to the participating

teachers. For one thing, no single instance of this strategy is recorded during the classroom observation. Second, I do not expect the teachers to be familiar with the strategy since I was myself unaware of it before delving into the field of L2 motivation.

2.1.4.2. Task-related Interest

- *Include challenging tasks*

Most teachers raise doubts about the strategy potential for stimulating students' interest in the task. According to them, challenging tasks would add to the difficulty that students are already experiencing with the writing skill and would, therefore, demotivate rather than motivate them. As one teacher explains:

> *The problem is that, sometimes, students feel reluctant to write. It is painful for them, so they do anything they can to escape difficult tasks. They find all possible excuses like I forgot the book, you didn't tell us to do the task, etc. So, if I use something more challenging than usual, I don't think it will motivate them. They may just give up.* **(T6)**

In addition to the fear of overwhelming their students, some teachers seem deterred by the cost of personal investment required for planning challenging tasks. This point is explicitly stated in the following passage:

> *I do not implement this strategy because it requires effort on the part of the learners, and most of them tend to avoid difficult tasks. It is also difficult for the teacher in terms of selecting or designing the challenging tasks. This needs effort and time on the part of the teacher.* **(T5)**

Once again, the teachers' responses seem to reflect some a priori judgments about the suitability of the strategy in the current teaching context. Yet, research has demonstrated that students are intrinsically motivated when confronted with complex tasks. However, for challenging tasks to be effective in motivating students, appropriate decisions should be made. Csikszentmihalyi et al. (2005) explain that task difficulty should match up with students' skill level. According to them, task difficulty exceeding students' skills may generate a state of anxiety in the learner; conversely, skills that exceed task difficulty may cause the learner to feel relaxed and ultimately bored. Therefore, I believe that teachers should devote more time and effort in planning tasks that solicit higher cognitive resources while ensuring that their students possess the skills needed to successfully accomplish the task.

- *Include tasks that incorporate creative elements*

Many teachers explain the lack of creativity in their tasks by referring to the technical nature of the course and the necessity of prioritising and developing students' writing skills. This position is reflected in the following quote:

> *Students need first to master the structure of a paragraph. They are generally not very good at writing, so what is important for me is teach them the basics of paragraph writing because it is a technical module. This is what the writing module is about.* **(T3)**

In reality, the 'technical' or formal dimension of academic writing does not preclude the incorporation of creative elements. In Harmer's (2007) view, adding a creative aspect to ESL writing activities promotes a sense of achievement, offers the experience of self-discovery learning, and prompts students to try harder in order to

produce better written productions. According to him, creative writing tasks are those which appeal to imaginative thinking, such as writing poems, dialogs, stories, and plays. I personally believe that infusing creativity in the current teaching context would not only help in improving students' academic-related outcomes but would also contribute to nurturing students' uniqueness in a context that is chiefly geared toward a teacher-centered teaching style.

- *Vary the learning tasks*

During classroom observation, most teachers are found to use two or three types of activities on a rotational basis. It seems that some teachers have become lulled into routine practices, resulting mainly from teaching the same subject matter over consecutive years. As one teacher explains:

> *We teach following a certain routine, which is reinforced year after year. This routine won't allow us to change our habits. So, we prefer doing things we already know.* **(T6)**

For the remaining teachers, the main course objective is to enable students to write well-constructed essays/paragraphs, hence the importance of incorporating the tasks that help them to do so. The following response illustrates this idea:

> *The goal of the writing module is to enable students to write good paragraphs. Of course, at the beginning of the year, I give students activities about sentence structure. But after that, they have to focus on writing well-structured paragraphs.* **(T3)**

The teachers' reliance on the same type of activities can generate classroom boredom and results in students disconnecting from the task. Furthermore, learning activities that do not prompt students to think or act differently may induce fatigue and loss of energy (Wlodkowski, 2008). If, in addition, we consider the fact that each of the six EFL writing classes involved in the current research meets three to four consecutive hours, then one can hardly imagine students keeping on task with sustained effort and energy. This further justifies the necessity for incorporating task variety in the present context of instruction.

- ***Include tasks that allow students to express their opinions/feelings/ experiences***

For the majority of the teacher respondents, these tasks are included only as part of argumentative paragraph/essay writing. The other types of essays/paragraphs included in the course syllabus, such as the descriptive paragraph or cause and effect essays, do not lend themselves to the expression of feeling, opinions, or experiences. The response provided by one teacher participant is illustrative:

> *They are provided with the opportunity to express their opinions or feelings when we deal with argumentative essays. This is not possible with the other types of essays, such as the comparison and contrast essay.* **(T2)**

The teachers' attitude stems, in all probability, from the idea that students need to learn how to write objective paragraphs/essays (except for argumentative paragraphs/essays) in the context of academic writing.

Two teachers report that their students' inadequate skills and general culture are the main factors that prevent them from incorporating these types of tasks. One of them states:

> *They have always been given ready-made answers in the secondary school. This makes it difficult for us to require them to express their opinions because they lack the knowledge and the skills to provide insightful opinions.* **(T5)**

Giving opinions can prove challenging to students because it demands both understanding of the topic and the critical thinking skills necessary to weigh and support the various arguments. To help students cope with these difficulties, teachers can use debates as a pre-writing activity. Indeed, debates have been found to reinforce students' learning, analytical writing, and critical thinking in argumentation (Al-Mahrooqi & Tabakow, 2015). What's more, topics bearing on students' personal interest are more likely to create a livelier experience and generate richer ideas. In this regard, Wlodkowski (2008) asserts that personal relevance creates a positive disposition toward learning and stimulates adult learners' interest and curiosity. It is, therefore, advisable that teachers encourage students to inject personal opinions, feelings, or experiences in their texts. This is all the more important because young adults need opportunities to communicate their beliefs and assert, in this way, their individual personalities.

2.1.4.3. L2-related Values

- ***Remind students of the benefits of successful English writing***

The absence of the current strategy from the teachers' motivational strategy repertoire is justified on the grounds that the students are already aware of the

utilitarian value of successful English language writing, starting with its immediate relevance to their future teaching career. As one teacher argues:

> *I do not use it frequently because I think students know what the benefits of successful English writing are. First of all, they know that writing well is very important for their future job. Besides, they are aware of other benefits, like the possibility to communicate with people all over the world.* **(T1)**

Students' awareness of the instrumental value of successful EFL writing is not supposed to have a neutralising effect on the motivational impact of the strategy, quite the contrary. In reporting Brophy's (1998) idea, Dörnyei (2001) explains that instrumental strategies do not operate by altering or improving existing values, but rather by capitalizing on learning outcomes that students already value. He goes on arguing that the effectiveness of the strategy is greater when the benefits represent direct consequences of successful learning. This suggests, once more, that a better understanding of the factors that shape students' motivation would help the teachers overcome their misconceptions and provide them with a richer motivational repertoire upon which to draw during instruction.

- *Encourage students to explore the British/American culture*

The reason why the participant teachers do not encourage students to explore British/American culture stems from the same idea. From their perspective, the writing module is not intended to promote the discovery of the L2 culture, which is considered to be the concern of different courses delivered to third- and fourth-year students, namely American and British civilization and literature. The following statement exemplifies the point made above:

There are other modules in which they are exposed to culture, like American civilization. I think this is not the concern of my module. My module consists in teaching the techniques and strategies that help students improve their writing. This is the most important thing. **(T4)**

The idea according to which the EFL writing course aims primarily to develop students' writing skills is raised several times during the interview. This purely technical approach to teaching writing has, in all likelihood, narrowed the teachers' scope of application with respect to classroom motivational strategies. I believe that promoting learners' 'integrative values', in particular, can help teachers offset the instrumental motives underlying English language learning in the context of teacher training, starting from the first year of training. Besides, exploring the L2 culture can help students overcome any cultural misconceptions or stereotypes that may sometimes conflict with traditional Muslim values by creating a positive mindset vis-à-vis the L2 community and its lifestyle.

2.1.5. Further comments

The fifth question is intended to generate further thoughts on the topic. Only two teachers answer this question. The first teacher expresses her desire to revisit the fourth interview question. In this regard, she remarks:

We do not use some motivational strategies because we simply ignore them. If we know some of them, we are often afraid of trying them because they may not work. We don't feel secure, so we do not want to take risks trying things that we do not know. We prefer something that is old and which we master instead of something that is new but which is difficult to implement because it takes lots of effort. **(T6)**

The fear of veering away from convenient to potentially exacting practices is alluded to by a different teacher earlier during the interview. It seems that the absence of some motivational strategies is due to a disinclination to invest extra effort into planning and executing these strategies. It has also become clear that the teachers' awareness is a determinant factor of motivational strategy use.

The second teacher comments on the motivational value of autonomy-supportive strategies when she says:

> *I think that all the strategies mentioned which have to do with learner autonomy can be highly motivational. The role of the teacher as a facilitator can motivate learners by providing them with the opportunity to take charge of their learning. Our role as a provider of knowledge is unlikely to offer such chances and motivate learners.* **(T5)**

The interview has seemingly sensitized the teacher to the importance of promoting learner autonomy and the need for readjusting her current practice. More generally, it is hoped that the interview will prompt the participant teachers to rethink their motivational teaching practices in light of second/foreign language motivational frameworks.

2.2. Focus Group Interview

2.2.1. Effectiveness of Teachers' Regular Practices on Teacher-trainees' Writing Motivation (Students' Perspective)

The responses provided to the first question converge toward the same viewpoint. According to many student respondents, the motivational strategies that their teachers use in the writing classroom have a limited effect on their motivation. In response to

the follow-up question ('if no, how would you explain it?'), they explain that the restricted range of these strategies is the reason why their teachers fail to maximize their motivation to write. Some students mention the monotony resulting from the teachers using the same type of motivational strategies, suggesting a less-than-optimal effect of these strategies on their writing motivation. As one teacher-trainee complains:

> *They are not enough. Like it's always the same thing, and it became a routine for us. So, we want her to change a little bit. There are a lot of strategies that she does not use.*

Another student adds:

> *As they are not enough, there is a kind of carelessness from the students. Personally, I feel like I'm not motivated enough to carry on writing or to do extra work, in addition to what the teacher gives us.*

The above response is quite revealing with regard to the role of motivational teaching practices in bolstering students' motivation to write beyond the classroom walls *("I'm no motivated enough…to do extra work")*. Hence, it is reasonable to assume that the motivational strategies that teachers employ inside the classroom facilitate sustainable language learning in general and language writing in particular.

2.2.2. Effectiveness of Teachers' Regular Practices on Teachers-trainees' Writing Achievement (Students' Perspective)

According to the participating students, their teachers' motivational practices are not fully effective in fostering their writing achievement. They explain their responses in terms of some behavioural consequences, especially lack of

concentration and disinterest in the writing task, which according to them impact their writing achievement.

Some students express more vigorous opinions since they describe the impact of their teachers' motivational practices in terms of poor or diminished writing skills. As one teacher-trainee comments:

> *I don't find that her strategies are really motivating because, sometimes, I don't concentrate with her. This impacts on our writing. I am not a good writer! I mean for this year.*

Another participant responds:

> *We are not motivated enough. Personally, I felt that my level actually decreased a lot. My self-confidence also, it decreased in writing. I expected that when I will study at university my level will improve, but it didn't happen.*

Behavioural manifestations of lack of motivation, such as lack of concentration or disinterest in the writing task, can, indeed, add to the difficulty that most EFL students face in learning paragraph/essay writing skills, causing them to be poor writers. It can, therefore, be concluded that the behavioural consequences the teachers' motivational practices have on their students are among the possible causes of learners' writing problems. This tends to confirm the results obtained in phase I of the present study since lower degrees of match between the teachers' use of motivational strategies and their perceived importance, and expectedly lower levels of motivation, are found to impact students' EFL writing achievement.

2.2.3. Teacher-trainees' Perception of the Motivational Strategies That Are Underused Relative Their Perceived Importance

The teachers-trainees provide unequivocally affirmative answers with respect the importance they attach to 'autonomy', 'task-related interest', 'L2-related values', and 'evaluation' strategies. This is concordant with the high means obtained by these strategies as indicated by the statistical results associated with the importance questionnaire (see Appendix H). Responses to the follow-up question (can you tell me why?) are thematically grouped into categories related to why students perceive 'autonomy', 'task-related interest', 'L2-related values', and 'evaluation' as motivationally significant strategies.

2.2.3.1. Promoting Socially/Emotionally Engaging Learning

Elias et al. (1997) define social and emotional learning as the process through which we learn to recognise, manage, and convey our emotions in a manner that facilitates social relationships, learning, and problem solving. They identify four major components of emotional/social learning: self-awareness, control of impulsivity, working in cooperation, and caring about oneself and others. In the current context of study, the motivational value of some strategies arises from their potential to promote socially and emotionally engaging learning. More specifically, these strategies would offer the teacher-trainees the opportunity to relate emotionally and socially to their classmates and teachers, to promote individual and social accountability, and to build a trustful teacher-student relationship. As one of the student participants interestingly describes:

Creative tasks like poems are a means for me to dig out my emotions. It is the best way for me to learn who I am and to make other discover the person that I am. I can also learn about how other people feel. It creates a bond between me and my classmates.

Another student explains:

Designing and running a course will make me more responsible. For example, when I present a lesson, I will make sure that my classmates are provided with the right information. It also makes me feel that I am an adult and that my teacher trusts me.

These responses remind us of the inherently social nature of education, and, therefore, the necessity of incorporating the emotional and social aspects of learning in our instruction. Besides, the importance of emotional and social learning has been documented both in relation to academic and non-academic outcomes. A meta-analysis conducted by Durlak et al. (2011) reported that social/emotional programs in educational contexts exerts positive effects in terms of attitudes about self, others, and school as well as improved students' academic performance on achievement tests and grades. Zins et al. (2004) assert that social and emotional learning is a critical ingredient of learning because it helps students explore the social and emotional dimensions of their classroom effectively and creates positive classroom environments wherein students can actively engage in learning. Elias et al (1997) recommend that teachers integrate the social and emotional needs of students with academics, providing in this way the 'missing piece' to their learning.

2.2.3.2. Enhancing Students' Satisfaction with Their Abilities

Satisfaction is associated with the outcome of an activity that can be derived from extrinsic rewards, such as praise or a good grade, or intrinsic rewards, such as enjoyment or pride (Root, 2009). For many student respondents, the importance of performing some activities successfully, i.e., coping with challenging task and planning and presenting the course, is directly linked to experiences of increased personal satisfaction. This point is reflected in the following response:

Challenging tasks are very motivating. They will allow us to show ourselves that we have real capacities. When you do a challenging task you feel you are defying yourself. So, if you are able to think or to reason in a good way to do the challenging task, it is rewarding. You feel very good about yourself.

Our findings join those obtained by Miller and Meece (1999), who related students' preference for high-challenge tasks with positive emotions such as feelings of creativity and satisfaction. In fact, satisfaction over successful achievement is a type of intrinsic motivation referred to by Vallerand (1997) as IM-accomplishment (Intrinsic Motivation-accomplishment). IM-accomplishment is a sensation resulting from an attempt to master a task or achieve a challenging activity. Nonetheless, it is worth mentioning that the motivational value of the aforementioned strategies is tied up to the teacher-trainees' anticipated success in accomplishing the corresponding activities, hence the importance of planning activities that involve reasonable objectives and create opportunities for student success. This is even more important in view of the evidence supporting the positive effects of learner satisfaction on various learning and motivational processes, including increased self-efficacy, high

perceived task value, motivation to continue effort to learn, and improved strategic planning (Zimmerman & Clearly, 2009). Adding to this, adaptive emotions help students create a mental representation of their goals and challenges and improve their disposition toward creative problem-solving (Pekrun, 2009). From a biological viewpoint, positive emotions derived from engaging in challenging tasks are associated with dopamine release, a neurotransmitter believed to improve memory by facilitating the encoding and the retrieval of information (Wlodkowski, 2008).

2.2.3.3. Providing Relevance by Relating the Lesson/Material to Students' Interests and Future Teaching Career

Keller (1983; cited in Crookes & Schmidt,1991) defines relevance as the extent to which the course content or instruction meet students' personal goals, interests, and career goals. In the current context, relevance as embodied in certain types of tasks or activities seems to play a crucial role in determining the perceived importance of some motivational strategies. The strategies in question are those intended to accommodate students' personal interests and feelings (i.e., include tasks that incorporate creative elements/include tasks that allow students to express their opinions/feelings/ experiences), create situations that help students identify with their future roles as English language teachers (i.e., allow learners to make choices about aspects of their learning/involve the students in preparing and presenting the course), and highlight the practical relevance of successful L2 writing (i.e., remind students of the benefits of successful English writing) . In commenting about these strategies, one teacher-trainee says:

I don't get inspired from describing a refrigerator. I mean there's nothing exciting about it. I like my teacher, but I hate these kinds of topics. Many things are inspiring, but not a refrigerator. I like to describe things that really interest me, such as a place that I visited or something like that.

Another student explains:

When you present a lesson, you will learn how to interact with the others and build self-confidence when you are exposed to others. You will also learn how to prepare and present a lesson. It is very important because we are going to be teachers. After five years of study, you will be ready for teaching. You won't be afraid.

Relevance is intuitively appealing to most us. We, human beings, construe and determine the quality of our experiences in terms of how well they reflect our interests and aspirations. In educational contexts, fostering relevance is of utmost importance. This is because many students fail to perceive the connection between their interests and goals and the outside world. For Chambers (1999, p.37), "if the teacher is to motivate pupils to learn, then relevance has to be the red thread permeating activities". With reference to adult education, Wlodkowski (2008) asserts that newly acquired knowledge takes on a more concrete dimension when students are offered the opportunity to apply it in situations involving people, perspectives, and reactions approximating authentic instances. From a research-based perspective, evidence from interest research, intrinsic motivation, and goal theory indicates that teaching practices aimed at fostering meaning and personal relevance generate greater engagement and motivation (Urdan & Turner, 2005).

2.2.3.4. Fostering Perceived Teacher Caring

Some comments made by the teacher-trainees suggest that some motivational strategies, including 'check students' understanding of previously covered material through questioning, assigning homework, etc.', 'provide students with feedback about their progress', 'include tasks that allow students to express their opinions/feelings/experiences', and 'raise students' awareness of the strategies they can use to motivate themselves' are deemed important because they are perceived as direct expression of teacher care. This view is exemplified in the following statement:

> *It is very important for the students to know their level, and especially the points where they need to improve themselves. It makes you feel that the teacher is having a real interest in his students.*

Another student responds:

> *Raise students' awareness of the strategies that will help them to motivate themselves is important, in my point of view. I think it means that the teacher cares about us and that she understands that we may sometimes feel like discouraged or fed up with studies.*

It seems that some behavioural patterns are universally regarded as characterising caring teachers. In fact, research on the topic identified behaviours such as demonstrating concern in students' interests and providing students' with constructive feedback as instances of pedagogical caring (e.g., Bulach et al., 1996; Wentzel, 1997). The importance of communicating to students that we, teachers, care about them has been emphasized by many educationalists. For Teven and McCroskey (1997, p.1), "the more that students perceive their teacher cares about them, the more the students will care about and appreciate the class and the instructor". It should be

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noted, however, that the idea of pedagogical caring is hardly applicable in large classes. The issue of large classes is raised by McCroskey (1992; cited in Teven & McCroskey, 1997), who recommends that teachers develop communication skills that foster students' perception of care. In the present context of research, the question that arises is how to ensure that every student is provided with feedback about his/her progress and that every student has understood the material presented. The best option in this case is to tackle the root cause of the problem by reducing the number of students per class. This measure would facilitate the task of the teachers and create opportunities for their students to experience the effects related to perceived teacher care. In this regard, a consistent body of research has documented the benefits of perceived care. For example, Wentzel (1997) found a significant association between perceived caring and students' effort to achieve academic and social responsibility goals. An experimental study led by Teven (2007), explored the effects of teacher caring behaviours and misbehaviours independently. The results indicated that teachers displaying caring behaviours were more likely to be perceived as competent and trustworthy compared with non-caring teachers. The students also tended to evaluate the course content and the instructor more positively.

2.2.3.5. Raising Students' Cultural Awareness

The most recurrent theme in relation to the microstrategies 'use authentic texts' and 'encourage students to explore the British/American culture' is the notion of cultural awareness. Many student respondents report valuing these strategies because they would afford them the opportunity to know about the cultural specificities of the English language community, as opposed to their own culture, and translated in the

way they tackle and write about the topic. The responses provided by two students illustrate the point made above:

- It allows me to see how English native people write and think about a given topic. When we write, you know it's an Algerian who is writing because we think in Algerian Arabic. We should know the difference between the two in order to write good English.
- We are English language learners. I think teachers should use authentic text frequently. It is a way to discover cultures through the writing of native speakers, and know about the differences that exist between their culture and ours.

Many specialists assert that effective language learning cannot go without students' awareness of the cultural codes of the target community. For example, Sun (2007) asserts that communicative competence in the target language cannot be achieved if the different views of people in different cultures are not taken into consideration. He goes on arguing that learning English as an entity devoid of culture would amount to learning meaningless symbols or symbols that are associated with the wrong meanings. In a similar vein, Kitao (1991) explains that many linguistic features express notions that are culturally-bound and therefore require language students to hold a different worldview if they are to perceive semantic subtleties. Tavares and Cavalcanti (1996) take a broader perspective on the issue of cultural awareness when they state that "the development of people's cultural awareness leads us to more critical thinking as citizens with political and social understanding of our own and other communities" (p.1). Sun's (2007) and Kitao's (1991) comments, in particular, are relevant to the context of EFL writing since many students tend to encode meanings using their mother tongue rather than the target language as a base

of reference, which may sometimes result in awkward sentences. Exposing students to cultural products such as authentic texts would help them perceive and gradually internalise the different ways in which the target language expresses various meanings.

2.2.3.6. Circumventing Classroom Boredom

Many motivational strategies are viewed as a means of circumventing classroom boredom and breaking up daily classroom routine. This is the most recurrent theme identified throughout the four focus discussions since it emerges in relation to various strategies, including 'use authentic texts', 'include tasks that incorporate creative elements', 'include challenging tasks', 'vary the learning tasks', 'involve the students in preparing and presenting the course', and 'have students correct their own written production'. The students' view is exemplified in the following quote:

> *We should be given the choice of the topic, so that we don't get bored. Our teacher always gives us the same topic to write about. If it's not technology, it's computers. If it's not computers, it's the internet.*

Another teacher-trainee puts:

> *To vary the learning tasks is important because doing the same thing is boring. The most annoying thing in our class is to repeat the same introductory paragraph for several weeks.*

The routinised and impliedly boring nature of learning is naturally not specific to the current learning environment. Schunk et al. (2014) take stock of the current situation in school contexts, pointing out that subjects and courses do not generate positive emotions but are instead a source of boredom and anxiety among students.

Boredom can be detrimental to learning since it most often results in detachment from the learning content. Pekrun (2009) asserts that negative emotions such as boredom have a pernicious effect on motivation, as opposed to positive emotions such as enjoyment of learning. It is also argued that debilitating emotions hinder academic achievement, lead to school dropouts, and affect students' psychological and physical health (Zeidner, 1998; cited in Pekrun, 2009). Furthermore, Wlodkowski (2008) associates the long-term effect of boredom with a decrease in dendritic growth, suggesting that lack of stimulation hampers the growth of complex neural pathways. Finally, empirical research investigating the role of emotions in classroom contexts revealed that boredom correlated negatively with measures of motivation, study behaviour, achievement, and self-regulated learning and positively with irrelevant thinking and external regulation (Pekrun, 2009). It is, therefore, the teacher's responsibility to bring together all the conditions required to break up classroom monotony and cancel out the negative consequences associated with classroom boredom.

2.2.3.7. Improving Students' Writing Skills

Many students report ascribing particular importance to the strategies that would help them improve their writing skills. For example, 'evaluation' strategies (i.e., 'provide students with feedback about their progress', 'check students' understanding of previously covered material through questioning, assigning homework, etc.', and 'have students correct their own written production') are believed to provide a source of information that would help them gauge their performance and redirect their effort in an attempt to remedy potential areas of deficiency. A couple of other 'task-related

interest' strategies (i.e., 'include challenging tasks and 'include tasks that incorporate creative elements') are believed to prompt greater effort and desire to do better than usual, which according to the majority of the students would ultimately help them refine their writing skills. The responses of two teacher-trainees are illustrative:

> *- She should give us homework, projects, simple things like this and check our work later on. It will be effective. This will oblige students to search and work in the home and improve their skills.*
> *- When we correct our own mistakes, we won't commit them in the future. We will avoid them next time and write better essays.*

Because 'evaluation' and 'task-related interest' strategies are seen by the teacher-trainees as bearing direct relevance to their learning, top priority should be given to planning and implementing them. Besides, empirical research done in relation to these strategies tends to prove students right. For instance, the positive impact of self-assessment on EFL learners' writing skills has been substantiated by a number of experimental studies (e.g., Bing, 2016; Fahimi & Rahimi, 2014; Javaherbakhsh, 2010). It is suggested that students' heightened consciousness of their errors and greater involvement during the self-assessment activity are factors that lead to greater improvement. Similarly, the use of creative tasks, at both university and school levels, was found to foster students' writing abilities (e.g., Tütüniş& Küçükali, 2014; Khoii & Amin, 2016). Tin (2013) explains that creative tasks improve language learning by prompting students to extend their vocabulary and grammar in an attempt to construct new meanings. Moreover, cognitively demanding tasks were found to generate greater accuracy, through directing students' attention on control of lexical structures (Kuiken & Vedder, 2007; Kuiken & Vedder, 2008).

2.2.4. Further Comments

The last interview question generates a fusion of ideas on the part of the students. I had to be very selective in determining how relevant and insightful their thoughts are in relation to the present study. Following a careful analysis of their responses, three main ideas seem to stand out as the most instructive ones.

The first idea has to do with the students' perception of the broader educational context as unfavourable to learning, and the need to provide supportive classroom environments that would act as a counterweight and tilt the scale toward greater motivation. According to the respondents, the shortage of academic books, lack of facilities, and poor transportation conditions are all factors that undermine their motivation to learn. One response is particularly revealing:

> *Everything about the school is frustrating. When you go to the restaurant, it's always crowded. Even in the school bus you have to fight to find a seat! After that you get into a boring classroom. I mean, when a class is motivating, you feel less the frustration.*

This perspective sheds light on the role of the various motivational factors that operate inside and outside the classroom in shaping students' motivation to learn and, therefore, the necessity of viewing the construct of academic motivation through a holistic lens.

Some students stress the importance of considering the learning context in the selection and prioritisation of motivational strategies. They illustrate the idea, suggesting that autonomy-supportive strategies, for example, would help them function independently and should, therefore, make up the most significant part of

motivational teaching in the context of teacher education. The following passage exemplifies their view:

> *I think that pre-service teachers should be taught how to be autonomous. It is not important in other situations like in middle or secondary school. But in our case, teachers must focus on these strategies. We are supposed to become autonomous teachers!*

It can be inferred, then, that the goal of a language teaching programme, among other aspects (e.g., age, culture, gender), exerts an influence on the way students perceive classroom motivational strategies. Consequently, it should be taken into consideration in deciding what motivational strategies should be given focus in a language course.

Other students insist on the role of teachers' personal qualities and interpersonal skills, such as professional competence and fairness, as important motivational determinants. From their perspective, the combination of motivational strategies with positive personal attributes would result in greater synergy by creating higher levels of motivation. As one student puts it:

> *Motivational strategies, madam, are very important, I know. However, I think teachers should be competent to fully motivate their students. When the teacher is knowledgeable, you feel that you are really learning. You get interested in the module.*

It seems that the personal attributes of teachers might play a contributing role in determining the extent to which motivational strategies are effective in sparking and maintaining students' motivation. This is no wonder when we consider that education

entails a human and a social dimension that affect teacher-student interaction patterns and, by the same token, the teaching-learning process.

Conclusion

The aim of the current chapter is to develop a deeper understanding of the findings obtained from the quantitative analysis of data conducted in phase I. The first part consists in looking into the factors that determine teachers' motivational strategy use by means of an interview. The focus is placed on the most and the least frequently used strategies among EFL writing teachers. The effectiveness of their motivational practices, as seen from their own perspective, on the students' writing motivation and achievement is also investigated.

Analysis of the interview responses reveals that EFL writing teachers use some strategies on a regular basis with the ultimate goal of fostering their students' engagement, task fulfillment, and writing skills. Secondary factors related to the immediate learning context are also at play. More accurately, overutilisation of some strategies appears to be influenced by class size, students' level of English proficiency, and class time length. Moreover, it appears that misconceptions constitute the primary reason explaining the scarcity or absence of some strategies from the teachers' motivational teaching repertoire. More specifically, these misconceptions are related to the suitability of some strategies to the current context of instruction. To be even more accurate, the technical nature and the focus of the writing module, the students' insufficient academic skills and knowledge, and strategy perceived uselessness are all aspects that cause teachers to dismiss some

motivational strategies as inappropriate. Further explanatory factors include lack of strategy awareness, the teachers' entrenched routine practices, and perceived difficulty in implementing some strategies. Moreover, the majority of the participating teachers hold the view that their motivational practices have a moderate effect on the teacher-trainees' writing motivation. The reported reasons are their limited range of motivational strategies and the teacher-trainees' reluctance to change their learning habits. They also believe that their motivational practices do not fully support their students' writing achievement. The students' laziness and unproductive learning habits are held to be the interfering factors.

The focus group interview reveals that the participating students do not consider their teachers' motivational practices to be fully effective. The limited range and the monotony resulting from the repetitive use of these strategies are reported to constitute the major impediment. From the teacher-trainees' perspective, the teachers' motivational practices are not quite effective in fostering their writing motivation. The behavioural consequences resulting from these practices, including the students' lack of concentration and disinterest in the writing task, are believed to impact their writing achievement. Further, it appears that 'autonomy', 'L2-related values', 'evaluation', and 'task-related interest' strategies are deemed motivationally significant because of their perceived potential to: 1) promote socially/emotionally engaging learning, 2) enhance students' satisfaction with their abilities, 3) provide relevance by relating the lesson/material to students' interests and future teaching career, 4) foster perceived teacher caring, 5) raise students' cultural awareness, 6) circumvent classroom boredom, and 7) improve students' writing skills. Ideas

emerging from further discussion bring to light the impact of the broader learning environment on students' motivation to learn, the importance of the personal characteristics and interpersonal skills of the teacher in fostering classroom motivation, and the role of the teacher training context in shaping the students' perceptions of motivational teaching strategies.

CHAPTER 7:

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

In this chapter, we shall discuss the pedagogical implications of the present study and provide recommendations on the basis of the quantitative and qualitative results. These recommendations are also formulated taking into account some characteristics of the current context of research.

1. EFL Teachers' Practices and Teacher-trainees' Perceptions

1.1. Aligning Motivational Strategy Use with Teacher-trainees' Perceptions

The current study supports the idea that the behavioural and academic benefits that can be derived from classroom motivational strategies involve, in the current teaching context, a careful readjustment of some strategies in line with their perceived importance, including, in particular, largely overused strategies relative to their perceived importance, i.e., 'goal-orientedness' and 'relevance of the lesson', as well as critically underused strategies relative to their perceived importance, i.e., 'autonomy', 'L2-related values', 'evaluation' and 'task-related interest' strategies.

The second implication arises from the conjunction of the results obtained from investigating the second and third research questions. Taken together, the results demonstrating an overall mismatch between the use of motivational teaching strategies and the teacher-trainees' perceptions and those supporting the impact of varying levels of match on the teacher-trainees' motivation suggest insufficient or poor levels of motivation in learning paragraph/essay writing among the study population.

Evidence also shows the impact of different levels of match on the teacher-trainees' writing motivation and writing achievement. These findings imply that the potential of L2 motivational strategies should not be evaluated in absolute terms, but should, rather, be assessed in relation to the importance attached to them by the target students. A parallel implication entails that language teachers' motivational practices are more likely to generate higher levels of motivation and yield positive academic outcomes when they are used in consonance with students' perceptions. In other terms, effective motivational language teaching that is conducive to students' engagement and subsequent success can only be expected if teachers fine-tune their motivational practices to accommodate students' preferences.

On the basis of the aforementioned implications, the following recommendations are drawn:

- Teachers are urged to develop a calibrated method of motivational language teaching that strikes the right balance between motivational teaching practices and students' perceptions. To this end, students' perceptions of motivational strategies should be measured at the beginning of the course, and classroom motivational practices ought to be adapted accordingly. The most straightforward way entails verbal questioning. A more systematic procedure, however, involves the use of a questionnaire, which would help teachers determine more accurately general tendencies in students' perceptions.

- EFL writing teachers should consider using with lower frequency rates the motivational strategies that turn out to be overused relative to their perceived importance. These strategies comprise:

a). *'Goal-orientedness' strategies'*: 1) state the lesson objectives or review progress made toward achieving the lesson objectives, 2) mention the latest time/date by which the task should be completed, 3) walk around the class to check on students' progress while on task.

b). *'Relevance of the lesson'*: relate the lesson to the everyday experiences of the students.

c). *'Teacher behaviour' strategies:* 1) share personal interest in the English writing skill with the students, 2) show availability to help students with all things academic, and 3) assist students when they work on task.

d). *'Finished products'*: include tasks that require students to write finished paragraphs/essays or constituent parts.

e). *'Proper presentation of the task' strategies*: 1) state the purpose or utility of the task, and 2) give clear instructions about how to carry out the task.

f). *'Classroom climate' strategies*: 1) use humor in the classroom, and 2) encourage risk taking in the classroom.

g). *'Display of performance'*: give students the opportunity to display good written productions in front of the class.

h). *'Recognition of effort'*: offer praise for effort or successful achievement.

- More importantly, focus should be put on planning and prioritising the motivational strategies that are largely underused relative to their importance. These motivational strategies are: *'autonomy', task-related interest', 'evaluation', and 'l2-related values'*. Although not an area of serious discrepancy, *'group cohesiveness'*

should also be adjusted to the students' perceptions by encouraging them to share knowledge and engaging them in pair/group work more frequently. The pedagogical recommendations relating to the former strategies are described in detail in the section below.

1.2. Readjusting the Motivational Strategies That Are Underused Relative to Their Perceived Importance

Analysis of the focus group interview indicates that 'autonomy', 'task-related interest', 'evaluation', and 'L2-related values' are associated with various positive experiences, ranging from increased feelings of satisfaction to perception of teacher caring. The teacher interview, on the other hand, reveals some precluding misconceptions associated with the majority of these strategies. These findings lead us to assume that a better understanding of motivational techniques in general and of the reasons underlying students' perceptions in particular would promote effective teaching practices and facilitate enhancement of the motivational and learning experiences. The following pedagogical measures are set out to help teachers take steps in this direction.

1.2.1. 'Autonomy' Strategies

To encourage autonomy in class, teachers can *involve the students in preparing and presenting the course*. During the interview, many teachers report doubting their students' ability to design and run the lesson on their own. Giving students simplified lesson plans to guide them through this process can help alleviate the teachers' doubts. It can also maximize the students' self-confidence in performing the task and increase their chances of success and satisfaction. The interview also reveals that

some teachers consider this strategy not to be well suited to teaching EFL writing. It is noteworthy that the teaching simulation activity in the writing classroom context is not set up to teach and evaluate specific skills or attitudes, as we believe this should be the focus of a formal instructional programme. The core idea behind it is to encourage students to take and share responsibility for their learning. Last but not least, teachers should consider the principle of equal opportunity when planning and implementing the motivational strategies that require intervention at the individual level, as is the case with the current strategy. It is, indeed, important that every student be given equal opportunity to participate. One way of getting around this problem in large classroom contexts is to assign different parts of the lesson to different students and set a time limit for each performance.

A further autonomy-supportive strategy consists in *allowing learners to make choices about aspects of their learning*, including the choice of selecting the topic, the activity, the teaching format, etc. One possible issue relating to this strategy is that the students may be fearful of taking the wrong decisions or may simply not feel ready to assume such responsibility. Similarly, the teachers may worry that their students' inappropriate choices would ultimately interfere with the lesson objectives. In the current context, this idea is conveyed by the majority of the teachers' responses. Therefore, we believe that students' empowerment, and the redefinition of roles this entails, should be a progressive process. This would allow students time to develop criteria of task relevance and help teachers feel more confident about sharing power with their students. To promote socially and emotionally sound learning, we recommend that teachers encourage responsible decision making among EFL

teacher-trainees. This can be achieved through:1) fostering a climate of trust and acceptance between teachers and teacher-trainees, 2) helping teacher-trainees make constructive choices that involve an evaluation of their actions and related consequences on their classmates and future teaching career, and 3) providing teacher-trainees with opportunities for increased interaction by planning activities that require the participants to share and negotiate ideas, feelings, or experiences in relation to the topic (e.g., brainstorming, cooperative work, creative tasks).

Promoting autonomy also means to *raise students' awareness of the strategies they can use to motivate themselves*. One of the most comprehensive compilations of self-motivating strategies in classroom context, derived essentially from research in the field of self-regulation, is provided by Dörnyei (2001), in his book *Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom*. Given the complexity involved in the writing skill, and the significant amount of time it takes to become a successful L2 writer, we recommend that teachers draw students' attention to the strategies that help them cope with feelings of failure and encourage continuous engagement in the EFL writing process. Such strategies include: 1) counteracting the effects associated with negative feedback (e.g., getting a bad mark on the writing test) by reflecting on meaningful values and experiences (e.g., being a good L2 speaker, remembering when you got a good mark), 2) using self-encouragement techniques, such as self-talk (e.g., I'm sure I can do it), 3) keeping in sight positive expectancies or incentives (e.g., getting a TOEFL scholarship), and 4) envisioning the potential negative consequences related to lack of diligence on EFL writing quality.

1.2.2. 'Task-related Interest' Strategies

In order to make a learning task more attractive, EFL writing teachers need to *include tasks that allow students to express their opinions/feelings/experiences.* This strategy should not prove problematic as topics drawing on the students' feelings, experiences, or opinions can readily fit into the overall objectives of the course. For instance, teachers can encourage their students to inject feelings when describing a place (descriptive paragraph/essay), write personal accounts of their experiences (narrative paragraph/essay), or express a personal point of view (argumentative paragraph/essay). It is worth mentioning, nonetheless, that a proper use of this strategy entails that teachers develop a vision of writing that includes ways of promoting students' personal experiences and interests. Analysis of the teacher interview reveals, in fact, an approach to EFL writing instruction that is largely focused on the rules for writing academic paragraphs/essays, which ultimately results in detachment from the students' interests. The focus group interview, on the other hand, indicates that teacher-trainees tend to value the pedagogical practices that connect with their personal interests.

Another way of sparking students' interest is to *include tasks that incorporate creative elements.* It should be admitted that introducing creativity in the current teaching context is no easy task. This is mainly because first- and second-year EFL writing courses are heavily constrained by learning goals that are exclusively geared toward promoting paragraph/essay writing skills. Hence, it is recommended that teachers place more focus on the creative activities that lend themselves to genre writing by allowing the creation of a particular type of essay or paragraph. For

example, teachers may engage students in writing short fiction stories and personal narratives when learning narrative paragraph/essay writing. Similarly, teachers can include public speaking activities that require students to write out a speech arguing for a chosen cause when learning argumentative paragraph/essay writing.

To further raise students' task-related interest, teachers can *include challenging tasks*. Challenging tasks require EFL teachers to design activities that engage students in high-level thinking processes, such as problem solving, abstracting, searching for information, drawing conclusions, analysing, etc. While academically stimulating, challenging tasks may prove problematic for both language learners and teachers. Challenging tasks can quickly turn frustrating if they are not carefully adapted to the students' level. Designing challenging tasks may also sometimes prove time-consuming. A further complication lies in setting appropriately challenging tasks, for this involves both knowledge of the factors that contribute to task difficulty and a realistic appraisal of what students are able and not able to do. The importance of maintaining a balance between difficulty and skill needs to be emphasized because students should have real opportunities to experience success and the satisfaction ensuing therefrom. In view of these considerations, it would be desirable that the EFL writing teachers who are willing to implement this strategy in their classes take a number of measures, including:

- Determining what prior knowledge students bring to the EFL writing classroom. Teachers may also need to solicit students' feedback on the task-related aspects they perceive as intellectually challenging. This would help

them pin down a suitable level of difficulty and set an appropriate standard against which to plan upcoming tasks.

- Early during the course, modeling the strategies and processes required to perform the challenging task. The benefits of teacher modeling have been largely documented in the education literature (e.g., Widdowson et al., 1996 Methe & Hintze, 2003).

- Encouraging students to self-monitor. Self-monitoring entails students to check their progress and question the validity of their actions while progressing through the task. This would enable them to readjust their strategies when necessary, which might prove very helping when dealing with complex tasks. Moreover, self-monitoring was found to promote autonomous language writing (e.g., Creswell, 2000).

- Developing a structured approach to designing challenging tasks. This requires teachers to choose, from a well-defined set of criteria, the aspects to be complexified. For example, Skehan's (1998) suggests a three-dimensional scheme of task difficulty, based on code complexity, cognitive complexity, and communicative stress. Figure 7.1 represents an adapted version of Skehan's (1998) scheme that teachers may want to use when designing challenging tasks.

A further step toward stimulating students' interest in the task is to *vary the learning tasks*. Many teachers taking part in the present study are found to rely on the same type of activities, those primarily intended to develop students' paragraph/essay

writing skills (e.g., essay writing, scrambled-sentence activities). Concern over getting the students to write effective paragraphs/essays should, however, not preclude the incorporation of diversified tasks. In fact, teachers can use many types of learning tasks that are compatible with or conducive to paragraph/essay writing. Some of these tasks are described below.

- **Research-based tasks:** research-based tasks require students to carry out small-scale research activities (project work) with the aim of writing a paragraph or an essay about a given pre-defined topic. This type of learning tasks is associated with a host of positive learning outcomes and opportunities. For example, they are held to increase students' autonomy, foster critical thinking through the evaluation and identification of prominent ideas, increase students' exposition to authentic tasks (e.g., the internet), create student-centered learning opportunities, promote active learning, and improve students' time- and resource- management skills.
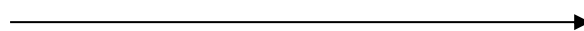
| Less challenging | $\longrightarrow$ | More challenging |

Code Complexity

- Simple syntactic structures

 (e.g., simple tenses)

- Simple lexical structures (e.g., familiar words)

- Little textual redundancy

- Complex, varied syntactic structures

 (e.g., compound tenses)

- Complex, varied lexical (e.g., technical terminology)

- Greater textual redundancy (e.g., paraphrase,

 Pronoun referents, synonyms)

Cognitive Complexity

-Greater familiarity with the topic

-Familiarity with the genre's convention

-Greater Familiarity with the task

-Little amount of information

-Concrete type of information (e.g., describing a room)

- Lower levels of organization

(e.g., synthesising various types of information)

-little familiarity with the topic

 -little familiarity with the genre's conventions

- Little familiarity with the task

- Greater amount of information

- Abstract type of information (e.g., describing

 ideas)

- Higher levels of organization

Communicative Stress

-Limited number of participants

- Loose completion deadline

- No final product required

-Greater amount of planning time

- Greater number of participants

- Tight completion deadline

-Final product required (e.g., essay)

- Real-time processing

Figure 7.1 Components of Task Difficulty (Adapted from Skehan's Model of Task Difficulty, 1998, p. 99)

- **Dictogloss and text-reconstruction tasks:** Dictogloss and text-reconstruction are two types of collaborative, form-on-focus techniques. Dictogloss is a dictation-based task that entails students to listen to a passage read at normal speed and then work collaboratively to reconstruct the original text. Text-reconstruction requires students to re-write a model paragraph or essay. These types of learning tasks are believed to help students develop better organizational skills, raise learners' awareness of the discursive elements used to construct a text, help them acquire various grammatical forms, and create occasions, called 'meta-talk', during with students negotiate and question their use of the target language (e.g., Qin, 2008; Shak, 2006).

- **Text transformation tasks**: text transformation requires students to turn a text of one particular genre into a text of a different genre by drawing on the ideas and information contained in the source text. By way of example, students can be asked to turn a poem into a narrative paragraph or a newspaper article into an argumentative essay. Text transformation tasks can be valuable means of promoting flexible thinking patterns, encouraging students to think creatively, and enhancing knowledge of the various cohesive devices and organizational features associated with different types of essays.

1.2.3. 'L2-related Values' Strategies

To promote L2-related values in the language classroom, teachers should *use authentic texts*, such as newspaper, articles, excerpts taken from books, short stories,

etc. In order to sustain students' motivation and prevent frustration, authentic texts should relate to students' interests, experiences, or practical purposes (e.g., topics about teaching), and display a degree of linguistic complexity that is slightly above the student's current level of linguistic competence. A further requirement, with particular relevance to the current context, involves using the current strategy with a view to promoting students' cultural awareness. This can be achieved through: 1) helping students identify culturally-based linguistic and stylistic differences, 2) raising students' awareness of the different ways in which the foreign culture encodes certain meanings (e.g., idioms), and 3) encouraging students to discuss, in reference to their own culture, the cultural perspectives embodied in authentic texts.

Encourage students to explore the British/American culture should be used as a complementary strategy for enhancing the learners' L2-related values. In the writing classroom, the most suitable alternative is to incorporate topics that require students to explore, reflect, and write about topics in relation to the target culture (e.g., religion, customs, art). Including topics that involve a comparison of the native and target cultures (e.g., comparison/contrast essay) would further contribute to raising the students' awareness of cultural similarities and differences.

A further strategy consists in *reminding the students of the benefits of successful English writing.* More particularly, this strategy has to do with the instrumental benefits derived from effective language writing. These benefits are obviously numerous, such as the possibility to engage in online conversation with native speakers, the ability to write formal emails, and a greater chance of being admitted to postgraduate programmes (e.g., doctoral programmes).

1.2.4. 'Evaluation' Strategies

One 'evaluation' strategy entails *checking students' understanding of previously covered material.* One potential issue regarding this strategy is that student evaluation in large classes is rarely conducted with every student individually*,* raising, once again, the issue of equal opportunity. In a question-and-response format of interaction, for example, teachers tend to call on the students who raise their hands or to allow chorus answers, which would inevitably lead them to overlook those who do not take part in the process. One possible, useful strategy of evaluation in large classroom contexts is the minute paper. The minute paper is a non-time consuming technique (roughly one minute) that involves asking students content-related questions, asking them to jot down the lesson aspects that are unclear to them, or assigning short activities (e.g., writing a topic sentence). The main advantage of minute papers is that they allow quick evaluation and feedback. In assessing whole paragraphs or essays, teachers may find it useful to select about ten papers to assess each time on a rotational basis. Teachers can also resort to technology. There exist a number of computer-based writing aids for EFL learning (e.g., EssayCritic) that are designed to give students corrective feedback and suggest ways by which they can improve their essays.

It is also important that teachers *have students correct their own written production.* The student respondents report attaching particular importance to this strategy because it would help them identify and remedy areas of weaknesses. To make this possible, however, self-assessment should enable the students to develop a clear representation of the aspects characterising good paragraph/essay writing. In

this regard, most specialists agree that self-assessment helps students internalise the criteria of evaluation by which their texts will be assessed (e.g., Wiggins, 1990). This is why it is recommended that the teachers make those criteria transparent by giving their students the same scoring rubrics they use when evaluating their performance.

Additionally, teachers should *provide students with feedback about their progress.* This strategy requires teachers to conduct a collective and/or an individual evaluation of students' texts (essays or paragraphs) on a regular basis. In large classes, keeping track of the progress of every student can prove particularly arduous, as this entails the provision of personalised content. One possible way forward could be the inclusion of a grading rubric that involves the evaluation of criteria in terms of categories reflecting improvement, (e.g., vocabulary: insufficient, average, good, Excellent), and then measure the students' progress on the basis of their evolution along these categories. This would help students identify the aspects that need further practice. If the teachers decide to use computer-mediated feedback, a comparison of the results generated from different texts may assist them in providing personalised feedback on progress. To give students collective feedback on progress, teachers can occasionally carry out an error analysis of students' paragraphs/essays, and subsequently display, discuss, and correct the most common errors made by the students.

2. Preliminary Measures: The Role of Stakeholders

2.1. The Role of the EFL Lecturer

The findings derived from the analysis of the teacher interview carry the overarching implication that EFL writing teachers lack proper understanding of various motivational techniques, which largely contributes to shaping their misconceptions with regard to the pedagogical relevance and feasibility of these strategies in the writing classroom. Their insufficient knowledge is also evident in their lack of awareness of the motivational arsenal available to them. Another implication pertains to their disinclination to invest more effort and time in planning and implementing some strategies. Reluctance to step out of their comfort zone and take risks by adopting strategies with which they are unfamiliar is a further implication. Besides, the interview analysis suggests that the motivational strategies employed by EFL writing teachers may fail to reach their full potential because the teacher-trainees' counterproductive habits are left unaddressed. Finally, analysis of the focus group interview suggests that the teacher's personal qualities/interpersonal skills and motivational strategies might have a synergic effect on students' writing motivation. The following part describes some pedagogical recommendations formulated in light of the above-cited implications:

- As part of their ongoing professional development, teachers are advised to develop a better understanding of the factors that shape L2 motivation and their implications in the English language classroom. This would help raise their awareness of language motivational strategies, dispel their misconceptions, and promote well-informed motivational practices.

- We recommend that teachers preserve some of their non-teaching time and effort to planning the motivational strategies that require careful consideration (e.g., include challenging tasks, use authentic texts).

- Teachers should be ready to take more risks by incorporating the motivational strategies they regard as potentially exacting (e.g., include challenging tasks). Teachers who conduct a prior investigation of students' preferred strategies should feel more comfortable taking instructional risks.

- To help students get rid of their old, unproductive learning habits, teachers need to confront them with their wrong beliefs. This entails clarifying to students the nature of these false assumptions and their consequences on EFL writing quality. Teachers are also invited to work on finding ways to get students to replace these habits with desirable learning behaviours. To get students in the habit of brainstorming, for instance, teachers can engage students in small group discussions, followed by whole-class debates.

- It is important to ensure that students develop favourable attitudes toward their teachers by promoting pedagogical practices that convey equity (e.g., the use of explicit evaluation criteria), competence (careful planning of instruction), and other desirable qualities/skills (e.g., effective classroom management).

2.2. The Role of Local Institutional Authorities

The findings derived from the qualitative analysis of data cast light on the negative influence of the broader learning environment on students' motivation to learn and the role of issues associated with large classes in directing teachers' attention away

from classroom motivational strategies. These results give further credence to the idea that motivational strategies do not happen in a vacuum but are inexorably bound to concomitant contextual factors that determine their use and their degree of success in the language learning classroom. In the current context of research, we believe it is incumbent upon local institutional authorities to play a supplementary role in creating and maintaining the conditions required to facilitate the task of the language teacher and sustain teacher-trainees' motivation to learn beyond the classroom walls. More specifically, local educational actors should:

- Mobilise the human and material resources needed to ensure lower teacher-to-student ratios. This measure would allow teachers to allocate more of their time and energy on working toward effective motivational teaching practices.

- Ensure the sustainable provision and funding of adequate educational resources, facilities, infrastructures, and other services necessary to create favourable learning conditions. This includes, among other things, well-resourced libraries, adequate transportation, well-equipped classrooms, and effective canteen services.

- Create opportunities to heighten teachers' awareness of the overriding importance of motivational language teaching. To achieve this aim, teacher professional development should involve seminars and training courses designed to help teachers gain knowledge of foreign language motivational strategies and develop ways of incorporating this knowledge into their teaching.

Conclusion

This chapter outlines the pedagogical implications of the present study. The recommendations derived from these implications are formulated with a view to helping EFL writing teachers improve the quality of their motivational teaching practices. More specifically, the research guidelines invite these teachers to calibrate their motivational practices to their students' perceptions and reconsider their strategy-related beliefs and instructional habits. Specific recommendations are also provided with reference to the motivational strategies that are critically underused relative to the importance attached to them by their EFL teacher-trainees. Furthermore, the chapter highlights the measures that need to be taken by local institutional authorities in order to facilitate the motivational task of the teachers and bolster teacher-trainees' motivation to learn.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

This study concerns itself with questions related to motivational teaching strategies in the Algerian context of EFL teacher education. More specifically, it explores the motivational teaching practices of EFL writing teachers (N=6). It also tries to give insights into teacher-trainees' (N=26) perceptions of motivational strategies. Besides, it investigates whether teachers' motivational practices are implemented in line with their teacher-trainees' (N=120) perceptions and seeks to uncover potential areas of mismatch. Finally, it endeavours to determine whether the level of match between the use of motivational strategies and their perceived importance affects students' writing motivation and achievement.

In order to achieve the aforementioned objectives, a mixed-methods explanatory sequential design is used. Phase I involves the quantitative analysis of data derived from an observation checklist, a three-part questionnaire (frequency/perception/writing motivation), and the students' examination papers (using a slightly modified version of weirs' (1990) analytic scoring rubric). Phase II describes the qualitative analysis of the data obtained from the follow-up interviews, designed on the basis of the quantitative research findings. The mixed methods design is, therefore, used as a means of achieving completeness of data. In addition to sequential triangulation, the study uses triangulation (observation checklist/questionnaire) for confirmation purpose. The aim is to ascertain the robustness of the findings relative to the use of motivational strategies by the participant teachers.

The quantitative research findings, both as evidenced by the observation checklist and the student questionnaire (frequency questionnaire), help us identify a general

pattern of relative frequency in the use of motivational strategies. It turns out that some motivational strategies are either overused or critically underused across the six EFL writing classrooms. The motivational strategies found to occur the most frequently are those which require the students to write 'finished products', involve the 'proper presentation of the task', and foster 'goal-orientedness'. The least frequently used strategies are those intended to promote 'autonomy', 'task-related interest', and 'L2-related values'.

The results obtained from the analysis of the student questionnaire (frequency /perception) indicate an overall mismatch between the use of L2 motivation strategies as implemented by EFL writing teachers and the relative importance attached to them by their teacher-trainees. In other terms, EFL writing teachers do not use motivational strategies in line with their teacher-trainees' perceptions. Also, important areas of mismatch between the motivational practices and the perceptions can be identified. More specifically, some motivational strategies are largely overused in comparison with the importance attached to them, including: 1) 'goal-orientedness', and 2) 'relevance of the lesson'. Other strategies are substantially underused relative to the importance ascribed to them. These strategies involve: 1) 'task-related interest', 2) 'autonomy', 3) 'L2-related values', and 4) 'evaluation'. These findings corroborate the research hypothesis that:

'*The use of motivational strategies as implemented by EFL writing teachers would not match the relative importance attached to them by their teacher-trainees because these strategies do not appear to be implemented in line with the teacher-trainees' perceptions*'.

Analysis of the data derived from the student questionnaire (frequency/perception) and the examination papers shows that the level of match between the use of motivational strategies and their perceived importance affects the teacher-trainees' writing motivation and writing achievement. The level of match between strategy use and perception is found to correlate strongly (r = 0.71) with the teacher-trainees' motivation and only very moderately (r=0.38) with their writing achievement. Moreover, the results from simple linear regression demonstrate that variation in the level of match between strategy use and perception accounts for a fairly large proportion of variance (50.7%) in the teacher-trainees' writing motivation and a moderate proportion of variance (20.9%) in their writing achievement. The results reported suggest that the level of match between the teachers' motivational practices and the teacher-trainees' perceptions affects the teacher-trainees' writing achievement through the mediating effect of motivation. This eventually led us to reject the (null) hypotheses that:

- '*The level of match between the use of motivational strategies and the relative importance attached to them does not affect the teacher-trainees' writing motivation*'.
- '*The level of match between the use of motivational strategies and the relative importance attached to them does not affect the teacher-trainees' writing achievement*'.

The qualitative research findings obtained from the analysis of the teacher interview responses contribute to gaining a deeper understanding of the teachers' motivational practices. The interview reveals that the EFL writing instructors overuse some motivational strategies with a view to increasing: 1) students' engagement, 2)

task fulfillment, and 3) writing performance. Other accounting but subsidiary factors are also found to influence strategy overuse, including class size, students' level of English proficiency, and class time length. The results also indicate that underutilization of some strategies stems primarily from misconceptions related to the suitability of these strategies to the current teaching context. The shaping factors bear on: 1) the nature and the focus of the EFL writing course, 2) the teacher-trainees' insufficient academic skills and knowledge, and 3) strategy perceived uselessness. Secondary factors encompass lack of strategy awareness, entrenched routine practices, and perceived difficulty in implementing some strategies. Finally, it turns out that most teachers view their motivational practices as lacking optimal effectiveness in promoting their students' writing motivation and writing achievement. The major obstructing factors are thought to be: 1) the teachers' limited range of motivational teaching strategies, 2) the students' unproductive learning habits, and 3) the students' reluctance to put forth effort to learn.

The qualitative analysis of data derived from the focus group interviews yields valuable insights into EFL teacher-trainees perceptions of motivational strategies. The results indicate that the monotony resulting from the limited and repetitive use of motivational strategies has a detrimental effect on the teacher-trainees' writing motivation. Besides, the behavioural consequences of these practices, i.e., 1) the students' lack of concentration and 2) disinterest in the writing task, appear to have a negative effect on the teacher-trainees' writing achievement. Furthermore, the motivational value of many strategies seems to derive from their potential to: 1) promote socially/emotionally engaging learning, 2) enhance students' satisfaction

with their abilities, 3) provide relevance by relating the lesson/material to students' interests and future teaching career, 4) foster perceived teacher caring, 5) raise students' cultural awareness, 6) circumvent classroom boredom, and 7) improve students' writing skills. Besides, motivational strategies are believed to be necessary but not sufficient. It turns out that the interaction of motivational strategies with aspects of the broader learning environment and the personal qualities/interpersonal skills of the teacher has a synergistic effect on the teachers-trainees' writing motivation. Finally, inference is drawn with regard to the role of the teacher education context in shaping the teacher-trainees' perceptions of motivational strategies.

Although the study has achieved its objectives, it is not without limitations. One important limitation is the reliance on simple linear regression to investigate the effects of the frequency/perception level of match on the teacher-trainees' motivation and writing achievement. Regression analyses are based on correlation and can, therefore, not be used to establish unequivocal causality. An experimental design investigating the hypothesized effects could lead to stronger causal inferences. A further inherent limitation relates to the questionnaire. More specifically, the number of items that the students were required to evaluate may have caused some students to feel bored, affecting consequently the accuracy of their answers. Furthermore, the use of a non-anonymous questionnaire may have led some of them to overrate their level of motivation for fear of repercussions. Moreover, the inclusion of exclusively observable, quantifiable strategies has resulted in overlooking other motivational techniques (e.g., show enthusiasm for teaching (teacher behaviour), make sure that grades also reflect effort and improvement (evaluation), avoid social comparison

(classroom climate), increase the amount of English you use in the class (L2-related values)).Taking into consideration these strategies may have yielded more nuanced results or uncovered further area of match or mismatch. The last limitation pertains to the current context of research. In the Algerian context of EFL teacher education, females make up the majority of the students. The teacher-trainees taking part in this study are, therefore, largely females. Conducting a similar study with a larger sample of male students may produce different results in relation to the level of match between motivational strategy use and perception as different perceptions may be involved. Lastly, the highly specific context of teacher education prevents generalisation of the findings to other contexts.

Based partly on the research findings and the limitations of the study, further avenues for future research can be suggested. First, quasi-experimental research is needed to explore the causal impact resulting from matching motivational teaching practices with students' perceptions on students' motivation and academic achievement. Moreover, longitudinal studies are required to investigate the potential shift in students' perceptions of motivational strategies throughout the course of their studies and, when relevant, determine the patterns of change and the influencing factors. Future research should also seek to understand the factors that shape Algerian teacher-trainees' perceptions of motivational strategies, including the role of culture, gender, and the topic taught. Finally, an important issue to work on for future studies is the incorporation of Algerian EFL teachers-trainees' preferences of motivational strategies as part of curriculum design and course development.

This study is intended to make contributions to the body of research on foreign language motivational strategies. It also provides a valid explanation for students' insufficient levels of writing motivation and achievement in the Algerian context of teacher education. The study also aims to help teachers exploit the pedagogical potential of motivational strategies by offering relevant practical guidance. Finally, we hope that the present work will give the impetus toward a motivational pedagogy that fully incorporates EFL teacher trainees' perspectives and prompt Algerian EFL teachers to engage in a systematic reflection on their own perceptions.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Authorization Statement to Access Students' Grade Records

الجمهورية الجزائرية الديمقراطية الشعبية

Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur Et de la Recherche Scientifique _____ Ecole Normale Supérieure _____ BOUZAREAH - ALGER		وزارة التعليم العالي و البحث العلمي _____ المدرسة العليا للأساتذة _____ بوزريعة – الجزائر

الجزائر في : 15/10/2014

TO Whom it may Concern

I hereby Mr. Abdelaziz Benkheddoudja, head of the Department of English of the 'Ecole Normale Superieure de Bouzaréah', authorize Ms. Karima Medfouni to consult students' official grade records of the writing module and use the needed information as part of her doctoral research.

Head of the Department

Appendix B: Cronbach's Alpha Test Results

Echelle: Group Cohesiveness

Récapitulatif de traitement des observations

		N	%
Observations	Valide	47	100,0
	Exclu[a]	0	,0
	Total	47	100,0

a. Suppression par liste basée sur toutes les variables de la procédure.

Statistiques de fiabilité

Alpha de Cronbach	Nombre d'éléments
,687	3

Echelle: Classroom Climate

Statistiques de fiabilité

Alpha de Cronbach	Nombre d'éléments
,628	3

Echelle: Self-confidence

Statistiques de fiabilité

Alpha de Cronbach	Nombre d'éléments
,608	3

Echelle: Interest

Statistiques de fiabilité

Alpha de Cronbach	Nombre d'éléments
,432	5

Statistiques de total des éléments

	Moyenne de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Variance de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Corrélation complète des éléments corrigés	Alpha de Cronbach en cas de suppression de l'élément
VAR00010	11,8085	7,071	,520	,115
VAR00011	11,4043	8,463	,383	,260
VAR00012	11,8298	7,405	,531	,126
VAR00013	11,8511	15,521	-,433	,766
VAR00014	12,0851	8,167	,432	,221

Echelle: Goal-orientedness

Statistiques de fiabilité

Alpha de Cronbach	Nombre d'éléments
,832	6

Echelle: Task

Statistiques de fiabilité

Alpha de Cronbach	Nombre d'éléments
,541	3

Statistiques de total des éléments

	Moyenne de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Variance de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Corrélation complète des éléments corrigés	Alpha de Cronbach en cas de suppression de l'élément
VAR00022	6,0638	4,539	,364	,421
VAR00023	5,9574	4,389	,486	,238
VAR00024	6,0213	4,934	,233	,637

Echelle: L2-related Values

Statistiques de fiabilité

Alpha de Cronbach	Nombre d'éléments
,743	3

Echelle: Evaluation

Statistiques de fiabilité

Alpha de Cronbach	Nombre d'éléments
,510	4

Statistiques de total des éléments

	Moyenne de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Variance de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Corrélation complète des éléments corrigés	Alpha de Cronbach en cas de suppression de l'élément
VAR00029	8,6170	4,807	,627	,051
VAR00030	8,5319	6,254	,543	,220
VAR00031	8,6383	7,192	,422	,345
VAR00032	8,9362	10,626	-,165	,805

Echelle: Teacher Behaviour

Statistiques de fiabilité

Alpha de Cronbach	Nombre d'éléments
,675	3

Echelle: Autonomy

Statistiques de fiabilité

Alpha de Cronbach	Nombre d'éléments
,709	3

Echelle: Recognition of Effort

Statistiques de fiabilité

Alpha de Cronbach	Nombre d'éléments
,584	3

Statistiques de total des éléments

	Moyenne de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Variance de l'échelle en cas de suppression d'un élément	Corrélation complète des éléments corrigés	Alpha de Cronbach en cas de suppression de l'élément
VAR00038	6,3830	5,415	,191	,711
VAR00039	6,6383	2,410	,592	,107
VAR00040	6,6383	3,192	,456	,381

Appendix C: Classroom Observation Checklist

Teacher's name: .... Gender: .... Age: ....Nationality: ....

EFL teaching experience (yrs): .... Qualification: ....Position: ....….

N	L2 Motivational Strategies	Tally Marks	Total Freq.
1.	Encourage students to share academic knowledge		
2.	Involve small group competition games		
3.	Use pair/group work		
4.	Use humor in the classroom		
5.	Encourage risk taking in the classroom		
6.	Use an interesting opening activity to start each class		
7.	Teach English writing strategies		
8.	Draw students' awareness of their strengths and abilities		
9.	Explain to students that they are able to succeed if they work hard		
10.	Include challenging tasks		
11.	Include tasks that incorporate creative elements		
12.	Vary the learning tasks		
13.	Include tasks that allow students to express their opinions/feelings/experiences		
14.	State the lesson objectivesor review progress made toward achieving the lesson objectives		
15.	Draw students' attention to the activities that can help them make progress		
16.	Raise students' awareness of the factors that can contribute to successful English writing		
17.	Mention the latest time/date by which the task should be completed		
18.	Encourage students to select learning goals and work toward them		
19.	Walk around the class to check on students' progress while on task		
20.	State the purpose or utility of the task		
21.	Give clear instructions about how to carry out the task		
22.	Remind students of the benefits of successful English writing		
23.	Use authentic texts		

24.	Encourage students to explore the British/American culture		
25.	Have students correct their own written production		
26.	Check students' understanding of previously covered material through questioning, assigning homework, etc.		
27.	Provide students with feedback about their progress		
28.	Share personal interest in the English writing skill with the students		
29.	Show availability to help students with all things academic		
30.	Assist students when they work on task		
31.	Involve the students in preparing and presenting the course		
32.	Allow learners to make choices about aspects of their learning		
33.	Raise students' awareness of the strategies they can use to motivate themselves		
34.	Offer rewards for successful accomplishments/progress		
35.	Offer praise for effort or successful achievement		
36.	Give students the opportunity to display good written productions in front of the class		
37.	Relate the lesson to the everyday experiences of the students		
38.	Include tasks that require students to write finished paragraphs/essays or constituent parts		
39.	Have students correct their classmate's written production		

Appendix D : Student Three-part Questionnaire

Part I: Perception Questionnaire

Listed below are motivational strategies that teachers of English may use in the classroom. Please read them carefully and indicate your opinion about how important you consider each motivational strategy in the English writing classroom by ticking the box that corresponds to your answer. Thank you very much for your time and cooperation.

Motivational Strategies	No important at all	Not important	Moderately important	Important	Very important
1. Encourage students to share academic knowledge.					
2. Involve small group competition games.					
3. Use pair/group work.					
4. Use humor in the classroom.					
5. Encourage risk taking in the classroom (e.g., encourage students to express their ideas or tell students not to worry about their mistakes).					
6. Use an interesting opening activity to start each class (e.g., crossword activity).					
7. Teach English writing strategies (e.g., brainstorming, outlining).					
8. Draw students' awareness of their strengths and abilities.					
9. Explain to students that they are able to succeed if they work hard.					
10. Include challenging tasks.					
11. Include tasks that incorporate creative elements (e.g., poems).					
12. Vary the learning tasks.					
13. Include tasks that allow students to express their opinions/feelings/experiences.					
14. State the lesson objectives or review progress made toward achieving the lesson objectives.					
15. Draw students' attention to the activities that can help them make progress.					
16. Raise students' awareness of the factors that can contribute to successful English writing.					
17. Mention the latest time/date by which the task should be completed.					
18. Encourage students to select learning goals and work toward them (e.g., writing good topic sentences).					

Motivational Strategies	No important at all	Not important	Moderately important	Important	Very important
19. Walk around the class to check on students' progress while on task.					
20. State the purpose or utility of the task.					
21. Give clear instructions about how to carry out the task.					
22. Remind students of the benefits of successful English writing.					
23. Use authentic texts (e.g., English magazines/newspapers).					
24. Encourage students to explore the British/American culture (e.g., read English novels).					
25. Have students correct their own written production.					
26. Check students' understanding of previously covered material through questioning, assigning homework, etc.					
27. Provide students with feedback about their progress.					
28. Share personal interest in the English writing skill with the students.					
29. Show availability to help students with all things academic.					
30. Assist students when they work on task					
31. Involve the students in preparing and presenting the course.					
32. Allow learners to make choices about aspects of their learning (e.g., choice of the topic or the activity).					
33. Raise students' awareness of the strategies they can use to motivate themselves (e.g., self-encouragement).					
34. Offer rewards for successful accomplishments/progress.					
35. Offer praise for effort or successful achievement.					
36. Give students the opportunity to display good written productions in front of the class.					
37. Relate the lesson to the everyday experiences of the students.					
38. Include tasks that require students to write finished paragraphs/essays or constituent parts (e.g., introductory paragraph).					
39. Have students correct their classmate's written production.					

Part II: Frequency Questionnaire

Listed below is the same set of motivational strategies. Please indicate how frequently you think your current teacher of writing uses these strategies. Answer the questions by ticking the bow that best reflects your opinion.

Motivational Strategies	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Very frequently
1. Encourage students to share academic knowledge.					
2. Involve small group competition games.					
3. Use pair/group work.					
4. Use humor in the classroom.					
5. Encourage risk taking in the classroom (e.g., encourage students to express their ideas or tell students not to worry about their mistakes.					
6. Use an interesting opening activity to start each class (e.g., crossword activity).					
7. Teach English writing strategies (e.g., brainstorming, outlining).					
8. Draw students' awareness of their strengths and abilities.					
9. Explain to students that they are able to succeed if they work hard.					
10. Include challenging tasks.					
11. Include tasks that incorporate creative elements.					
12. Vary the learning tasks.					
13. Include tasks that allow students to express their opinions/feelings/experiences.					
14. State the lesson objectives or review progress made toward achieving the lesson objectives.					
15. Draw students' attention to the activities that can help them make progress.					
16. Raise students' awareness of the factors that can contribute to successful English writing.					
17. Mention the latest time/date by which the task should be completed.					

Motivational Strategies	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Very frequently
18. Encourage students to select learning objective and work toward them (e.g., write good topic sentences).					
19. Walk around the class to check on students' progress while on task.					
20. State the purpose or utility of the task.					
21. Give clear instructions about how to carry out the task.					
22. Remind students of the benefits of successful English writing.					
23. Use authentic texts (e.g., English magazines/newspapers).					
24. Encourage students to explore the British/American culture (e.g., read English novels).					
25. Have students correct their own written production					
26. Check students' understanding of previously covered material through questioning, assigning homework, etc.					
27. Provide students with feedback about their progress.					
28. Share personal interest in the English writing skill with the students.					
29. Show availability to help students with all things academic.					
30. Assist students when they work on task.					
31. Involve the students in preparing and presenting the course.					
32. Allow learners to make choices about aspects of their learning (e.g., choice of the topic or the activity).					
33. Raise students' awareness of the strategies they can use to motivate themselves (e.g., self-encouragement).					
34. Offer rewards for successful accomplishments/progress.					
35. Offer praise for effort or successful achievement.					
36. Give students the opportunity to display good written productions in front of the class.					
37. Relate the lesson to the everyday experiences of the students.					
38. Include tasks that require students to write finished paragraphs/essays or constituent parts (e.g., introductory paragraph).					
39. Have students correct their classmate's written production.					

Part III: Writing Motivation Questionnaire

In the following section, we would like you to indicate the extent to which the following statements reflect you by giving a mark from 1 to 3. Note that:

Not true of me = **1**   Occasionally true of me = **2**   True of me = **3**

Items	Rating
1. I wish we had more writing lessons this year	
2. I like the writing course this year	
3. The writing module is my favourite module this year	
4. The writing course is a burden for me this year	
5. When the writing lesson ends, I often wish it could continue	
6. In the writing course this year, we have learnt many useful things	
7. I would rather spend time on subjects other than the writing module.	
8. I enjoy the writing course this year because what we do is neither too difficult nor too easy	
9. I want to work hard to make my teacher happy	
10. I feel my writing skill has improved this year	
11. I believe I will have a good overall average in writing this year	
12. I often experience a feeling of success in the writing course this year	
13. I am sure that one day I will be able to write a good paragraph/essay	
14. In the writing classroom this year, I usually understand what to do and how to do it.	
15. This year, I think I am good at writing	
16. I am worried about my ability to do well in the writing course this year	
17. I often volunteer to present my work in the writing classroom	
18. I get very worried if I make mistakes in the writing class this year.	
19. I am afraid that my classmates will laugh at me when I answer the teacher's questions or present my work.	
20. I feel more nervous in the writing class this year than in other classes	

Please answer the following questions:

Name: …………………………   English learning experience (yrs): ……..

Age: …………….

Gender: Male ☐   Female ☐   Grade: First year ☐ Second year ☐

Nationality: …………………..

Pursued level of certification: Middle school teacher ☐   Secondary school teacher   ☐

Appendix E: Analytic Scoring Rubric

Adequacy of Content

0. The answer bears almost no relation to the topic.
1. Answer of limited relevance to the topic.
2. For the most part, answer relevant to the topic.
3. Relevant and adequate answer to the topic.

Compositional Organization

0. No apparent organization of content in terms of paragraph/essay components.
1. Very little organization of content in terms of paragraph/essay components.
2. A moderately good organization of content in terms of paragraph/essay components.
3. A good organization of content in terms of paragraph/essay components.

Cohesion

0. Cohesion almost totally absent.
1. Unsatisfactory cohesion.
2. For the most part satisfactory cohesion.
3. Satisfactory use of Cohesion.

Adequacy of Vocabulary

0. Vocabulary inadequate even for the most basic parts of the intended meaning.
1. Frequent inadequacies of vocabulary for the task.
2. Some inadequacies of vocabulary for the task.
3. Almost no inadequacies of vocabulary for the task.

Grammar

0. Almost all grammatical patterns inaccurate
1. Frequent grammatical inaccuracies.
2. Some grammatical inaccuracies.
3. Almost no grammatical accuracies.

Punctuation

0. Ignorance of conventions of punctuation.
1. Low standard of accuracy in punctuation.
2. Some inaccuracies in punctuation.
3. Almost no accuracies in punctuation.

Spelling

0. Almost all spelling inaccurate.
1. Low standard of accuracy in spelling.
2. Some inaccuracies in spelling.
3. Almost no inaccuracies in spelling.

APPENDIX F: Frequency of L2 Motivational Strategies

(Observation Checklist)

N°	L2 Motivational Strategies and Scales	Absolute Frequency
1.	Encourage students to share academic knowledge.	01
2.	Involve small group competition games.	00
3.	Use pair/group work.	16
Group Cohesiveness		
4.	Use humor in the classroom.	19
5.	Encourage risk taking in the classroom.	13
6.	Use an interesting opening activity to start each class.	01
Classroom Climate		
7.	Teach English writing strategies.	13
8.	Draw students' awareness of their strengths and abilities.	06
9.	Explain to students that they are able to succeed if they work hard.	11
Self-confidence		
10.	Include challenging tasks.	01
11.	Include tasks that incorporate creative elements.	02
12.	Vary the learning tasks.	07
13.	Include tasks that allow students to express their opinions/feelings/experiences.	03
Task-related Interest		
14.	State the lesson objectives or review progress made toward achieving the lesson objectives.	26
15.	Draw students' attention to the activities that can help them make progress.	04
16.	Raise students' awareness of the factors that can contribute to successful English writing.	21
17.	Mention the latest time/date by which the task should be completed.	27
18.	Encourage students to select learning goals and work toward them.	02
19.	Walk around the class to check on students' progress while on task.	25
Goal-orientedness		
20.	State the purpose or utility of the task.	24
21.	Give clear instructions about how to carry out the task.	38

	Proper Presentation of the Task	
22.	Remind students of the benefits of successful English writing.	01
23.	Use authentic texts.	09
24.	Encourage students to explore the British/American culture.	01
	L2-related Values	
25.	Have students correct their own written production.	01
26.	Check students' understanding of previously covered material through questioning, assigning homework, etc.	26
27.	Provide students with feedback about their progress.	01
	Evaluation	
28.	Share personal interest in the English writing skill with the students.	04
29.	Show availability to help students with all things academic.	08
30.	Assist students when they work on task.	24
	Teacher Behaviour	
31.	Involve the students in preparing and presenting the course.	00
32.	Allow learners to make choices about aspects of their learning.	09
33.	Raise students' awareness of the strategies they can use to motivate themselves.	00
	Autonomy	
34.	Offer rewards for successful accomplishments/progress.	00
35.	Offer praise for effort or successful achievement.	36
	Recognition of Effort	
36.	Give students the opportunity to display good written productions in front of the class.	28
	Display of Performance	
37.	Relate the lesson to the everyday experiences of the students.	29
	Relevance of the Lesson	
38.	Include tasks that require students to write finished paragraphs/essays or constituent parts.	46
	Finished Products	
39.	Have students correct their classmate's written production.	17
	Peer Assessment	

Appendix G: Descriptive Statistics of L2 Motivational Strategies (Frequency Questionnaire)

	Scales and Motivational Strategies	Frequency of Strategy Use and Number of Respondents (%)					*M*	*SD*
		Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Very frequently		
1.	Encourage students to share academic knowledge.	9.2	21.7	46.7	18.3	4.2	2.87	**0.96**
2.	Involve small group competition games.	65.8	31.7	2.5	00	00	1.37	**0.53**
3.	Use pair/group work.	6.7	20.0	45	18.3	10	3.05	**1.02**
	Group Cohesiveness						**2.42**	0.44
4.	Use humor in the classroom.	00	17.5	56.7	21.7	4.2	3.13	**0.74**
5.	Encourage risk taking in the classroom.	0.8	6.7	40.8	44.2	7.5	3.51	**0.76**
6.	Use an interesting opening activity to start each class.	26.7	51.7	20.8	0.8	00	1.96	**0.71**
	Classroom Climate						**2.86**	0.47
7.	Teach English writing strategies	1.7	10.8	38.3	36.7	12.5	3.48	**0.90**
8.	Draw students' awareness of their strengths and abilities.	12.5	37.5	32.5	16.7	0.8	2.56	**0.94**
9.	Explain to students that they are able to succeed if they work hard.	1.7	16.7	58.3	21.7	1.7	3.05	**0.72**
	Self-confidence						**3.02**	0.56
10.	Include challenging tasks.	35	42.5	20.8	1.7	00	1.89	**0.78**
11.	Include tasks that incorporate creative elements.	17.5	40.8	33.3	8.3	00	2.33	**0.86**
12.	Vary the learning tasks.	16.7	48.3	34.2	0.8	00	2.19	**0.71**
13.	Include tasks that allow students to express their opinions/feelings/experiences.	14.2	48.3	35.8	1.7	00	2.25	**0.71**
	Task-related Interest						**2.16**	0.40
14.	State the lesson objectives or review progress made toward achieving the lesson objectives.	00	0.8	30	55	14.2	3.83	**0.66**
15.	Draw students' attention to the activities that can help them make progress.	7.5	28.3	45.8	16.7	1.7	2.77	**0.87**
16.	Raise students' awareness of the factors that can contribute to successful English writing.	2.5	19.2	54.2	21.7	2.5	3.03	**0.78**
17.	Mention the latest time/date by which the task should be completed.	0.8	1.7	25.0	53.3	19.2	3.88	**0.75**
18.	Encourage students to select learning goals and work toward them.	23.3	48.3	25.0	2.5	0.8	2.09	**0.81**
19.	Walk around the class to check on students' progress while on task.	0.8	3.3	23.3	55.8	16.7	3.84	**0.76**

No.	Item						Mean	SD
	Goal-orientedness						**3.23**	0.29
20.	State the purpose or utility of the task.	1.7	2.5	32.5	39.2	24.2	2.98	**0.79**
21.	Give clear instructions about how to carry out the task.	2.5	22.5	51.7	20.8	2.5	3.82	**0.88**
	Proper Presentation of the Task						**3.40**	0.82
22.	Remind students of the benefits of successful English writing.	53.3	35.0	10	1.7	00	1.60	**0.73**
23.	Use authentic texts.	0.8	14.2	44.2	33.3	7.5	2.63	**0.84**
24.	Encourage students to explore the British/American culture.	40.8	43.3	11.7	4.2	00	1.79	**0.80**
	L2-related Values						**2.34**	0.46
25.	Have students correct their own written production.	15	38.3	36.7	8.3	1.7	2.43	**0.90**
26.	Check students' understanding of previously covered material through questioning, assigning homework, etc.	0.8	9.2	46.7	34.2	9.2	3.42	**0.81**
27.	Provide students with feedback about their progress.	36.7	47.5	15.8	00	9.2	1.79	**0.69**
	Evaluation						**2.54**	0.43
28.	Share personal interest in the English writing skill with the students.	13.3	36.7	43.3	5.8	0.8	2.44	**0.82**
29.	Show availability to help students with all things academic.	6.7	24.2	41.7	22.5	5.0	2.95	**0.96**
30.	Assist students when they work on task.	1.7	16.7	46.7	25	10	3.25	**0.91**
	Teacher Behaviour						**2.88**	0.57
31.	Involve the students in preparing and presenting the course.	32.5	46.7	20	0.8	00	1.89	**0.74**
32.	Allow learners to make choices about aspects of their learning	16.7	40.8	30.8	10.8	0.8	2.38	**0.91**
33.	Raise students' awareness of the strategies they can use to motivate	35.8	47.5	14.2	2.5	00	1.83	**0.76**
	Autonomy						**2.03**	0.55
34.	Offer rewards for successful accomplishments/progress	34.2	54.2	11.7	00	00	1.78	**0.74**
35.	Offer praise for effort or successful achievement.	00	90.2	38.3	40	12.5	3.44	**0.82**
	Recognition of Effort						**2.61**	0.76
36.	Give students the opportunity to display good written productions in front of the class.	1.7	9.2	61.7	25.8	1.7	**3.17**	0.67
	Display of Performance							
37.	Relate the lesson to the everyday experiences of the students.	7.5	18.3	50	22.5	1.7	**2.92**	0.88
	Relevance of the Lesson							
38.	Include tasks that require students to write finished paragraphs/essays or constituent parts.	4.2	43.3	48.3	4.2	00	**3.53**	0.64

	Finished Products							
39.	Have students correct their classmate's written production.	7.5	32.5	54.2	5.8	00	**2.58**	0.71
	Peer Assessment							

Appendix H: Descriptive Statistics of L2 Motivational Strategies

(Perception Questionnaire)

	Scales and Motivational Strategies	Perceptions and Number of Respondents (%)					M	SD
		Not important at all	Not important	Moderately important	important	Very important		
1.	Encourage students to share academic knowledge.	00	5.0	21.7	50.8	22.5	3.91	**0.79**
2.	Involve small group competition games.	1.7	5.0	29.2	45.0	19.2	3.75	**0.88**
3.	Use pair/group work.	00	0.8	14.2	46.7	38.3	4.23	**0.71**
	Group Cohesiveness						3.96	**0.47**
4.	Use humor in the classroom.	00	6.7	22.5	50.8	20	3.89	**0.82**
5.	Encourage risk taking in the classroom.	00	6.7	43.3	35	15	3.58	**0.82**
6.	Use an interesting opening activity to start each class	00	8.3	51.7	33.3	6.7	3.38	**0.73**
	Classroom Climate						3.61	**0.56**
7.	Teach English writing strategies.	00	0.8	7.5	56.7	35	4.26	**0.62**
8.	Draw students' awareness of their strengths and abilities.	00	1.7	13.3	51.7	33.3	4.17	**0.71**
9.	Explain to students that they are able to succeed if they work hard.	00	4.2	37.5	50.8	7.5	3.62	**0.68**
	Self-confidence						4.01	**0.43**
10.	Include challenging tasks.	00	00	10	45.8	44.2	4.34	**0.65**
11.	Include tasks that incorporate creative elements.	00	00	8.3	54.2	37.5	4.29	**0.61**
12.	Vary the learning tasks.	00	00	15	60.8	24.2	4.09	**0.62**
13.	Include tasks that allow students to express their opinions/feelings/experiences.	00	2.5	12.5	55.8	29.2	4.12	**0.71**
	Task-related Interest						4.21	**0.34**
14.	State the lesson objectives or review progress made toward achieving the lesson objectives.	00	2.5	25.8	56.7	15	3.84	**0.69**
15.	Draw students' attention to the activities that can help them make progress.	00	0.8	11.7	51.7	35.8	4.23	**0.67**
16.	Raise students' awareness of the factors that can contribute to successful English writing.	00	00	5.8	57.5	36.7	4.31	**0.57**
17.	Mention the latest time/date by which the task should be completed.	00	17.5	44.2	30.8	7.5	3.23	**0.84**

No.	Item						Mean	
18.	Encourage students to select learning goals and work toward them.	00	17.5	51.7	27.5	3.3	3.17	**0.74**
19.	Walk around the class to check on students' progress while on task.	00	12.5	50.8	31.2	2.5	3.27	**0.70**
	Goal-orientedness						3.68	**0.30**
20.	State the purpose or utility of the task.	00	3.3	28.3	60	8.3	3.73	**0.65**
21.	Give clear instructions about how to carry out the task.	00	2.5	26.7	51.7	19.2	3.88	**0.74**
	Proper Presentation of the Task						3.80	**0.49**
22.	Remind students of the benefits of successful English writing.	00	3.3	15.8	55	25.8	4.03	**0.74**
23.	Use authentic texts.	00	2.5	19.2	60.8	17.5	3.93	**0.68**
24.	Encourage students to explore the British/American culture.	00	6.7	40.8	45	7.5	3.53	**0.73**
	L2-related Values						3.83	**0.48**
25.	Have students correct their own written production.	00	1.7	26.7	53.3	18.3	3.88	**0.71**
26.	Check students' understanding of previously covered material through questioning, assigning homework, etc.	00	00	8.3	47.5	44.2	4.36	**0.63**
27.	Provide students with feedback about their progress.	00	1.7	7.5	62.5	28.3	4.18	**0.63**
	Evaluation						4.13	**0.43**
28.	Share personal interest in the English writing skill with the students.	5.2	23.3	47.5	20	3.3	2.92	**0.89**
29.	Show availability to help students with all things academic.	00	13.3	34.2	45	6.7	3.45	**0.81**
30.	Assist students when they work on task.	00	5	33	55	6.7	3.63	**0.68**
	Teacher Behaviour						3.33	**0.47**
31.	Involve the students in preparing and presenting the course.	00	1.7	5.8	58.3	34.2	4.25	**0.63**
32.	Allow learners to make choices about aspects of their learning.	00	00	1.7	53.3	45	4.43	**0.53**
33.	Raise students' awareness of the strategies they can use to motivate themselves.	00	6.7	27.5	53.3	12.5	3.72	**0.76**
	Autonomy						4.13	**0.38**
34.	Offer rewards for successful accomplishments/progress.	2.5	25.8	55.8	15	0.8	2.87	**0.72**
35.	Offer praise for effort or successful achievement.	00	1.7	21.7	60.8	15.8	3.91	**0.66**
	Recognition of Effort						3.39	**0.47**
36.	Give students the opportunity to display good written productions in front of the class.	00	2.5	20.8	64.2	12.5	3.86	**0.64**
	Display of Performance							
37.	Relate the lesson to the everyday experiences of the students.	1.7	13.3	59.2	25	0.8	3.10	**0.69**

	Relevance of the Lesson							
38.	Include tasks that require students to write finished paragraphs/essays or constituent parts.	00	0.8	13.3	65	20.8	4.06	**0.61**
	Finished Products							
39.	Have students correct their classmate's written production.	19.2	30.8	40	7.5	2.5	2.66	**0.65**
	Peer Assessment							

Simple Linear Regression N°1*:*

Regression Analysis Output (Including the Durbin-Watson test (**Independence of errors**)):

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
A	0.287944	0.026019	11.06667	0.0000
C	20.57023	1.916901	10.73098	0.0000

R-squared	0.509297	Mean dependent var	41.47500
Adjusted R-squared	0.505138	S.D. dependent var	5.075833
S.E. of regression	3.570667	Akaike info criterion	5.399908
Sum squared resid	1504.460	Schwarz criterion	5.446366
Log likelihood	-321.9945	Hannan-Quinn criter.	5.418775
F-statistic	122.4711	Durbin-Watson stat	1.745358
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000		

The Jarque-Bera Test (Normality of Data):

Series: Residuals	
Sample 1 120	
Observations 120	
Mean	-8.96e-16
Median	0.115113
Maximum	4.435734
Minimum	-4.637712
Std. Dev.	1.756545
Skewness	0.017473
Kurtosis	3.113925
Jarque-Bera	0.071001
Probability	0.965122
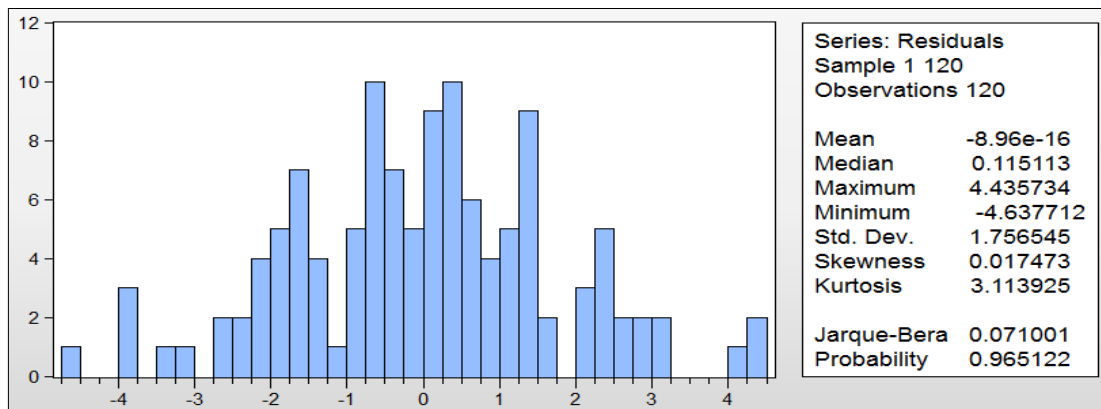
The White Test (Homoscedasticity):

Heteroskedasticity Test: White			
F-statistic	0.115749	Prob. F(2,117)	0.8908
Obs*R-squared	0.236965	Prob. Chi-Square(2)	0.8883
Scaled explained SS	3.060657	Prob. Chi-Square(2)	0.2165

Simple Linear Regression N° 2:

Regression Analysis Output (Including the Durbin-Watson test) (Independence of errors):

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
A	0.057463	0.010679	5.380857	0.0000
C	6.156193	0.843564	7.297841	0.0000

R-squared	0.209200	Mean dependent var	10.32500
Adjusted R-squared	0.188748	S.D. dependent var	1.901625
S.E. of regression	1.712784	Akaike info criterion	3.947509
Sum squared resid	340.3011	Schwarz criterion	4.040425
Log likelihood	-232.8505	Hannan-Quinn criter.	3.985243
F-statistic	10.22895	Durbin-Watson stat	1.939396
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000005		

The Jarque-Bera Test (Normality of Data):

Series: Residuals
Sample 1 120
Observations 120

Mean	0.000982
Median	0.139898
Maximum	3.980381
Minimum	-4.359894
Std. Dev.	1.691056
Skewness	-0.072572
Kurtosis	2.895145
Jarque-Bera	0.160306
Probability	0.922975
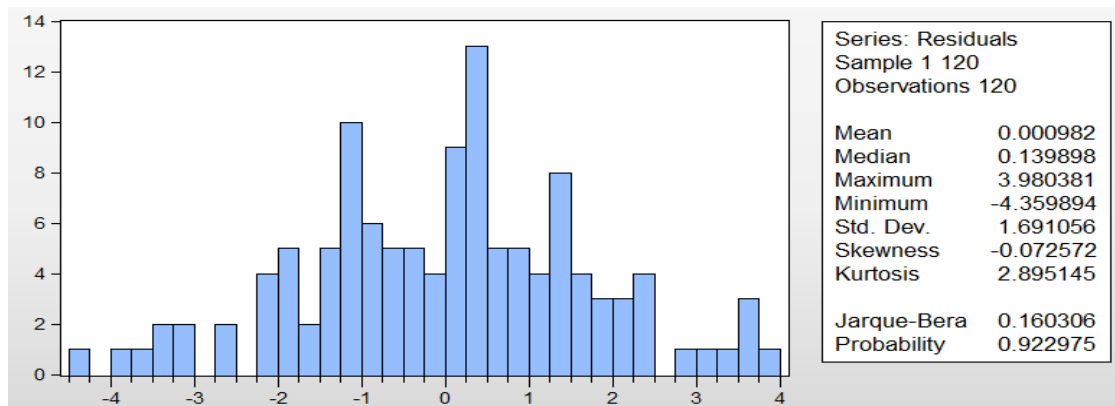
The White Test (Homoscedasticity):

Heteroskedasticity Test: White			
F-statistic	2.602405	Prob. F(3,116)	0.0553
Obs*R-squared	7.567134	Prob. Chi-Square(3)	0.0559
Scaled explained SS	6.573405	Prob. Chi-Square(3)	0.0868

Appendix J: Teacher Interview Questions

Q1: How frequently do you use each of the following strategies in your writing classroom? Can you tell me why?

- Mention the latest time or date by which the task should be completed.
- State the lesson objectives or review progress made toward achieving the lesson objectives.
- Give clear instructions about how to carry out the task.
- State the purpose or utility of the task.
- Include tasks that require students to write finished paragraphs, essays or constituent parts, such as introductory paragraphs.

Q2: Do you think your motivational practices are effective in fostering your students' motivation? If no, how would you explain it?

Q3: Do you think your motivational practices are effective in enhancing your students' writing achievement? If no, how would you explain it?

Q4: How frequently do you use each of the following strategies? Can you tell me why?

- Involve the students in preparing and presenting the course.
- Allow learners to make choices about aspects of their learning.
- Raise students' awareness of the strategies they can use to motivate themselves.
- Include challenging tasks.
- Include tasks that incorporate creative elements.
- Vary the learning tasks
- Include tasks that allow students to express their opinions, feelings, or experiences.
- Remind students of the benefits of successful English writing.
- Encourage students to explore the British or American culture.

Q5: Do you have anything else to add?

Appendix K: Focus Group Interview Questions

Q1: Do you think the motivational strategies that your writing teacher uses are effective in creating a motivating classroom? If no, how would you explain it?

Q2: Do you think the motivational strategies that your writing teacher uses are effective in improving your writing skills? If no, how would you explain it?

Q3: Here is a list of motivational strategies. How important are the following strategies? Can you tell me why?

1. 'Autonomy' strategies.
   - Involve the students in preparing and presenting the course.
   - Allow learners to make choices about aspects of their learning.
   - Raise students' awareness of the strategies they can use to motivate themselves.

2. 'Task-related interest' strategies.
   - Include challenging tasks.
   - Include tasks that incorporate creative elements.
   - Vary the learning tasks.
   - Include tasks that allow students to express their opinions, feelings, or experiences.

3. 'Evaluation' strategies:
   - Have students correct their own written production.
   - Check students' understanding of previously covered material through questioning, assigning homework, etc.
   - Provide students with feedback about their progress.

4. 'L2-related-values' strategies
   - Remind students of the benefits of successful English writing.
   - Use authentic texts.
   - Encourage students to explore the British or American culture.

Q5: Do you have anything else to add?

Résumé

La présente étude a pour objectif l'investigation des stratégies motivationnelles utilisées dans l'enseignement de l'anglais comme langue étrangère, dans le cadre de la formation des enseignants de langue étrangère. À partir d'une problématique qui s'articule, essentiellement, autour des niveaux insatisfaisants des enseignants stagiaires dans le domaine de l'écrit, d'une part, et de la rareté des recherches quant à l'efficacité des stratégies motivationnelles comme perçues par les apprenants, d'autre part, la présente recherche tente d'atteindre les buts suivants : 1) contribuer à la recherches sur les stratégies motivationnelles dans l'enseignement de l'anglais comme langue étrangère, 2) offrir une explication plausible sur les niveaux insuffisants quant à la motivation et à la performance à l'écrit, 3) proposer une aide qui consiste à promouvoir effectivement la motivation chez les enseignants stagiaires, et enfin 4) motiver les enseignants dans le sens de la pratique d'un enseignement qui va pertinemment intégrer les perceptions des enseignants stagiaires de ce type de stratégies. L'échantillon aléatoire tiré de la population cible est constitué de six enseignants de l'écrit et de 120 enseignants stagiaires inscrits à 'l'École Normale Supérieure de Bouzareah', Alger. Les résultats obtenus à partir de méthodes mixtes indiquent, globalement, que les enseignants ont tendance à surutiliser ou à sous-utiliser quelques stratégies motivationnelles. Dans l'ensemble, les résultats sont dans la direction de l'hypothèse principale qui énonce essentiellement que : 'l'usage des stratégies motivationnelles telles que pratiquées par les enseignants de l'anglais comme langue étrangère ne serait pas en accord avec les perceptions de celles-ci par les enseignants stagiaires'. Ils nous conduisent également à rejeter les hypothèses nulles qui sont rattachées à l'hypothèse principale et de conclure que le degré de concordance entre l'usage des stratégies motivationnelles et la perception de ces mêmes stratégies affecte la motivation et la performance à l'écrit des enseignants stagiaires. De plus, les résultats qualitatifs apportent d'avantage d'éclairage sur les résultats quantitatifs. Sur la base de l'ensemble des résultats, la recommandation majeure est que les enseignants doivent ajuster leurs pratiques motivationnelles aux perceptions de celles-ci par les enseignants stagiaires.

الملخص

تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى استثمار استراتيجيات تحفيزية يتم توظيفها في تعليم اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية في إطار تكوين معلمي اللغة الأجنبية. وانطلاقا من الإشكالية المتمثلة أساسا في عدم كفاية مستويات إنجاز المعلمين المتدربين في مجال الكتابة، من جهة، وندرة البحوث حول فعالية الاستراتيجيات التحفيزية للغة الثانية / الأجنبية مثلما يتصورها الطلاب، من ناحية أخرى، يسعى البحث الحالي إلى تحقيق الأهداف الآتية: 1- الإسهام في البحث حول استراتيجيات تحفيز اللغة الإنجليزية باعتبارها لغة أجنبية 2- تقديم تفسير معقول للّغة الإنجليزية حول المستويات غير الكافية بخصوص التحفيز والتحصيل الكتابي المتقَن 3- اقتراح دعمٍ لتطوير الممارسات التحفيزية الفعّالة لدى المعلِّمين المتدرّبين 4- دفع المعلِّمين إلى ممارسة التدريس التحفيزي الذي يتضمن إدراج تصورات المعلمين المتدرّبين لهذا النوع من الإستراتيجيات. تتألف العيّنة التي تم سحبها عشوائيا من المجموعة المستهدفة بالدراسة من ستة أساتذة يدرّسون مقياس التحرير الكتابي ومئتين وعشرين معلِّما متدرّبا مسجّلين في "المدرسة العليا للأساتذة"، ببوزريعة بالجزائر العاصمة. وتُظهر النتائج التي تم الحصول عليها من خلال تصميم متعدّد الأساليب أن المعلِّمين يميلون إلى الإفراط في استخدام بعض الاستراتيجيات التحفيزية، وعلى النقيض من ذلك يقلِّلون من استخدام استراتيجيات أخرى. وفي المحصلة، فإن النتائج، عموما، في اتجاه الفرضية الأساسية التي تنص على أن: "استخدام الاستراتيجيات التحفيزية مثلما يطبقها معلمو اللغة الإنجليزية باعتبارها لغة أجنبية لا تتناسب مع أهميتها على نحو ما يتصوّره المتدرّبون. كما أنها تقودنا إلى رفض الفرضيات الصفرية المرتبطة بها، ونخُلص إلى أن مستوى التطابق بين استخدام الاستراتيجيات التحفيزية وأهميتها المتصورة يؤثر على دافع الكتابة لدى المتدربين وإنجازهم. وعلاوة على ذلك، تساعد النتائج النوعية على إلقاء الضوء على الممارسات التحفيزية للمعلمين وتصورات المتدربين على الاستراتيجيات التحفيزية الكمية. وانطلاقا من مجموع النتائج، فإن التوصية الأساسية للدراسة ترتكز على وجوب ضبطهم وتدقيقهم للممارسات التحفيزية وفق التصورات الموصولة بها.