The Impact of Incompetent English Language Teacher on
EFL Learner’s Motivation:
A Case Study on Basic School pupils in Greater Wad Medani Locality, Gazira State, Sudan

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A Thesis

Submitted to the University of Gezira in Fulfillment of the
Requirements

For the Award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

in

Applied Linguistics

Department of Foreign Languages

Faculty of Education – EL- Hassahisa

June, 2016
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A case Study on: Basic School( pupils) in Madani Locality, GaziraState,Sudan

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Date of Examination: 31 / 7 /2016
Dedication

To those who are suffering and still suffering in Sudan

To My family
Acknowledgements

First of all, praise is to Allah, the Almighty Allah, Who made it possible for me to carry out this study. I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisor Dr. AhmeGasmALseed for his invaluable help and support with this study. Thanks are also due to my Co-supervisors Dr. AbdAl-gayoom Mohammed for his guidance and the insightful comments that he has made to enrich this study. Thanks also go to the staff at the Department of foreign language in the faculty of education Hassahiessa.
Impact of Incompetent English Language Teacher on EFL Learner’s Motivation:
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Abstract

This study attempts to develop teacher’s performance in teaching English language as a foreign language. To create teacher’s quality by developing teacher’s competence. Also develop effectiveness of EFL learner’s motivation by initiating teacher qualities. The study used descriptive analytical methods. The questionnaire and interview was used as tools to collecting data. Questionnaires were carried out with (150) EFL teachers. The study used Statistical package for Social Science program (SPSS) to analyze the data. The findings revealed that: A competent teacher seizes every opportunity to encourage learning, believing that all students can learn. A good teacher understands the importance of developing oneself before he is able to provide support for others. To develop competence, teachers need to progress from awareness to capacity building. The use of visual – aids arouses learner’s motivation in learning. Syllabus pays no attention to some of learners’ needs on EFL. To motivate students during the classroom, a teacher should provide his learners with audio visual aids to appeal them for lessons. Teacher who is communicatively incompetent will be unable to teach English language communicatively. Teachers can make a difference for better or for worse, in motivating students to learn the study recommends that: Teachers should receive training on lesson planning and classroom management. Mutual respecting is very important between teachers and learners inside the classroom because it enhance treatment between them. The lack of motivation makes student uncomfortable and un active.
تأثير معلم اللغة الإنجليزية غير الكفء على دافعية طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية:
دراسة حالة مدارس الأساس، محلية ود مني الكبرى، ولاية الجزيرة، السودان
شهاب محمد أبو عاقلة

ملخص الدراسة
تحاول هذه الدراسة تطوير أداء الأستاذ في تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية وذلك بخلق مؤهلات عن طريق تطوير مقدرات الأستاذ وتطوير فعالية المتعلمين للغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية بتحفيزهم بواسطة مؤهلات المعلم. استخدمت الدراسة الواجهة الوصفي التحليلي. كما استخدمت الاستبيان وكذلك المقابلة لجمع المعلومات. شارك في الاستبيان عدد (150) معلم كما استخدمت الدراسة برنامج الحزم الإحصائية (SPSS) لتحليل البيانات. وكانت النتائج كالآتي:

المدرس المختص يوفر كل فرصة لتشجيع التعلم، معتبرا أن جميع الطلاب يمكن أن يتعلموا. المعلم الجيد يدرك مدى أهمية تطوير نفسه قبل أن يكون قادرًا على تقديم الدعم للآخرين. لتطوير الكفاءة يحتاج المعلمون إلى وعي متقدم لبناء قدراتهم. استخدام الوسائل السمعية والبصرية يحفز المتعلمين.

المنهج لا يلتفت إلى الدوافع الخاصة للمتعلمين للغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية. ليتم تجفيف الطلاب أثناء الدرس على الأستاذ أن يقوم باستخدام وسيلة سمعية يختص بالدرس. الأستاذ غير مؤهل للتواصل لا يستطيع تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية بطريقة التواصل. الأستاذ عامل جيد أو سيء في تحفيز المتعلمين. أوصت الدراسة بالآتي: يجب أن يتلقى الأستاذ تدريبا على تحفيز الدرس وإدارة الفصل. الاحترام المتبادل بين الأستاذ والمتعلم مهم جدا داخل الفصل لأنه يطور التعامل بينهما. عدم التحفيز يجعل الطلاب غير راغبين وغير نشطين.
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background

The impact of incompetent English language teacher on EFL learner’s motivation has become an apparent problem in the third world countries like Sudan where English language is considered as a foreign or a second language to many speakers and teachers. Therefore, there is an urgent need for the competent English language teacher in EFL learner’s motivation in basic Schools where children are equipped with some qualities in order to improve both the standards of English language teacher and learner’s motivation as well. For the sake of developing global technology, and participate in building global technology via preparing competent English language teacher on EFL learner's motivation. As matter of fact, a competent teacher and EFL learner’s motivation demand a considerable amount of knowledge and mastery of various aspects of language elements such as vocabulary, structures, grammar and style. Therefore, such a mature stage of learning cannot be achieved unless there is a comprehensive and effective teaching. So, the main philosophy of this research is to focus on the impact of incompetent English language teacher in EFL learner’s motivation. The EFL learner’s motivation turns to be an uneasy task. However, a need for more qualified teachers of English language has been born in mind as an intention to solve a problem.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Identifying the impact of incompetent English language teacher on EFL learner's motivation is obviously considered as a main issue which requires deep investigation. Also It can be taken as an outlet to encounter the lack of competence for both teachers and learners. This study deals
constructively with the implicit and explicit aspects of EFL learner’s motivation. Solely, the lack of learner’s motivation is considered as a prominent one in this study. This makes the described problem as a critical issue to warrant the study. Lacking of highly qualified teachers leads to a serious drop in the levels of students in English language competence, students can absented themselves from attending regular lessons and feel upset and bored to learn new language because they believe that learning new or foreign language is a big challenge and difficult task. So, any teaching process which is undergone by less qualified teachers results in less competence.

However, parents and students are accustomed to teacher’s persuasion and tolerance for the sake of imparting genuinely societal values and language. But it is not easy after all to develop competence. Logically, supervisor and school administration ought to denounce tediousness or frivolousness of teaching and encourage effective EFL learner’s motivation, i.e. teaching quality.

Finally the difficulties which confront teachers ought to be eliminated because the importance of motivation can be seen as lime-light. In other words, the lack of competent teacher on EFL learner’s motivation is either apart of problem or a whole problem.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

This research intends to investigate the impact of incompetent English language teacher on EFL learner’s motivation is intended to contribute constructively to the discourse so as to eliminate lack of competence and EFL learners’ motivation erosion in basic schools. The study is directed to explain how teacher, language, and teaching knowledge, and environment are transformed to create competent English
language teacher on EFL learner’s motivation, i.e. the competent teacher. Specially, teaching environment demands a special teacher with language knowledge to become competent English language teacher on EFL learner’s motivation. The research emphasizes improvement of EFL learner’s motivation and equipping English language teacher with all weapons to fight against shortcomings, such as, bad EFL learner’s motivation and so forth.

This makes the study follows the précised objectives:

1- To develop teacher’s performance in teaching English language as a second language.
2- To create teacher’s qualities by developing teacher’s competence.
3- To develop effectiveness of EFL learners motivation by initiating teacher qualities.
4- To encourage authenticity of teaching.
5- To design and develop model of qualities of teacher for teaching English language as a second language.

1.3 Questions of the Study

The present research aims at finding out the impact of incompetent English language teacher on EFL learner’s motivation. It attempts to answers the following questions:

1. When does English language teacher become competent?
2. How can qualities of competent English language teacher be creative?
3. What does make a competent English language teacher on EFL?
4. How does effectiveness contribute to the creation of qualities of competent English language teacher on EFL learner’s motivation?
5. Why has a search for ‘impact of incompetent English language teacher on EFL learner’s motivation’ been given an upper hand?
1.4 **Hypotheses of the Study**

1- Access of good qualities makes a successful teacher.
2- Organized teaching leads to high standard in teacher’s qualities.
3- Appropriate EFL learner’s motivation is a result of a competent English language teacher.
4- Effective EFL learner’s motivation achieves societal betterment or development.
5- Teaching ability demands competence teacher on EFL learning motivation.

1.5 **Significance of the Study**

This study will be of a great and significant value to the teachers, students, researchers, in addition to field of knowledge substantiate effective teaching and sound understanding. Researchers as producers of new ideas need to stand beside an idea of initiating competence teacher for teaching English language as a second language. Teachers as practitioners of qualities can approve the research concept to the strengthen manners of EFL learners motivation. Students want to benefit through teacher who imparts knowledge. The field of knowledge supplements confidence in the field of EFL learner’s motivation. And any research does the same. Since the intention of the impact of incompetent English language teacher on EFL learners motivation has been raised, are must expect solution to teaching problems. The study is leading to keen EFL learning motivation.

Furthermore, the research is expected to fill the gaps left out by previous researchers on incompetence teacher and learners motivation.

1.6 **Methodology**

The study adopts the descriptive analytical method. A questionnaire and interview were used as tools of data collection.
1.7 Limits of the Study

Apparently, most research focuses on three aspects:

Place of the study, research field, and research problem. The place of study is Madani city which is one of the Sudanese cities. The study has been carried out in some basic schools which are scattered within the country. The country schools subsume both government and private schools. The field of this research is ‘the impact of incompetent English language teacher on EFL learner’s motivation. This study focuses mainly on the impact of incompetent teacher in Madani basic schools. The target group in this study is English language teachers in some basic schools in Madani city. Substantially, research problems must be undergone when a new field of the research is under focus. In this pendulum; thorns are pressed on the way. These may include field work difficulties, transport, and sponsorship.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction
This study aims to explore the impact of incompetent English language teacher on EFL learner’s motivation in basic schools in Sudan. It is divided into two main sections. The first section includes the theoretical framework which presents a background about concept of a competent English language teacher, the concept of competence, the qualities of a good English language teacher, some different teaching methods, motivation and its definition and types, enthusiasm, teacher development, foreign language learning (L2) motivation. While, the second section includes the previous empirical studies related to the study.

2.1 Concept of a Competent English Language Teacher

2.1.1 English language

English language is well known as language of English people. But linguists hold a different view. Philipson (2006:13) ascertain that:

"English serves as a means of interpersonal communication between speakers of different indigenous languages. But those authors maintain that English language may be viewed as an imperialist language, imposed by colonial oppressors and impeding the role of indigenous language, or as the language of liberation and nationalism in countries divided by tribal loyalties."

Crystal (1999:13), Kachru (1985:11-30) Thornbury and Slade (2006:27), Widdowson (2006:11) regard English language as the language of modernization and technological advancement, whereas it is used for internal communication in numerous countries that were once part of the British Empire. English language which is taught to foreign
learners is a British or an American standard variety. The characteristics of standard language are pointed out by authors as follow: the public language of official communication in central and local governments, the language of parliament, the court, mass media and educational system.

2.1.2 The Concept of Competence

Crystal (1999: 14&2002:13) define competence as what a speaker intuitively knows about his/her language. Widdowson (1997:24) argues that competence is the knowledge that native speakers have of their language as a system of abstract formal relation, but what is known cannot be equated with what is done. Dictionaries such as Oxford Advanced Learners Encyclopedic and Applied Linguistic maintain that competence means having the necessary ability, authority, skill, and sound knowledge.

The term competence has been associated with other terms like ‘communicative competence’ and ‘linguistic competence’. Hyme (1972:11) and Richards (1985:49) declare that communicative competence and linguistic competence deal with the ability not only to apply the grammatical rules of language in order to form grammatical correct sentences but also to know when and where to use these sentences and with whom. Cook (2009:41-42) states that isolating the formal systems of language, such as pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary, either for learning or for analysis is a useful first step. Chomsky (1957:9 and 2002:13) associated competence with performance. Chomsky says “competence is what a native speaker intuitively knows about his/her language – and performance refers to what s/he uses the language.

Generally, competence can be defined as the ability to perform and prescribe tasks. Teacher’s competence denotes her/his mastery products, processes of language and the capacity to impart knowledge, skills, attitudes and values.
2.2 The Qualities of a Good English Language Teacher

Lindsay and Knight (2006:3-4) believe that an effective native or non-native English teacher:
- Understands learners’ languages needs and responds to them positively.
- Designs lessons which reflect the learners’ needs and develops their communicative skills.
- Monitors and corrects sensitively.
- Provides feedback and encouragement when appropriate.
- Encourages good learning habits inside and outside classroom.
- Keeps track of progress, gaps in learners’ ability and related errors.
- Creates an input rich environment in the classroom.
- Encourages learners to read English texts or listen to the radio in English, BBC World Service Online, CDs, and audio cassettes.

Liu and Zhang (2007:26-27) point out the characteristics of non-native English teachers. These characteristics are:

a) They provide a good learner model to their students.

b) They are able to teach language strategies very effectively.

c) They are able to provide more information about the language.

d) They understand the difficulties and needs of the students.

e) They are able to anticipate and predict language difficulties.

f) They can use the student’s native language to their advantage.

Adler (2000:10) in his book “The Art of Teaching” indicates that the teacher gives and the student receives aid and guidance. Vethamani (2008:2-7) maintains that good teachers are rare breed and many English language teachers may not be competent and proficient, but have the passion and desire to teach. The course for educational professionals of English language for teacher points out many qualities which contribute immensely to teacher’s success. These qualities are: approachable,
concerned, consistent, effective in delivery, enthusiastic, fair, firm, flexible, organized, personalized, polite, prepared, professional, and punctual.

2.3 The Qualities of Competent English Language Teacher

The qualities of a Competent English language Teacher subsume:
Creativity, iveliness, hum, intelligence, neatness, conscience, organization, confidence, accurate judgment, motivation, and enthusiasm.

2.3.1. Creativity

Craft (2005:18-21) takes creativity “as the achievement of something remarkable and new; something which transforms and changes a field of endeavor in a significant way..... the kinds of thing that people do that change the world”. Craft (2002:5) emphasizes creativity as a sort of personal effectiveness in coping, recognizing and making choice. Craft (Ibid:20) distinguishes between three types of creative habits:
a) Creative thinking (i.e. generating new ideas, concepts, wishes, goals, new perceptions of problem)
b) Creative behavior (i.e. those behaviors which facilitate the creative process based on suspension of judgment)
c) Creative action (i.e. actually doing new thing based on experiment and innovation (the implementation of new ideas to create something of values

Teaching can be an art or science under the umbrella of creativity. Craft (2005:18) argues that the creative practice of the teacher has a personal and an institutional dimension: an inner conflict in the formation of teacher identity that skillfully channeled can be creative; such inner conflict and dialogue can be characterized as play, deviance, bending the rules, engaging in dialogue with learners. Craft adds that the teacher is seen as an artistic, i.e. fine judgment about learning. Celce-Murcia
(1990:326-28) maintains that language teaching is an art more than a science; as an art, it has been largely intuitive, dependent on the personal skills and convictions of the teacher, and hence particularly subject to pads and abrupt-faces, it has hardly been possible to see in it the characteristics of systematically arranged body of knowledge developed through the use of time-tested and generally accepted methods. McArthur (1990:82) provides comments on teaching as an art. He says, as an art, much of it is idiosyncratic, a personal achievement of the teacher; a capable teacher can take the dullest material and give it life, and incapable teacher can denude the finest material of all interest.

2.3.2. Lively Humour

Miller (2000:40) provides student comment ‘I want a teacher who can add pace and Humour’. Miller reports that: “There was a rapport among the students and the teacher because they were all laughing together. They had good time learning, and they made a lot of progress because, they were not afraid to make mistakes; they could take chances”. Miller adds that humour is a double-edged sword: it can backfire, for what is funny to one person may not be funny to another; humour across cultures can add a layer of difficulty to communication. Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture (2007:721) defines humour as follows: “to accept the wishes, especially foolish or unreasonable wishes, of (person) especially in order to keep them happy or prevent them from complaining”. As it is indicated above, lively humorous person (teacher) takes a coat of humility to become a jolly person, ready to laugh with anybody and her/himself.

2.3.3. Intelligence

Intelligence as one of teacher qualities has been stressed by Yule (2004:17) in terms of two terminologies: production and understanding. Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture (2007:723)
indicates that intelligent person is someone with a quick and clever mind. As it is stressed above, a language teacher ought to be intelligent so as to make understanding easy, and to provide appropriate production of what is needed linguistically and educationally.

2.3.4. Neatness

Neatness has been given certain emphasis by Lynch (1997:3-40) thinks that physical appearance, well-controlled feelings, and well-controlled performance contribute a lot to teacher`s neatness. In other words, the neat teacher needs to present herself/himself physically and in terms of knowledge. Lindsay and Knight (2006:108-109) advise language teachers to present a neat lesson in three stages:

a) What the aims of the lessons are,
b) How the lesson links to the previous one(s),
c) What activities they are going to do.

At the middle stage, the teacher’s focus must be on the aims of the lesson, and the learning process must be broken down into five steps:

a) Input
b) Noticing
c) Recognizing patterns and rules making
d) Use and rules modernization
e) Automating

At the end stage, the teacher brings lesson aims to a conclusion by carrying out the following points:

a) Emphasized the main points of the lesson,
b) Relates the lesson to the goals or aims stated the beginning,
c) Shows how the lesson links to work done before,
d) Goes over any homework instructions or preparation learners must do for the next lesson,
e) Praise learners for what they have done or achieved in the lesson,
f) Gets learners to evaluate the lesson.

As a matter of fact, language teacher must be presentable in her/his work and attitudes. S/he must remember always that her/his manner of dressing has an effect on her/his students. This may affect her/his teaching.

2.3.5. Conscience

Miller (2000:41) comments on teacher quality like conscience by stating that the essence of teaching is difficult to quality, but that line leads directly into most essential criteria. A conscientious teacher must consolidate development of subject-matter and syllabus as Miller adds in comment of students about teachers “I want a teacher who knows subject-matter well and who can explain on the spot if necessary”. Nunan (1988:51-54), Hedge (1990:17) and Harmer (1990:118-120) reveal that syllabus refers to that subpart of curriculum which is concerned with a specification of what units will be taught. According to the definition of conscience cited in Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture (2006:291), an inner sense that is conscious of the moral rightness or wrongness of behavior or intention, and makes person knows whether s/he is doing right or wrong is conscience. Having shown great care, attention or seriousness of purpose indicates the expected quality, the conscience.

2.3.6. Organization

Tore (2008:51-54), Salisbury and Crummer (2008:17) postulate the importance of aims / objectives, and lesson plan which make an organized teacher. Since language is an organized system, language teacher must be an organized person. S/he prepares her/himself in advance, defines her/his objectives accurately, and selects content. Lesson Plan Template of Free Sample Online points out 10 steps to developing a quality lesson plan. These steps are:
a. The teacher considers obviously what s/he wants to teach,
b. The teacher makes sure her/his lesson plan will teach exactly what s/he wants it to; the teacher needs to describe clear and specific objectives.
c. The teacher would probably find out exactly what materials s/he is going to use.
d. The teacher may also want to write an anticipator set which would be away or lead into the lesson plan and develop the students’ interest in learning what is about to be taught,
e. Now, the teacher needs to write the step-by-step procedures that will be performed to reach objectives,
f. The teacher may want to write time for independent practice,
g. Just before moving onto the assessment phase the teacher should have some sort of closure of the lesson, i.e. to return to her/his anticipatory set,
h. Now, the teacher wants to write her/his assessment/evaluation, i.e. remarks

i. Adaptations should be made for students with learning disability and extension to others, i.e. individual differences,
j. It’s also a good idea to include a “connection”, which shows how the lesson plan could be integrated with other subjects

In addition to this, lesson plan format has been provided by notes of training course which has been conducted in Faculty of Education of Gezira University.

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2.3.7. Confidence

Confidence in the light of teaching a quality which is more associated with methods of language teaching, techniques, and strategies.

2.3.7.1. Methods of Language Teaching

Liao (2000:1-10) and Brown (1994:15) indicate that method is an overall plan for systematic presentation of language based upon a selected approach. Richards and Rodgers (2004:13, and 2005:17-21) propose a reformulation of the concept of the method with parallel ideas. Rodgers maintains that method is an umbrella term for specification and interrelation of theory and practice, but Richards illustrates as follows:

“Method stands to a generalized set of classroom specification for accomplishing linguistic objectives. Methods tend to be primarily concern with teacher and students, roles, and behaviors, and secondarily with such features as linguistics or subject-matter, objectives, sequencing, and materials”.

Prattor (1979:12-23) states that methods of languages teaching should be based on at least three cornerstones:

a) What is known about the nature of language (i.e. linguistics)

b) What is known about the nature of learner (i.e. psychology)

c) The aims of instructions (i.e. needs of the society and the individual at a given moment).

All the ideas of the writers previously mentioned contribute to teachers’ confidence.
2.3.7.2. Techniques

Brown (1994:97) maintains that techniques are the specific activities manifested in the classroom that are consistent with a method and therefore in harmony with an approach as well. Brown confines techniques with any of a wide variety of exercises, activities, or devices used in the language classroom for realizing lesson objectives. Richards and Rodgers (1986:17, and 2004:37 and 2005:114) write “Procedures are the techniques and practices that are derived from one’s approach and design (i.e. designs specify the relationship of those theories to classroom materials and activities)”. Doff (1995:101) mentions certain techniques such as: classroom language, eliciting, information gap, role play, and asking questions. All these make teacher becomes confident in her/his teaching.

2.3.7.3. Strategies

Brown (1994:104) bases his concept of strategies on specific methods of approaching a problem or task, modes of operation for achieving a particular end, planned designs for controlling and manipulating certain information. Ehrman and Rebecca (1990:312-314) express that strategies are the often conscious steps or behaviours used by language teacher/learners to enhance the acquisition, storage, retention, recall, and use of new information. Confidence can be a result of strategy as mentioned before. Language teacher must carry out her/his duties with confidence as a result; s/he makes her/his students to develop confidence in themselves and other surroundings. S/he must be sure of what s/he is talking about and not arrogant talk. S/he swanks whenever and wherever s/he teaches.

2.3.8. Accurate Judgment

Fair judgment is needed from the side of teacher in terms of assessment and consideration of individual differences. Miller (2000:41)
reports about teacher. “I want a teacher who will treat me as a person, on an equal basis with all the members of the class, regardless of sex, marital status, race, or my future need for the language”. Hughes (2005:8-9) relates judgment to reliability and validity. He argues further to point out the purpose of testing:

a) to measure proficiency.

b) to discover how successful students have been in achieving objectives of a course of study.

c) to diagnose students’ strengths and weakness, to identify what they know and what they do not know.

d) to assist placement of students by identifying the stage or part of teaching programme most appropriate to their ability.

Language teacher must be objective and impartial in her/his judgment, not biased, control her/his emotions, and clam in all situations. S/he must know what is right and wrong; and stick to right in all her/his life.

2.3.9. Motivation

Brown (1994:34-38) maintains that motivation is the extent to which one makes choice about: goals to pursue and the effort one will devote to that pursuit: Elyidirim and Ashton (2006:3) and Gardner and Lambert (1972:77) indicate two types of motivation: instrumental and integrative. They illustrate that students with instrumental motivation acquire a language to get a better job, to read technical material, or to study in the country where the is spoken whereas integrative motivation is held by students who want to join with the culture of the second language group and become involved in social interchange in that group. Spolsky (2000:-12) ascertains that there is a growing interest in the creation of a motivation model that can help develop methodological applications to improve the teaching and learning of second language.
Miller (2000:2) reports about teacher. “I want a teacher who is encouraging and patient, and who will not give up on me”. The reporter comments that motivation thrives on success. All the sources mentioned before confirm that an English language teacher ought to be motivated. S/he must use all types of devices to motivate students to learn what s/he is talking about.

2.3.10 Enthusiasm

Miller (2000:40-41) provides students’ comment on the teacher: “I want a teacher who has a contagious enthusiasm for her/his teaching—one who loves her/his students and her/his work. I want a teacher who will take an interest in me as a person—one who will try to discover discussion topics that interest me”. Miller adds that enthusiasm influences the way the students react toward the target language and their success in learning it; and a teacher should be in the real pleasure. Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture (2006:457) defines ‘enthusiasm’ as a strong active feeling of interest and admiration. As it is emphasized before, enthusiastic quality subsumes empathy and friendship. Sympathy and empathy are overwhelmed by friendly behaviors since they indicate the ability to imagine oneself in the position of another person, and so to share and understand that person’s feelings. A language teacher must recognize the facts that are significant to students. S/he gives adequate attention to everyone in the class and outside it. S/he must be firm and knows the direction of the lesson and the target in view.

2.4 Teacher Development

Richards, Sylvester, and Farrel (2005:1-2) examine ten different approaches for facilitating professional development in language teaching: self-monitoring, support group, journal writing, classroom observation, teaching portfolios, analysis of critical incidents, peer
coaching, team teaching and action research. Gebhard (2005:10-13) provides exploratory approach to teacher development which includes seven principles:

a) The goal of exploration is to see teaching differently,

b) Teachers need to accept responsibility for their teaching, but teachers also know that they need others to explore,

c) Prescriptions can limit exploration,

d) Exploration is enhanced through description,

e) Exploration is enhanced when teachers take a non-judgmental stance,

f) Reflection is a part of exploration,

r) To see teaching differently, teachers need to go beyond trying to solve problems in their teaching; they can do this by taking different avenues to awareness

Vethamani (2000:2-7) claims that here are teachers who have neither the competence nor the confidence to teach English, but with right attitudes, these teachers will become competent, confident and proficient in their teaching. Al-Khuli (1989:11) maintains that one main aim of training teachers is to familiarize them with effective methods of teaching which guarantee maximal learning. Lantolf and Throne (2006:31-36) maintain that competency is based on teachers’ training. The crucial need for teacher development to solve the problems has been stressed previously. The before-mentioned methodologists are interested to develop teacher linguistically and educationally.

2.5 Definition of Motivation

The term “motivation” comes from the Latin word “moto” which means movement. It is an interdisciplinary term which has been discussed by so many writers, each from his/her point of view. Al-mutawa and Kailani (1985:3) explain that motivation depends largely on the teacher, the method, the language activities, the textbooks and the
classroom situation.

2.6 Motivation in Psychology

When a person asks as many people as he/she can find, what is going on inside their minds that motivates them to behave in certain way or another, their answers are never identical.

From the Psychological perspectives are divided into three groups:
1. Biological motives.
2. Social motives.
3. Things in between: motives whose status depends upon how people look at them.

London (1978:184) suggests other ways of classifying motives in terms concepts like arousal or activation or incentive or cognitive adding that some people use the term need or drive to refer mainly to social motives. It is worth noting that no motives are isolated; the most social motives are rooted in psychology. Take ‘hunger’ for instance it is not aroused by a single simple internal event, nor is satisfied by a constant, unchanging series of responsive acts. It is an extension of the process by which the body maintains its homeostasis. Homeostasis as defined by the psychologist Bernard cited in London (1978:185) as “standing study” or “study state”. He also defines homeostasis as the process of “maintaining a constant internal environment” which means that all body process must be kept in equilibrium for the body to work in an optional way. He also explains that there are many physiological activities underlying hunger; they make up the homeostasis mechanisms; the feelings and mechanisms; the feeling and acts done to satisfy hunger make up motivation, (1978:186). Homeostasis activities are based on tissue needs. The psychological result of these needs is called ‘drive’. According to London (1978:186), deficiency motives like hunger are not really as dramatic as
the operation of curiosity drive or exploratory drive. Because these are areas of motivation which have unspecified need correlates. Some writers try to distinguish such motives by the fact that they are approaches to motives while deficiency motives are avoidance motives.

2.7 Two Views of Motivation

According to Rivers (1985:109-112) there are two strands of psychological thought on the question of motivation.

1. The Hedonistic Approach

In this Approach, the individual organism seeks to maintain state of equilibrium. In this case motivation is “a continue process of individual adjustment to the environment “which indicates that the teacher should handle the work so as to suit the capacity of the individual students which helps them to taste success.

2. Ego Involvement

According to this theory Rivers (1985:111) says: Individual is continually seeking that which enhances it; that is, they are striving to achieve what they Perceive as their potential.

The quotation means that the individuals have the readiness to take benefit from any situation available.

3. Ego-enhancement

In the ego enhancement Rivers (1985:112) explains that the students’ response to stimulation is “Not predictable from the external condition as the teacher sees them but rather is determined by the student’s individual perception of reality”. A student may see some gestures from the teacher as a thrust while the teacher may see it otherwise. This is a common sight especially in the authoritarian classes. Also, Overcorrection from a teacher may put the student at a loss as regarding his/her self-image. So the teacher should help students by understanding the personal character of motivation, to Rivers they “Set themselves attainable goals, no matter
what their degree of aptitude, thus building up their self-confidence and increasing their motivation”.

2.8 Types of Motivation

According to Harmer (1983:3-8) there are two main types of motivation:

2.8.1 Extrinsic Motivation

Harmer (1983:3-8) defines this type of motivation as one which comes from outside, i.e. students who decide to study a language usually do so because they have some goals which they wish to reach. There are two types of goals.

1. Integrative Motivation

Here, the student is attracted by the culture of the target language community and wish to get integrated into that culture. In addition to that Krashen (1988:22) defines Integrative Motivation as the desire to be like valued members of the community that speak the target language.

2. Instrumental Motivation

Here, the student believes that mastery of the target language will be an instrument to get a better job.

Harmer (1983) suggests that the most successful students are integrative motivated. However, this conclusion has not been adequately validated for it seems the case that both students who have an integrative or instrumental motivation are likely to succeed.

Moreover, it is worth noting that the teacher cannot create extrinsic motivation as it is a result of factors outside the classroom, nevertheless, he /she can clearly have an effect upon that motivation by the way he treats his students.

3.2 Intrinsic Motivation

Many students bring no intrinsic motivation at all to the classroom and many (school children) may well have neutral or negative
feelings about language learning. Harmer (1983:4) as a result of this – adds that whatever happens in the classroom will determine the pupils’ attitude towards the language.

1. Physical Conditions: physical conditions have a great effect on learning which can change the student’s motivation positively i.e. a classroom which is overcrowded will excessively de-motivate the pupils.

2. Method: The method by which students are taught must have some kind of effect on their motivation. If they find it boring they will become de-motivated, whereas if they have confidence in the method they will find it motivating. And the student’s confidence in the method is largely the most important factor affecting intrinsic motivation (Harmer1983:3).

3. The teacher: Harmer (1983) e.f Denis Giratd (1970) answers this question in a study where a thousand children between the ages of twelve and seventeen were asked to put a list of teacher “questions” in order of performance the children showed what their learning priorities were by putting these qualities in the following order (1= most important, 10 = least important).

   1. He makes his course interesting.
   2. He teaches good pronunciation.
   3. He explains clearly.
   4. He speaks good English.
   5. He shows the same interest in his entire student’s.
   6. He makes all the students participate.
   7. He shows great patience.
   8. He insists on the spoken language.
   9. He makes his pupils work.
   10. He inspires confidence.

This study suggests certain conclusions:

1. The teacher has to make his classes interesting.
2. He must be fair, treats his students equally as far as possible understand and act on the worries and aspirations of his pupils.

3. The teacher must offer a good model as the target language user.

4. The teacher must be a good technician: his students should understand what is wanted from them, be able to pronounce correctly and be stimulated into activities in the target language.

5. **Extrinsic vs. Intrinsic Motivation**

Extrinsic motivation is what we are most familiar with in education; it is motivation to act that comes from the external environment, outside of the person. When we are motivated extrinsically, we act with the anticipation of rewards – grades, praise, money, time off from work, or some other incentive. For instance, teachers motivate students to come to class regularly and join in discussions through the use of participation grades. When used wisely and thoughtfully, extrinsic motivation can be quite helpful in furthering student learning. We can use extrinsic motivation to our advantage as educators if we know what motivates students, but we need to do so carefully. For example, many students are concerned about their grades, either because of a desire to continue on in school or due to pressure from their parents, and they will do what it takes to earn good grades. So, if we know that grades are important, we can use tests and papers to motivate students to build the skills and knowledge we expect them to have. For instance, if students can succeed simply by memorizing, then they will memorize. However, if tests and papers require analysis and integration of ideas, then students will learn these higher-order skills.

2.9 **Application to the Classroom**

Baloto (1996:34) presents ten important principles that can help teachers of EFL to have what he termed as “lively classes”

1. Making use of the learner’s environment: Foreign language teaching
should be linked to the environment of the learner.

2. Presenting the language in natural chunks: The teacher should avoid using the target language unnaturally i.e. breaks a sentence into smaller units to teach the correct pronunciation of a word without returning to the whole sentence.

3. Including cultural components: no teacher can teach a foreign language out of its cultural context.

4. Using appropriate visual aids: These may enable the teacher to avoid long and monotonous explanations.

5. Adapting material to local reality: It is worth noting that materials presented in EFL classrooms must be varied, interesting and adapted to the students’ needs and to the local realities.

6. Techniques that are functional and funny: enthusiasm is very important in learning without which learning becomes a burden. Maurice (1989:20) mentions an old proverb goes “Tell me and I forget, teach me and I remember; involve me and I learn”.

7. Listening: listening is very important in this stage, because children depend on their sense of hearing, thus the most effective material should be provided to them through listening skill.

8. Learning through activities and games: Because children are not self-motivated to learn a foreign language it must be presented to them through games, songs, rhymes, sayings, everyday greetings and many other notions. El Helaly (1989:49)

9. Tension-free learning: El Helaly c.f River (1964:95) observes that motivation techniques succeed better if the atmosphere of the English class is relaxed and if the teacher provides continuous support and encouragement and to create such atmosphere the teacher needs to make each child feel secured and appreciated. Each child is individually evaluated according to his/her ability. Each child should receive
recognition and praise for the progress she/she makes irrespective of its extent.

10. Learning through humor: Many people feel that learning should be handled in a serious manner. However, a number of students in the field of psychology, physiology, sociology and communication suggest that humor and wit and the laughter that results, play a vital role in subtle ways in life and social interaction. Maurice (1988:20)

Moreover, Al-Mutawa and Kailani (1989:149) outline some principles of how can EFL are taught. The most important principles which help the teacher to make the class life-like and motivating are teaching material with their different types: visuals, audio-visuals, aural and games about which the following details will be given respectively.

1. Visual aids: includes the blackboard, plastic figures, pictures, postals, drawings, charts, maps, objects, cloth, magnetic board and cuttings. In addition to that, they include projected visuals such as film strips, projectors, overhead projectors and sliders.

2. Audio visual aids: they consist of films, video tapes, television

Students arrive in our classrooms with the full-range of motivations – and sometimes with what we see as a remarkable lack of motivation. Motivating students is one of the most challenging things we do as educators, and some of us want to throw up our hands in frustration or proclaim that there is little we can do to motivate students to learn. It is true that students carry with them many past experiences that contribute to their motivation in our classrooms. However, teachers can make a difference, for better or for worse, in motivating students to learn. This module is written to give you a basic understanding of what motivates students and to provide some sense of how you can create this motivation. As you read, you will note that many of the ideas we have covered elsewhere are identified here as important to motivation. Keep
the following points in mind:

• Our ideal goal as teachers is to help students develop the intrinsic motivation that will allow them to become life-long learners.
• While this module provides many tips you can use to motivate students, many of the ideas outlined here come under a simple rule: respect your students as learners.
• Teaching Assistants, because of their closeness to undergraduates, are often in an excellent position to show the respect, caring and concern as teachers that motivate students.
• Active learning – engaging students in the class and working with their peers –is an important contributor to student learning.

2.10 How We Motivate Students

Some students worry about grades; others need to satisfy a course prerequisite. Still others want to learn and explore ideas. In fact, many students are probably motivated to learn and to succeed by a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic elements. The key for us as teachers is to understand what we can do to build students’ motivation to learn in our classroom, and to nurture the intrinsic motivation that will guide future learning. Students respond positively to three elements in most classes (Davis, 1993):

• A well-organized course;
• A teacher who is enthusiastic about the material and about teaching;
  • A teacher who shows he or she cares about the students and their learning.
• Communicate high but attainable expectations and goals. Most students want to be challenged and feel that they are directing their energies toward a worthwhile experience. This means that they will work to achieve challenging goals if they view the goals as within their reach.
True, some students are motivated by the fear of the daunting “killer test,” but you will lose more students than you gain, and those you gain will not retain their motivation outside of the classroom.

• Give students the chance to succeed. High standards for student work are fine, but it is important to make those standards clear and give students a chance to discover and meet them. You may want to consider the following suggestions to help students succeed:
  • Give a test, quiz or paper early in the semester, return it to students, and give them a chance to retake or rewrite it. This lets them learn the standards and have a chance to improve.
  • Rather than giving a few large tests and assignments, give smaller more frequent ones. This makes the material students must learn more manageable and gives them more chances to succeed.
  • Cooperative learning groups. Students respond to interaction with their peers. Putting students in groups can therefore promote their learning.
  • Know your students and their interests. If you know who your students are and what they are involved in, you can adjust your class to connect with their interests. This can help them see the relevance of the material and motivate them to engage in class.
  • Give early, immediate and comprehensive feedback. The idea of giving feedback is closely related to giving students a chance to succeed. In order to learn, students need and want to know the standards and expectations you have for their performance. Thorough comments from you on tests and assignments show students what is needed to succeed. But your comments do more than just this: they also show the students that you respect them and are committed to their learning. Students notice when a teacher does (or does not) put forth effort in making comments on student work, and they respond accordingly.
  • Create a learning community in your classroom. Mc Keachie (1999)
notes that interaction, particularly with peers, is an important motivator for many students. There are several easy steps you can take to create an environment where students see themselves as part of a community of learners rather than as isolated individuals.

- Reward success publicly. This does not need to be an elaborate effort. Thank students for their comments, compliment good points by saying “good point,” and refer back to individual students for their contributions when you can.
- Share exemplary work with students. Copy, distribute (without names and with permission) and discuss outstanding papers or assignments. This helps students see your standards and it recognizes students who do outstanding work. Use collaborative French culture in which most of the students are Business or International Relations majors. Upon learning this information, the professor created a project where students worked in groups of three to determine the feasibility of locating a major shopping store in various locations in France.
- Use a variety of teaching methods. No matter how gifted you are as a teacher, using the same method to teach each class can become monotonous – for you and for the students – causing the students to lose interest and motivation. When possible, vary your methods within and between classes. Break students into groups, give mini-lectures, have class discussions, use case studies, stage a debate, etc. This variety engages and motivates students.
- Avoid individual competition. Competition in and of itself is not necessarily a negative. Pitting groups against one another in games that help them learn the material can be a useful motivator. However, you should avoid creating a situation where students see themselves in direct competition with one another for grades.
- Try to prevent too much anxiety from developing among students. Most
of us tend to work a little harder or a little longer when we are worried about an important test or a big event and want to make sure we succeed. However, too much anxiety can make us want to give up and not even try. This is why it is important to have reasonable goals and expectations and give students a chance to succeed.

It is important to remember that there is a limit to just how much we can actually motivate students. But it is also important not to stop trying because you may find that, just as you become tired and frustrated, whatever pressures have been pulling the student down will eventually ease. And when this happens, they will appreciate the efforts you have made.

2.10.1 Motivating Students

Some students seem naturally enthusiastic about learning, but many need-or expect-their instructors to inspire, challenge, and stimulate them: "Effective learning in the classroom depends on the teacher's ability ... to maintain the interest that brought students to the course in the first place" (Ericksen, 1978: 3). Whatever level of motivation your students bring to the classroom will be transformed, for better or worse, by what happens in that classroom. Unfortunately, there is no single magical formula for motivating students. Many factors affect a given student's motivation to work and to learn (Bligh, 1971; Sass, 1989): to achieve, self-confidence and self-esteem, as well as patience and persistence. And, of course, not all students are motivated by the same values, needs, desires, or wants. Some of your students will be motivated by the approval of others; some by overcoming challenges. Researchers have begun to identify those aspects of the teaching situation that enhance students' self-motivation (Lowman, 1984; Lucas, 1990; Weinert and Kluwe, 1987; Bligh, 1971). To encourage students to become self-motivated independent learners, instructors can do the following:
• Give frequent, early, positive feedback that supports students' beliefs that they can do well.

• Ensure opportunities for students' success by assigning tasks that are neither too easy nor too difficult.

• Help students find personal meaning and value in the material.

• Create an atmosphere that is open and positive.

Help students feel that they are valued members of a learning community counter student apathy than special efforts to attack motivation directly (Ericksen, 1978). Most students respond positively to a well-organized course taught by an enthusiastic instructor who has a genuine interest in students and what they learn. Thus activities you undertake to promote learning will also enhance students' motivation. Research has also shown that good everyday teaching practices can do more to

2.10.2 Capitalize on students' existing needs

Students learn best when incentives for learning in a classroom satisfy their own motives for enrolling in the course. Some of the needs your students may bring to the classroom are the need to learn something in order to complete a particular task or activity, the need to seek new experiences, the need to perfect skills, the need to overcome challenges, the need to become competent, the need to succeed and do well, the need to feel involved and to interact with other people. Satisfying such needs is rewarding in it, and such rewards sustain learning more effectively than do grades. Design assignments, in-class activities, and discussion questions to address these kinds of needs. (Source: McMillan and Forsyth, 1991)

2.10.3 Make students active participants in learning.

Students learn by doing, making, writing, designing, creating, solving. Passivity dampens students' motivation and curiosity. Pose questions. Don't tell students something when you can ask them.
Encourage students to suggest approaches to a problem or to guess the results of an experiment. Use small group work. See "Leading a Discussion," "Supplements and Alternatives to Lecturing," and "Collaborative Learning" for methods that stress active participation. (Source: Lucas, 1990) Ask students to analyze what makes their classes more or less "motivating." Sass (1989) asks his classes to recall two recent class periods, one in which they were highly motivated and one in which their motivation was low. Each student makes a list of specific aspects of the two classes that influenced his or her level of motivation, and students then meet in small groups to reach consensus on characteristics that contribute to high and low motivation. In over twenty courses, Sass reports, the same eight characteristics emerge as major contributors to student motivation:

- Instructor's enthusiasm
- Relevance of the material
- Organization of the course
- Appropriate difficulty level of the material
- Active involvement of students
- Variety
- Rapport between teacher and students
- Use of appropriate, concrete, and understandable examples

### 2.11 Incorporating Instructional Behaviors That Motivate Students

Hold high but realistic expectations for your students. Research has shown that a teacher's expectations have a powerful effect on a student's performance. If you act as though you expect your students to be motivated, hardworking, and interested in the course, they are more likely to be so. Set realistic expectations for students when you make assignments, give presentations, conduct discussions, and grade examinations. "Realistic" in this context means that your standards are
high enough to motivate students to do their best work but not so high that students will inevitably be frustrated in trying to meet those expectations. To develop the drive to achieve, students need to believe that achievement is possible—which means that you need to provide early opportunities for success. (Sources: American Psychological Association, 1992; Bligh, 1971; Forsyth and McMillan, 1991 - Lowman, 1984 Help students set achievable goals for themselves. Failure to attain unrealistic goals can disappoint and frustrate students. Encourage students to focus on their continued improvement, not just on their grade on any one test or assignment. Help students evaluate their progress by encouraging them to critique their own work, analyze their strengths, and work on their weaknesses. For example, consider asking students to submit self-evaluation forms with one or two assignments. (Sources: Cashin, 1979; Forsyth and McMillan, 1991)

Tell students what they need to do to succeed in your course. Don't let your students struggle to figure out what is expected of them. Reassure students that they can do well in your course, and tell them exactly what they must do to succeed. Say something to the effect that "If you can handle the examples on these problem sheets, you can pass the exam. People who have trouble with these examples can ask me for extra help." Or instead of saying, "You're way behind," tell the student, "Here is one way you could go about learning the material. How can I help you?" (Sources: Cashin, 1979; Tiberius, 1990) Strengthen students' self-motivation. Avoid messages that reinforce your power as an instructor or those emphasize extrinsic rewards. Instead of saying, "I require," "you must," or "you should," stress "I think you will find. . . " or "I will be interested in your reaction." (Source: Lowman, 1990) Avoid creating intense competition among students. Competition produces anxiety, which can interfere with learning. Reduce students' tendencies to
compare themselves to one another. Bligh (1971) reports that students are more attentive, display better comprehension, produce more work, and are more favorable to the teaching method when they work cooperatively in groups rather than compete as individuals. Refrain from public criticisms of students' performance and from comments or activities that pit students against each other. (Sources: Eble, 1988; Forsyth and McMillan, 1991). Be enthusiastic about your subject. An instructor's enthusiasm is a crucial factor in student motivation. If you become bored or apathetic, students will too. Typically, an instructor's enthusiasm comes from confidence, excitement about the content and genuine pleasure in teaching. If you find yourself uninterested in the material, think back to what attracted you to the field and bring those aspects of the subject matter to life for your students. Or challenge yourself to devise the most exciting way to present the material, however dull the material itself may seem to you.

2.1.1 Structuring the Course to Motivate Students

Work from students' strengths and interests. Find out why students are enrolled in your course, how they feel about the subject matter, and what their expectations are. Then try to devise examples, case studies, or assignments that relate the course content to students' interests and experiences. For instance, a chemistry professor might devote some lecture time to examining the contributions of chemistry to resolving environmental problems. Explain how the content and objectives of your course will help students achieve their educational, professional, or personal goals. (Sources: Brock, 1976; Cashin, 1979; Lucas, 1990) When possible, let students have some say in choosing what will be studied. Give students options on term papers or other assignments (but not on tests). Let students decide between two locations for the field trip, or have them select which topics to explore in greater depth. If possible,
include optional or alternative units in the course. (Sources: Ames and Ames, 1990; Cashin, 1979; Forsyth and McMillan, 1991; Lowman, 1984)

Increase the difficulty of the material as the semester progresses. Give students opportunities to succeed at the beginning of the semester. Once students feel they can succeed, you can gradually increase the difficulty level. If assignments and exams include easier and harder questions, every student will have a chance to experience success as well as challenge. (Source: Cashin, 1979)

Vary your teaching methods. Variety reawakens students' involvement in the course and their motivation. Break the routine by incorporating a variety of teaching activities and methods in your course: role playing, debates, brainstorming, discussion, demonstrations, case studies, audiovisual presentations, guest speakers, or small group work. (Source: Forsyth and McMillan, 1991)

2.11.2 De-emphasizing Grades

Emphasize mastery and learning rather than grades. Ames and Ames (1990) report on two secondary school math teachers. One teacher graded every homework assignment and counted homework as 30 percent of a student's final grade. The second teacher told students to spend a fixed amount of time on their homework (thirty minutes a night) and to bring questions to class about problems they could not complete. This teacher graded homework as satisfactory or unsatisfactory, gave students the opportunity to redo their assignments, and counted homework as 10 percent of the final grade. Although homework was a smaller part of the course grade, this second teacher was more successful in motivating students to turn in their homework. In the first class, some students gave up rather than risk low evaluations of their abilities. In the second class, students were not risking their self-worth each time they did their homework but rather were attempting to learn. Mistakes were
viewed as acceptable and something to learn from. Researchers recommend de-emphasizing grading by eliminating complex systems of credit points; they also advise against trying to use grades to control nonacademic behavior (for example, lowering grades for missed classes) (Forsyth and McMillan, 1991; Lowman 1990). Instead, assign ungraded written work; stress the personal satisfaction of doing assignments, and help students measure their progress. Design tests that encourage the kind of learning you want students to achieve. Many students will learn whatever is necessary to get the grades they desire. If you base your tests on memorizing details, students will focus on memorizing facts. (Source: McKeachie, 1986) Avoid using grades as threats. As McKeachie (1986) points out, the threat of low grades may prompt some students to work hard, but other students may resort to academic dishonesty, excuses for late work, and other counterproductive behavior.

**2.11.3 Motivating Students by Responding to Their Work**

Give students feedback as quickly as possible. Return tests and papers promptly, and reward success publicly and immediately. Give students some indication of how well they have done and how to improve. Rewards can be as simple as saying a student's response was good, with an indication of why it was good, or mentioning the names of contributors: "Cherry's point about pollution really synthesized the ideas we had been discussing." (Source: Cashin, 1979) Reward success. Both positive and negative comments influence motivation, but research consistently indicates that students are more affected by positive feedback and success. Praise builds students' self-confidence, competence, and self-esteem. Recognize sincere efforts even if the product is less than stellar. If a student's performance is weak, let the student know that you believe he or she can improve and succeed over time. (Sources: Cashin, 1979; Lucas, 1990) Introduce students to the good
work done by their peers. Share the ideas, knowledge, and accomplishments of individual students with the class as a whole:

- Pass out a list of research topics chosen by students so they will know whether others are writing papers of interest to them.
- Make available copies of the best papers and essay exams.
- Provide class time for students to read papers or assignments submitted by classmates.
- Have students write a brief critique of a classmate's paper.
- Schedule a brief talk by a student who has experience or who is doing a research paper on a topic relevant to your lecture.

Be specific when giving negative feedback. Negative feedback is very powerful and can lead to a negative class atmosphere. Whenever you identify a student's weakness, make it clear that your comments relate to a particular task or performance, not to the student as a person. Try to cushion negative comments with a compliment about aspects of the task in which the student succeeded. (Source: Cashin, 1979). Avoid demeaning comments. Many students in your class may be anxious about their performance and abilities. Be sensitive to how you phrase your comments and avoid offhand remarks that might prick their feelings of inadequacy. Avoid giving in to students' pleas for "the answer" to homework problems. When you simply give struggling students the solution, you rob them of the chance to think for themselves. Use a more productive approach (adapted from Fiore, 1985):

- Ask the students for one possible approach to the problem.
- Gently brush aside students' anxiety about not getting the answer by refocusing their attention on the problem at hand.
- Ask the students to build on what they do know about the problem.
- Resist answering the question "is this right?" Suggest to the students a way to check the answer for them.
• Praise the students for small, independent steps.
If you follow these steps, your students will learn that it is all right not to have an instant answer. They will also learn to develop greater patience and to work at their own pace. And by working through the problem, students will experience a sense of achievement and confidence that will increase their motivation to learn.

2.11.4 Motivating Students to Do the Reading

Assign the reading at least two sessions before it will be discussed. Give students ample time to prepare and try to pique their curiosity about the reading: "This article is one of my favorites, and I'll be interested to see what you think about it." (Sources: Lowman, 1984; "When They Don't Do the Reading," 1989) Assign study questions. Hand out study questions that alert students to the key points of the reading assignment. To provide extra incentive for students, tell them you will base exam questions on the study questions. (Source: "When They Don't Do the Reading," 1989) If your class is small, have students turn in brief notes on the day's reading that they can use during exams. At the start of each class, a professor in the physical sciences asks students to submit a 3" x 5" card with an outline, definitions, key ideas, or other material from the day's assigned reading. After class, he checks the cards and stamps them with his name. He returns the cards to students at a class session prior to the midterm. Students can then add any material they would like to the cards but cannot submit additional cards. The cards are again returned to the faculty member who distributes them to students during the test. This faculty member reports that the number of students completing the reading jumped from 10 percent to 90 percent and that students especially valued these "survival cards." (Source: Daniel, 1988)

Ask students to write a one-word journal or one-word sentence. Angelo (1991) describes the one-word journal as follows: students are
asked to choose a single word that best summarizes the reading and then write a page or less explaining or justifying their word choice. This assignment can then be used as a basis for class discussion. A variation reported by Erickson and Strommer (199: 125) is to ask students to write one complex sentence in answer to a question you pose about the readings and provide three sources of supporting evidence: "In one sentence, identify the type of ethical reasoning Singer uses in his article 'Famine, Affluence, and Morality.' Quote three passages that reveal this type of ethical reasoning." Ask nonthreatening questions about the reading. Initially pose general questions that do not create tension or feelings of resistance: "Can you give me one or two items from the chapter that seem important?" "What section of the reading do you think we should review?" "What item in the reading surprised you?" "What topics in the chapter can you apply to your own experience?" (Source: "When They Don't Do the Reading," 1989)

Use class time as a reading period. If you are trying to lead a discussion and find that few students have completed the reading assignment, consider asking students to read the material for the remainder of class time. Have them read silently or call on students to read aloud and discuss the key points. Make it clear to students that you are reluctantly taking this unusual step because they have not completed the assignment. Prepare an exam question on undiscussed readings.

One faculty member asks her class whether they have done the reading. If the answer is no, she says, "You'll have to read the material on your own. Expect a question on the next exam covering the reading." The next time she assigns reading, she reminds the class of what happened the last time, and the students come to class prepared. (Source: "When They Don't Do the Reading," 1989)

Give a written assignment to those students who have not done the reading. Some faculty asks at the beginning of the
class who has completed the reading. Students who have not read the material are given a written assignment and dismissed. Those who have read the material stay and participate in class discussion. The written assignment is not graded but merely acknowledged. This technique should not be used more than once a term. (Source: "When They Don't Do the Reading," 1989)

**Five Key Ingredients for Improving Student Motivation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Method/Process</th>
<th>Environment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>☐ Intrinsic and Extrinsic motivation</td>
<td>☐ Subject knowledge and motivation</td>
<td>☐ Students experience success and achievement</td>
<td>☐ Incentives</td>
<td>☐ Create an effective learning or self-learning Individual and learning system design</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☐ Various individual and social Factors</td>
<td>☐ Teacher skills Qualification</td>
<td>☐ Student ownership</td>
<td>☐ Verbal Conformity</td>
<td>☐ Include the study of self-information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☐ Hierarchy of Needs Test giving</td>
<td>☐ Scientific management and human relations</td>
<td>☐ Build competency and critical thinking</td>
<td>☐ Flexible and Stimulating just-in-time training and Interactivity</td>
<td>☐ Empowerment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☐ Perceived well-being Focus</td>
<td>☐ Conscious of small details</td>
<td>☐ Students feel connected</td>
<td>☐ Different types of Framing</td>
<td>☐ Engagement and considering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☐ Efficient use of energy and Focus</td>
<td>☐ Reach out to students</td>
<td>☐ Novelty</td>
<td>☐ Objective Criteria</td>
<td>☐ student and Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☐ Purposeful connection with work Conscientiousness and</td>
<td>☐ Know your students and build on their real life</td>
<td>☐ Timely and relevant to</td>
<td>☐ Encourage-</td>
<td>☐ Opinions</td>
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</table>
In the previous sections of this chapter, motivation was presented from an individual difference perspective. However, such a perspective is incomplete. Motivated behavior in school is determined by a complex interaction of numerous student and situational characteristics. The situational characteristics to which I refer here belong to the *instructional context*. The term was borrowed from Turner and Meyer (2000), who defined it as“[including] the influences of the teacher, students, content area, and instructional activities on learning, teaching, and motivation” (p. 180). A number of classroom factors influence student motivation, one of the most important of which is the dynamics of the learner group. The field of group dynamics has studied the development of negative relationship patterns in groups, and based on work in this field, detailed recommendations on how to develop cohesiveness, as well as adaptive group norms and group goals in the language classroom have been published (e.g., Dörnyei and Malderez, 1999; Dörnyei and Murphey, 2003; Ehrman and Dörnyei, 1998; Senior, 1997, 2002). Because the presence of negative relationship patterns in learner groups was not a salient feature in my research setting, I limit my attention to the two
classroom factors that were targeted for investigation in Phase 2 of this study. These are goal structures (i.e., messages in the classroom environment that make certain achievement goals salient, such as mastery or performance goals) and pedagogical caring

2.12.1 Students’ Perceptions of the Classroom Goal orientation

The classroom goal orientation (or structure) refers to the type of achievement goal that is stressed in a given classroom. Consequently, a mastery-goal orientation is said to exist in a classroom when a teacher emphasizes individual progress, effort investment, and understanding of the material over test scores. In contrast, teachers who typically focus on evaluation, promote competition among students, and only reward the more able students are said to encourage perceptions of a classroom performance-goal orientation.

Goal orientation theorists (e.g., Church, Elliot, & Gable, 2001) often argue that students’ perceptions of the classroom goal orientation/structure that students perceive influence their pursuit of particular achievement goals (e.g., mastery or performance), or that the classroom goal structure may even override their chronically accessible goals (Pintrich, 2000). However, some empirical studies have shown that the goals stressed in the classroom context tend to have no significant effect on students’ personal performance goal orientations. For instance, Urdan and Midgley (2003) found that an increase in perceptions of performance-goal structure in the math class did not produce a similar increase in students’ personal performance-approach or performance-avoidance goals in math.

Studies that examined the transition from elementary school to middle school revealed that, as students’ progress through the grades; they usually perceived an increasing focus on classroom-performance
goals and a correspondingly decreasing focus on classroom-mastery goals (Anderman and Midgley, 1997; Urdan and Midgley, 2003). A recent study of South Korean girls’ motivation extended these findings by demonstrating that students keep reacting to environmental pressures, even during their high school years (Bong, 2005). Students’ perceptions of a classroom mastery-goal orientation have been associated with the following:

- adaptive motivational outcomes such as use of more effective strategies, persistence, and selection of more challenging tasks (Wolters, 2004);
- more positive attitudes toward the class, and a stronger belief that effort can lead to success (Ames & Archer, 1988);
- positive coping strategies, leading in turn to positive affect (Kaplan & Midgley, 1999);
- perceptions of caring and respectful teachers by middle school students (Roeser, Midgley, & Urdan, 1996)
- use of self-handicapping, avoidance of help seeking, and a preference for avoiding novelty; perceptions of a classroom mastery goal structure emerged as a significant negative predictor of all three avoidance strategies in Turner, Midgley, Meyer, Gheen, Anderman, Kang, & Patrick (2002).

Students’ perceptions of a stress on performance goals in the classroom were found to be positively associated with:

- higher levels of avoidance behavior (e.g., Urdan, Midgley, and Anderman, 1998; but for an exception, see Turner, Midgley, Meyer, Gheen, Anderman, Kang, & Patrick, 2002, in whose study students’ aggregated perceptions of a performance goal structure in the classroom did not emerge as a significant predictor of avoidance behaviors);
- self-handicapping (Urdan, 2004);
- cheating, and beliefs in the acceptability of cheating, during early
adolescence (Anderman, Griesinger, and Westerfield, 1998);
• less adaptive, or non-coping strategies, leading in turn to negative affect such as anger, frustration, and anxiety (Kaplan and Midgley, 1999).

In any case, student surveys alone are unlikely to be sufficient to evaluate classroom goal structures since questionnaires can be interpreted differently from the way they were intended. Indeed, in one study (Turner, 2001), students’ self-report data indicated that students perceived their classroom as mastery-oriented while classroom discourse data suggested that the learning environment conveyed messages that were at odds with the promotion of mastery goals (e.g., low challenge, low expectations for students, praise for mundane accomplishments). The students recognized that challenge was low but reported very positive qualities of experiences within the social environment of their classroom, which was observed to be relaxed, pleasant, warm, and supportive. Turner (2001) concludes that the students and the teacher cooperated in creating and maintaining a classroom climate that privileged social goals rather than content goals. She suggests that students interpreted the questionnaire items (e.g., “In math class, the teacher thinks mistakes are OK”) as indicators of the social environment of the classroom, rather than as reasons that were communicated for trying to achieve. Similarly, Lemos (1993, 1996; cited in Lemos, 2001) used mixed methods, and obtained results indicating that students’ perceptions of classroom goals are not always accurate.

Taken together, these cases show how the use of mixed methods can help to throw more light on motivation in context, and also tend to lend support to Urdan, Kneisel, and Mason’s (1999) suggestion that classroom goal structures are perhaps “climate-like constructs”

2.12.2 Students’ Perceptions of the Teacher and Pedagogical Caring

Wentzel (1997) highlights the importance of students’ perceptions of
“pedagogical caring,” which refers to teachers’ personal qualities and skills in promoting and sustaining positive child-adult relationships (also see Noddings, 2001). Viewed from an SDT perspective, warm, caring teachers encourage students’ interest and motivation by helping them fulfill their need for relatedness (Urdan and Schoenfelder, 2006). In a longitudinal study on the role of perceived support and caring from teachers in middle school students’ motivation, Wentzel (1997) provided empirical evidence that perceived pedagogical caring can predict current motivation, even after controlling for performance level, control beliefs, and previous motivation.

Furthermore, noting that correlations between adolescents’ subjective reports of care giving and observers’ and parents’ reports were typically weak or non-significant, and that students’ subjective reports tended to be more powerful predictors in independent assessments of social and emotional outcomes than reports from other informants (Feldman, Wentzel, and Gehring, 1989), Wentzel (1997) studied middle school students’ perceptions of several characteristics of caring and uncaring teachers. Five dimensions of pedagogical caring emerged from her data, which were drawn from the family socialization literature, and from Noddings’ (1992) model of effective pedagogical caring in particular. One of Noddings’ dimensions, “rule setting,” was absent in Wentzel’s data, suggesting that, in that sample, consistent enforcement of rules was not deemed as indicative of a caring or non-caring teacher disposition. The remaining four broad dimensions that emerged from the data were as follows:

- **Modeling**: indications that the teacher cares about teaching.
- **Democratic interactions**: indications that the teacher listens to what students have to say that he or she treats everyone honestly and fairly, and keeps promises.
• **Expectations based on students as individuals and as learners:** indications that the teacher recognizes and shows concern about students’ personal, social, and academic needs.

• **Nurturance:** characteristic related to the teacher’s informal and formal evaluation of students’ work.

  Students’ perceptions of the “teacher context” were also considered an essential factor in student engagement with learning activities in the classroom by Skinner and Belmont (1993). They identified three dimensions of teacher behavior: involvement, structure, and autonomy support. “Involvement” is the opposite of rejection or neglect: Teachers are said to be “involved” with their students when they know, take time for, express affection toward, enjoy interactions with, understand, sympathize with, and dedicate resources to their students in case of need. “Structure” is the opposite of chaos.

  Teachers provide structure when they communicate their expectations clearly, when they respond consistently and predictably, when they offer instrumental help and support, when they adjust teaching strategies to the students’ levels. Finally, “autonomy support” is the opposite of coercion. Teachers who are autonomy supportive are not authoritarian and do not control students through force; nor do they use external rewards. Instead, they allow students some latitude regarding learning activities by providing options and/or opportunities to follow their own interests; they are respectful and acknowledge the importance of students’ opinions, feelings, and agendas; and they establish relevance by providing a rationale for learning activities or by providing connections between learning activities and students’ interests (Skinner and Belmont, 1993). Skinner and Belmont (1993) found that student and teacher perceptions of structure were modestly but significantly related over two measurements, whereas perceptions of involvement and autonomy
support were only moderately related between the two types of informers on one measurement.

Perceived social and academic support from teachers was examined by Wentzel (1998). She found it to be positively related to middle school students’ reports of perceived peer support, pro-social goals (i.e., efforts to share and to help peers solve academic problems) and mastery goal orientation (but not performance goal orientation), but negatively related to distress. Furthermore, perceived support from teachers was an independent, positive predictor of interest in class and interest in school, as well as of compliance to classroom norms (Wentzel, 1998).

Another different but related research perspective on the classroom social milieu, which extends Wentzel’s work described above, is offered by Chang (2003) and Chang, Liu, Wen, Fung, Wang, and Xu (2004). Chang (2003) found those Chinese junior high school students’ reactions to the aggression, social withdrawal, and pro-social leadership behaviors of peers tended to gravitate in the same direction as that shown by their teacher. Moreover, Chang’s (2003) results suggest that, in China, as indicated by Wentzel’s work, a teaching style that is warm, responsive, and egalitarian is more likely to promote the internalization of the teacher’s attitudes, values, and goals in adolescents than is an authoritarian, harsh, or intrusive teaching style. Chang, Liu, Wen, Fung, Wang, and Xu (2004) drew on the adolescent peer relations literature as well as on teacher influence research to investigate the potentially mediating influence of teacher liking or disliking of a given student on peer liking or disliking of the same student. They found that the extent to which students are accepted by peers is related both to their behavior and to their relationship with the classroom teacher, and that this effect is stronger among students who perceive their teacher as authoritative rather than authoritarian.
2.12.3 Foreign Language Learning (L2) Motivation

The field of foreign language learning (L2) motivation research was founded in 1959 by two Canadian social psychologists, Lambert and Gardner. Although they were not linguists, they became interested in second language learning because of the somewhat unusual Canadian socio-political environment, which is characterized by the coexistence of French- and English-speaking communities. The most universally accepted contribution of their work to the field has been that learning a second language is unlike learning any other subject. This is because it “involves imposing elements of another culture into one’s own life space” (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, p. 193), and because it is easily influenced (positively or negatively) by a range of social factors, such as prevailing attitudes toward the language, geo-political considerations, and cultural stereotypes (Dörnyei, 2005). In other respects, though, the field, just like its counterpart in general and educational psychology, has undergone a number of shifts: in scope, in research perspectives, in its relation to practice, and in its relationship with the field of Second Language Acquisition research.

2.12.4 Shift in scope

The first empirical investigations related to L2 learning motivation took place in Canada, and were aimed at identifying and measuring variables that shared variance in common with measures of English-French bilingualism (Gardner & Lambert, 1959). Many such studies resulted in the proposal of Gardner and Smythe’s (1975) pioneering socio-educational model of second language acquisition in school contexts, which has been revised several times (e.g., Gardner, 1985a; Gardner, 2000; Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993a; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). It is interesting to note that, according to Gardner, “acquisition” involves “the development of bilingual skill in the language, and that this
requires considerable time, effort, and persistence” (Gardner, 2001a, p. 4, my emphasis). The studies also resulted in the production of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), which was originally developed to assess what appeared to be the major affective factors involved in the learning of French as a second language in Canada (see Gardner 1985b). The AMTB has certainly contributed to the popularization of motivation research. In just over four decades since its publication, it has been used in many different parts of the world to investigate students’ motivation to learn second languages (e.g., Mondada and Doehler, 2004), heritage languages (e.g., Syed, 2001), foreign languages (e.g., Inbar, Donitsa-Schmidt, and Shohamy, 2001; Ushioda, 2001), and English as a foreign and international language (e.g., Brown, Robson, and Rosenkjar, 2001; Lamb, 2004).

2.12.5 Shift in Research Perspectives

Through the 1960s, 70s, and 80s, language learning motivation research was dominated by the social psychological approach of Gardner and his Canadian associates. This approach sought to integrate social psychology and individual psychology in order to explain differences in motivation to master the language of another community. The social element of the approach was apparent in the “integrative motive,” which proposed that learner’ attitudes toward the L2 and the L2 community would affect their L2 learning behavior. For instance, the first “Motivation” factor to emerge in a study of Anglophone high-school students studying French as a second language in Montreal was described as “characterized by a willingness to be like valued members of the language community” (Gardner and Lambert, 1959, : 271). Such a perspective on motivation was well ahead of its time since macro-type, social approaches to motivation research (i.e., those focusing on motivational dispositions of communities) only started to become popular
in the 1990s (Dörnyei, 2005). However, for this very reason, it also eventually started to be viewed as inadequate in terms of explaining how motivation works in actual language classrooms. As a result, a new wave of motivation researchers from the U.S.A. and Europe started to call for a broadening of the research paradigm.

The 1990s cognitive-situated period in L2 motivation is usually recognized as having been heralded by Crookes & Schmidt’s (1991) call to “[reopen] the motivation research agenda” but other researchers had also recommended changes in a similar vein at around the same time (e.g., Brown, 1990; Julkunen, 1989; Skehan, 1991). The suggested changes did not entail a rejection of the social psychological approach, but proposed to enrich it by taking into account what was happening in motivational psychology at that time (as described in Chapter 3 of this thesis), namely the adoption of a mostly cognitive and more “micro” perspective, which focused on motivation situated in the classroom.

Another shift in L2 motivation research occurred after the publication of Dörnyei and Ottó’s innovative (1998) process model of L2 motivation. As a result, in the late 1990s, a new, process-oriented period began for L2 motivation research. The process-oriented period is characterized by an increasing emphasis on viewing motivation, not simply as a static product, but also as a dynamic process fluctuating over time. This movement is spearheaded by the research that has been carried out by Dörnyei, Ushioda (e.g., 2001), and colleagues in Europe. The new approaches are moving toward an integration of concepts from motivational psychology, personality psychology, and even neurobiology (Dörnyei, 2005). This in line with the trend observable in general psychology, as evidenced, for instance, by Kuhl’s (2000b) Personality Systems Interaction theory of motivation, which will be discussed in
Chapter 5 of this thesis.

2.12.5 Shift toward More Relevance to Classroom Practice

The increasing interest in making motivation research more relevant to classroom practice was undoubtedly fuelled by the 1994 debate in the Modern Language Journal (Dörnyei, 1994a, 1994b; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994; Oxford and Shearin, 1994). This shift is linked to the move toward a more situated research approach (including the influence of the teacher, classmates, task-partners, and significant others), and to the emphasis on viewing motivation as a process. This is because the investigation of the dynamics of motivation within actual learning situations may uncover the processes by which students become motivated in specific physical classroom environments, which include both educational and social dimensions. This, in turn, may yield implications directly relevant to classroom practice, in terms of practices that can develop and support students’ motivation.

2.12.6 Shift toward integration into SLA research

According to Dörnyei (2005), the product-oriented approach (i.e., a focus on answering the question “What is motivation?”) of traditional L2 motivation research—particularly the kind undertaken within the social psychological paradigm, is what has largely prevented its full integration into Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Dörnyei (2005) argues convincingly that this approach is in sharp contrast with SLA methods, which focus on answering the question “How does it work?”, and concentrate on studying learner-language development from a situated, process-oriented perspective. Dörnyei (2005) speculates that the introduction of the process-oriented approach to L2 motivation research means that SLA and L2 motivation researchers may now be able to share similar approaches when studying the same phenomenon of L2 learning. Nevertheless, he cautions that full integration can only take place if L2
motivation researchers focus on how motivational factors affect specific student learning behaviors during an L2 course such as students’ engagement in learning tasks rather than their L2 proficiency.

2.13 Expectancy-Value Related Components Of L2 Motivation

Gardner’s theory of L2 motivation provides some basic elements of a student’s L2 domain motivational knowledge. However, other components have been investigated since the 1990s. A number of these components fall within an expectancy-value framework.

2.1.13-Attributions on research

There is an overall lack of research into the causal attributional processes of L2 learners (Dörnyei, 2001c), although notable exceptions are Ushioda (e.g., 1996), and Williams and Burden (1999). Ushioda’s (1996) findings from her interview studies were congruent with the adaptive attributional patterns found in educational psychology (see Chapter 3). In Williams and Burden’s (1999) study, the children (aged 10 to 17) showed different attributional patterns according to their age. Children aged 10 to 12 attributed their success to listening and concentrating, whereas older children cited a broader range of attributions including ability, level of work, circumstances, and others’ influence; success was hardly ever attributed to the use of appropriate strategies.

2.13.2 Linguistic self-confidence and related attitudinal constructs

Linguistic self-confidence is a construct that was introduced by Clement and has been supported by empirical results (e.g., Clément and Kruidenier, 1985). Linguistic self-confidence reflects “a confident, anxiety-free belief that the mastery of a L2 is well within the learner’s means” (Csizér and Dörnyei, 2005.). It is a socially defined construct,
since it is mainly determined by the quality and quantity of either direct or indirect social contact with the L2 group and culture (Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels, 1994). In this respect, it is different from the cognitive construct of “self-efficacy” used in the psychological motivational literature. Linguistic self-confidence, though, does have a cognitive subcomponent named perceived L2 competence (Baker and MacIntyre, 2000), as well as an affective one, L2-use anxiety, or “the discomfort experienced when using a L2” (MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels, 1998: 551). Learners who are high in linguistic self-confidence tend to believe that they have the ability to achieve goals or complete tasks successfully.

Linguistic self-efficacy (Dörnyei and Kormos, 2000) is the task-specific form of linguistic self-confidence. It is a situation-dependent, cognitive component, which refers to learners’ self-evaluation of their existing L2 language knowledge and skills, with regard to whether or not they can—or think they can—meet the communication demands of a particular task, and whether they feel they have the ability to compensate for what they do not know. Dörnyei and Kormos (2000) and Dörnyei (2002) investigated the relationship between linguistic self-efficacy and task engagement. Task engagement was operationalized as the number of turns that Hungarian high school EFL students took at speaking the L2, and the number of words that they produced while engaged in an oral task. The task was especially designed for the study, but took place in the students’ regular English classes. Both studies revealed that linguistic self-efficacy only affected the task engagement of those students who had positive attitudes toward the task; in other words, if students were negatively disposed toward the task, it did not matter whether they felt able or unable to complete the task satisfactorily. Consequently, it appears that if a student does not want to engage in an activity, whether
or not she feels she can complete it may be irrelevant.

2.14 Value Components of L2 Motivation

For many secondary school students, learning an L2 remains primarily an academic requirement, which is often at best perceived as a means to achieve another end. In other words, they may be interested in obtaining high scores in an L2 test (which may only require the ability to do well in complex multiple-choice tests, and not test either oral or written proficiency in the L2), in order to pursue other meaningful personal goals. Recall that the term “instrumentality” is normally used to refer to learning an L2 for such utilitarian purposes. Dörnyei and Kormos (2000), and Dörnyei (2002) investigated the instrumental benefits associated with the EFL proficiency of Hungarian high school learners. In these studies, the authors preferred to use the term “incentive values” to instrumentality because, besides the usual pragmatic benefits mentioned by the participants, other incentives were mentioned such as traveling, making foreign friends, and understanding English songs. Dörnyei and Kormos (2000) found a negative correlation between learners with high task attitudes who reported an interest in incentive values and the number of words produced by these learners; they suggested it might be because such an interest was socially desirable rather than genuine.

On the other hand, Dörnyei (2002) reported a highly significant, positive correlation between students with positive task attitudes who reported an interest in incentive values and the number of turns they had taken during the task. Dörnyei (2002:151) indicates that the result is in accordance with his theoretical proposition that task motivation is “fuelled by a combination of situation-specific and generalized motives”. This conclusion is in line with Boekaert’s theoretical position outlined in

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Chapter 3, and with Tremblay, Goldberg, and Gardner’s (1995) suggestion (based on empirical data) that the trait motivation students bring to a given lesson may interact with classroom experiences to affect their state motivation during that lesson. Finally, another noteworthy finding from the studies by Dörnyei and Kormos (2000) and Dörnyei (2002) was that some learners, who had negative attitudes toward the tasks used in their study, nevertheless engaged in L2 communication behavior when they held favorable attitudes toward the L2 course. This seems to lend support to Schumann’s (1999:36) argument that some individuals may be “willing to endure” certain L2 learning experiences that they find unappealing or even unpleasant, just because of the contribution these experiences make to achieving a longer-term goal that they value (e.g., learning an L2). It also suggests to me that favorable attitudes toward an L2 course may be related to the positive value students attach to L2 learning in general, and that attitudes toward specific language learning tasks may be based on an affective type of response to these learning tasks, which can be self-regulated.

2.15 A Hybrid Model Of Motivation: Tremblay & Gardner’s (1995)

Gardner (2001) pointed out that his model of L2 motivation did not attempt to be comprehensive, and conceded that the motivation of “integratively motivated” individuals might be supported by other correlates or antecedents (Gardner, 2001a; Tremblay, Goldberg, &Gardner, 1995). Indeed, a revision of the socio-educational model was subsequently produced by Tremblay and Gardner (1995), which contained added variables originating from expectancy-value and go.
Figure 4.2 shows Tremblay and Gardner’s (1995) extended model of L2 motivation. The overall design of the model suggests that an individual’s L2 motivational knowledge base that is socially grounded but also has cognitive and affective components leads to motivated behavior, which in turn leads to L2 achievement. The expectancy components in the model include “adaptive attributions” and “self-efficacy,” the latter being comprised of “anxiety” and “performance expectancy” (i.e., the expectancy that one will be able to perform certain activities in the L2 by the end of the course). The value component is labeled “valence,” and is assessed using the traditional AMTB scales for “desire to learn the L2,” and “attitudes toward the L2.” Finally, the goal element is termed “goal salience.” It refers to how specific students’
goals are, and to how frequently they use goal-setting strategies. Tremblay and Gardner’ (1995) empirical testing of the model revealed that the effect of the new variables did not alter the basic structure of the original model.

2.15.1. Self-Determination Theory (Sdt) And

Systematic empirical investigations of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation within the framework of Self-Determination Theory (SDT) were initiated in the L2 learning context at the turn of the millennium by Noels and colleagues in Canada (e.g. Noels, 2001a, 2001b; Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2000). The research project had two major aims: (a) to investigate possible relationships between SDT constructs and L2 orientations identified by Gardner, and by Clément and Kruidenier (1983); (b) to examine how students’ perceptions of their teacher’s classroom behavior influence their sense of self-determination (autonomy) and enjoyment of L2 learning.

The findings related to the latter aim will be discussed in Chapter 5. Noels, Pelletier, Clément and Vallerand (2000) also developed an instrument to assess self-determination theory constructs applied to L2 learning, namely, the “Language Learning Orientations Scale: Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and A motivation.” With regard to the relationships between SDT constructs and L2 orientations, based on the results of several of their studies, Noels (2001a) proposed that L2 motivation may be fuelled to different extents by three types of orientations (i.e., reasons for learning an L2). Intrinsic reasons include experiencing stimulation, enjoyment, satisfaction, a sense of fun, or a sense of accomplishment. Extrinsic reasons (e.g., Gardner’s “instrumental orientation”) lie on a continuum similar to that postulated by SDT theory, with one pole consisting of external pressures (e.g.,
threats or rewards), and the other of internalized ones (e.g., because L2 learning is personally valued). Finally, integrative reasons relate to positive contact with speakers of the L2, and perhaps eventual identification with the L2-speaking community.

2.15.2 Second Language Learning Motivation as A Neurobiological Process

As part of an attempt to formulate a comprehensive neurobiological account of post-critical period second language acquisition, Schumann (e.g., 1998, 1999, 2001a, 2001b; Schumann, Crowell, Jones, Lee, Schuchert, & Wood, 2004; Schumann & Wood, 2004) proposed a perspective on L2 motivation that is radically different from the others presented in this thesis (although another neurologically-based theory will be presented in Chapter 5). Instead of making speculative inferences on the basis of patterns observed in L2 motivation-related data regarding the mechanisms involved in L2 motivation, Schumann starts from a description of the neural mechanisms involved in moving an organism into action before going on to speculate how these mechanisms may underlie L2 motivation.

2.15.3 General neurobiological basis of Schumann’s theory

A basic assumption of the theory is that post-critical period second language acquisition, whether it takes place in a classroom or in a natural setting, is “a paradigm case of sustained deep learning” (Schumann & Wood, 2004: 24). Proficiency in a second language implies “deep,” expert knowledge, the achievement of which requires an extended (i.e., “sustained”) period of learning, learning being one instance of activity. Schumann and Wood (2004) claim that their theory of L2 learning motivation is rooted in the biological notion of “value” as the basis for all activity. They define value as “a bias that leads an organism to certain
preferences and enables it to choose among alternatives” (Schumann & Wood, 2004, : 24). These preferences include those that are evolutionarily set (i.e., related to the organism’s survival), as well as those that are learned through life experience (i.e., related to the organism’s emotional, intellectual, and social well-being). This is based on current neuroscientific knowledge, which shows that human beings tend to seek continuously a state of positively regulated life, thanks to an “aggregate of dispositions laid down in brain circuitry that, once engaged by internal or environmental conditions, seeks both survival and well-being” (Damasio, 2003, :6).

Preferences are hypothesized to be stored in a memory for value, along with the characteristics of the stimulus situation from which they sprung, and the “relevance to [the organism’s] goals, its ability to adapt, its hedonic sense, and its sense of self” (Schumann & Wood, 2004: 25). While current neuroscientific knowledge allows to postulate the existence of memory systems possessing such properties, it is worthwhile noting that the existence of a single memory module, which would store explicit preferences alongside some unconscious, innate “values” as hypothesized in Schumann and Wood (2004) based on Leventhal (1984) and Edelman (1992), appears unlikely. This is because currently available neurological evidence tends to support the existence of a variety of different memory systems, making a particular distinction between implicit (or unconscious), and explicit (conscious or declarative) memory systems (e.g., Kuhl, 2000a, 2000b; LeDoux, 1998).

Schumann argues that since evolution is conservative, the neural systems that organisms use when foraging to feed or mate may also be adapted to the purpose of learning. Consequently, he suggests that learning can be viewed as a form of mental or intellectual foraging involving motor activity to acquire information, knowledge, or skill
(Schumann, 2001b; Schumann and Wood, 2004). Thus, just as a change in the homeostatic value-system of an animal (e.g., low glucose levels) causes it to undertake motor activity to achieve the goal of feeding, a given situation in an L2 classroom, for instance, may generate in a student a desire to learn the L2, or at least engage in a given activity. Such a desire constitutes a goal or incentive motive, which is held over time in “value memory.” The achievement of this goal requires both motor and mental activity. The intensity of the incentive motive is modulated by the appraisal information in relation to the assessment of the current stimulus situation.

In Schumann’s theory, the motivation process (i.e., how an organism is driven into action) can thus be described as follows:

- Motor and/or mental activity is the result of action tendencies (i.e., expressions of the readiness to undertake mental or physical action),
- Action tendencies are the result of emotions (patterns of neural and chemical responses in the body that are communicated to the brain as feelings) such as joy, fear, anger or shame.
- Such emotions are generated through the appraisal of stimulus events (coming from an organism’s internal and external environments) in terms of their emotional relevance and motivational significance when compared to the contents of the “value memory” system. Stimulus appraisal therefore occupies a key position in the theory and is the area where Schumann attempts to link neurobiology to psychology and second language acquisition (SLA).

2.15.3 Stimulus appraisal: Where neurobiology meets psychology and SLA?

A fair amount is known in neurobiology about the role and mechanisms of stimulus appraisal as a process of detection of either what is trouble for an organism with a view to getting rid of it, or what
constitutes an opportunity with a view to reaching out for it (see, e.g., Damasio, 2003; Le Doux, 1998). Stimulus appraisal and the automated emotions triggered by trouble-or opportunity-signaling events occur in the body and in a variety of brain regions outside of conscious awareness; they only reach consciousness, that is, become conscious emotional feelings, when the emotional body states are represented in working memory. Consequently, neuroscientists (e.g., LeDoux, 1998, p. 67) report that appraisal research in psychology “can be weak” when it is based on verbal reports or conscious introspection of emotion states and their causes, particularly if it is done after the episode is over. However, Schumann’s (1999) proposal of appraisals as the basis for L2 motivation is based on selected items from existing self-report L2 motivation questionnaires, which were categorized along Scherer’s (1984) five theoretically-postulated dimensions along which stimulus appraisals are made:

- novelty (as opposed to familiarity),
- pleasantness (fosters approach or avoidance?),
- goal/need relevance,
- coping potential, compatibility with social or cultural norms, with expectations of significant others, and with self or ideal self.

Therefore, this aspect of Schumann’s theory is perhaps the weakest one. Yet, based a case study of an L2 learner, he made a pertinent remark about appraisals in general, namely, that stimulus appraisals can be positive or negative on any of the five dimensions listed above, and that “positive appraisals along any of the five dimensions promote SLA” (Schumann, 1999: 37).

2.16 The Dörnyei-Ottó Process-Oriented Model Of L2 Motivation

The fluctuation of L2 motivation over time and the
conceptualization of motivation as evolving in stages have been matters of interest since the late 1990s, particularly in Europe (e.g., Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998; Manolopoulou-Sergi, 2006; Ushioda, 2001; Williams and Burden, 1997). A process-oriented approach can potentially integrate various research trends, and seems necessary when trying to account for the evolution of motivation over time, or when examining motivation in relation to specific learner behaviors and classroom processes (Dörnyei, 2000b, 2001c, 2005). However, the only fully developed and comprehensive process-oriented model of L2 motivation to date is Dörnyei and Ottó’s (1998) and its subsequent elaborations (Dörnyei, 2000b, 2001c).

2.16 Theoretical basis of the Dörnyei-Ottó process model of motivation

The Dörnyei-Ottó process model of motivation is based on Heckhausen and Kuhl’s Action Control Theory (e.g., Heckhausen, 1991; Heckhausen & Kuhl, 1985; Kuhl & Beckmann, 1994). Action Control Theory is elaborate, but it is only necessary to highlight one main aspect here. Since motivation accounts for not only why individuals come to engage in an activity but also for how long they persist and how much effort they invest in it, Action Control theory distinguishes two sequentially ordered phases within the motivated behavioral process:

• the predecisional phase (“choice motivation”)—forming an intention to act;

• the postdecisional phase (“executive motivation”)—initiating action, persevering, and overcoming obstacles until the action is eventually completed.

2.16.2 Aims and outline of the Dörnyei-Ottó process model of motivation

When Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) conceived their process model of
motivation, their aim was twofold. First, they wanted to introduce a process-oriented perspective of motivation as an alternative to the product-oriented approach, which was dominant at the time. Second, they wished to synthesize, within a unified framework, various lines of research on motivation in the L2 field and in educational psychology.

In order to achieve these aims, the Dörnyei-Ottó model divides the motivated behavioral process into three main stages (or phases) occurring in the following sequence: the “preactional stage,” which precedes the decision to act, then two stages that follow the decision to act: the “actional stage” and the “postactional stage.” Figure 4.3 presents an updated version of the model. The key tenet of the process-oriented approach is that each of the three stages of the motivated behavioral process cycle is associated with different motives. Consequently, such a perspective can integrate different motivational theories since they tend to focus on motives affecting different stages of the motivational process. For example, Dörnyei (2005:86) indicates that “the Canadian social psychological construct is effective in explaining variance in choice motivation but to explain executive motivation, more situated factors need to be taken into account”.

Restrictions of space prevent a full discussion of every motivational influence listed in the model (interested readers are referred to Dörnyei, 2001c). However, I will indicate here the type of motivational theory or construct that seems particularly effective in explaining variance at each stage of the motivated behavioral process.

2.16.2 Preactional Stage

The preactional stage is related to “choice motivation” in Action Control Theory. It refers to the phase during which an individual is engaged in the process of forming an intention to act, and in selecting an action plan in order to realize the intention to act. Three sub-processes
can thus be distinguished within this stage: “goal setting,” “intention formation,” and “initiation of intention enactment.” These occur sequentially, but the sequence can be aborted at any time before reaching the impulse to act. Moreover, the pace at which the sub-processes succeed each other can vary. They can happen almost simultaneously, or the whole sequence can cover a considerable period, depending on the nature of the action being contemplated.

2.16.3 Goal setting

Goal setting starts either in an individual’s imagination in the form of broad “wishes and hopes,” in “desires,” or in “opportunities” emerging from an individual’s context when a wish, hope, desire, or opportunity has been selected as a goal to be pursued. This goal (e.g., to complete an assigned task) is the first concrete decision that the individual makes, but the fact that he or she has a goal does not mean that an action will necessarily be initiated because there is not yet any commitment to act. The choice of goals that L2 learners make is influenced by:

• their “subjective values and norms,” which are the result of experiences relating to all things foreign, and are well represented in the construct of “integrativeness” (see sections 4.2.2 and 4.2.5);

• the relative strength of the “incentive values” (see sections 4.3.3 and 4.2.4) they associate with learning the L2, such as intrinsic reasons (see section 4.5), and instrumental benefits (e.g., Gardner’s instrumental orientation/motivation);

• Family members and teachers’ expectations and the school climate.

2.16.4 Intention formation

Once a goal has been adopted, it is essential to add some form of “commitment,” as well as an “action plan,” to generate an “intention.” In other words, the learner needs to quit thinking “I want to,” and start to
think “In order to do this, I will …” *Commitment* (e.g., to comply with the teacher’s instructions) may require putting one’s self- or social image at risk, and foregoing more pleasurable or rewarding activities. An *action plan* does not need to be complete (or written down) because its role is to help an individual to initiate enactment. Indeed, it can be added to or modified as action moves toward completion. However, it should outline some concrete guidelines, such as steps to follow and relevant strategies that:
FIGURE (3)
A Process Model of L2 Learning Motivation*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preactional Stage</th>
<th>Actional Stage</th>
<th>Postactional Stage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>CHOICE MOTIVATION</strong></td>
<td><strong>Main motivational influences:</strong></td>
<td><strong>EXECUTIVE MOTIVATION</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivational functions:</td>
<td>• Attitudes toward the L2 and its speakers</td>
<td>Motivational functions:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal setting</td>
<td>• Values associated with L2 learning, with the learning process itself and with its outcomes and consequences</td>
<td>• Ongoing appraisal of stimuli present in environment and of own progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention formation</td>
<td>Expectancy of success, and perceived coping potential</td>
<td>• Generation of subtasks and implementation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiation of intention enactment</td>
<td>Various goal Properties (e.g., goal relevance, specificity and proximity)</td>
<td>• Action control (self-Regulation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learner beliefs and strategies</td>
<td>Main motivational influences:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Action vs. state orientation</td>
<td>• Quality of the learning experience) pleasantness, need significance, coping potential, self and social image(</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Environmental</td>
<td>• Sense of autonomy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Motivation influences:  
  - Expectancy of success, and perceived coping potential  
  - Various goal Properties (e.g., goal relevance, specificity and proximity)  
  - Learner beliefs and strategies  
  - Action vs. state orientation  
  - Environmental  
  - Attitudes toward the L2 and its speakers  
  - Values associated with L2 learning, with the learning process itself and with its outcomes and consequences  
  - Ongoing appraisal of stimuli present in environment and of own progress  
  - Generation of subtasks and implementation  
  - Action control (self-Regulation)  
  - Quality of the learning experience) pleasantness, need significance, coping potential, self and social image(  
  - Sense of autonomy  
  - Teachers’ and parents’ influence  
  - Classroom reward
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Support or hindrance</th>
<th>Perceived consequences for not acting</th>
<th>and goal structure (e.g., competitive or cooperative)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Influence of the learner group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Knowledge and use of self-regulatory strategies (e.g., goal setting, learning and self-motivating strategies)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Knowledge and use of self-regulatory strategies (e.g., goal setting, learning and self-motivating strategies) | | |
*Note.* Based on Dörnyei (2005, : 85, and 2001c). For a full schematic representation and discussion of the model, see Dörnyei (2001c). can be used. In sum, only after an individual has added some form of commitment to an adopted goal, as well as generated some kind of concrete action plan—at least to get started on the implementation of a goal, can one say that an intention has truly been formed. The factors that influence the intention formation stage of the motivation process belong mostly to motivational constructs falling within an expectancy-value framework, such as expectancy of success (e.g., linguistic self-confidence, L2 anxiety, perceived L2 competence), need for achievement, and cost-benefit calculations.

However, self-determination in the form of learner autonomy (section 4.5) and various goal properties also play a significant role, as do learners’ beliefs about L2 learning, knowledge of learning strategies, and adequate L2-specific knowledge, since these are important when it comes to developing quality action plans. In order to assist learners in the development of such plans, it is also helpful if they are presented with suitable task opportunities and options. Finally, commitment can result from a powerful and perhaps urgent external demand (e.g., the need to pass a language test to fulfill a graduation requirement), or emerge from a unique opportunity that is “too good to be missed.”

**2.16.4 Initiation of intention enactment**

For an “intention” (i.e., the equivalent of an “I’m going to do this” internal statement) to be translated into action (i.e., the equivalent of an “I’m doing it” internal statement), some kind of “action-launching impulse” is further required. The latter is dependent on the fulfillment of two conditions: the availability of the means and resources needed for the intended action to
take place, as well as the opportunity to start the action. If either of these fails to materialize, or in some cases when some powerful obstacle or distraction is encountered, action will not take place; the intention may remain, but it will be unrealized. Occasionally, when individuals feel close to abandoning an intention to enact, they may still propel themselves into action by contemplating the consequences of a lack of action. Motivational theories and concepts that are effective in accounting for what influences variations at this stage include:

- Kuhl’s concept of *action vs. state orientations* (see section 3.2.4), since they represent personality dispositions relating to an individual’s effectiveness in translating intentions into actions;

- *Perceived behavioral control*, as in Ajzen’s Theory of Planned Behavior (1988;1991). The Theory of Planned Behavior is a social psychological theory in which it is assumed that action is determined by an individual’s intention to perform a specific behavior, and by the perceived ease or difficulty of performing it. The intention is itself determined by the relative importance of the individual’s attitudes toward the behavior in question, and by his or her perception of the social pressures to perform the said behavior.

### 2.16.5 Actional stage

The actional stage corresponds to “executive motivation” in Action Control Theory. It refers to the phase when individuals have translated their intention into action—when they have crossed the metaphorical Rubicon of action (Hechhausen, 1991, cited in Dörnyei, 2001c). In the actional stage, “learners are engaged in *executing* a task, they continuously *appraise* the process, and when the ongoing monitoring reveals that progress is slowing, halting, or backsliding, they activate the *action control* system to save or enhance the action” (Dörnyei, 2005: 81, original italics). This action-control
system, or self-regulation, is what enables learners to persevere until the action is eventually completed. Thus, three interrelated sub-processes make up the action process of the actional stage, namely, “appraisal,” “generation of subtasks and implementation,” and “action control.” The action process and its components are essentially identical to what Dörnyei (2002, 2005) calls, in the specific context of task (situated) motivation, the “task processing system.” Dörnyei’s “actional stage” and “task processing system” are fully in line with some current models of situated motivation used in educational psychology to investigate motivation in actual learning situations (e.g., Järvelä&Niemivirta, 2001; Volet, 2001a).

2.16.6 Action control

Action control processes represent the mechanisms involved when students use a set of self-regulatory strategies (i.e., goal-setting, language learning, and motivation maintenance strategies) in order to cope with the competition between their social and academic goals during lessons, and manage and control their efforts in the face of difficulties and distractions. Action may proceed—more, or less smoothly—to a satisfactory outcome, that is, to the realization of their intended goal. In this case, students will naturally engage in the “postactional stage” discussed in the next section. However, learning-supportive action may be terminated if action control mechanisms fail. Theories and concepts that best capture particularly influential factors at the action stage of the motivational process include:

- Schumann’s (1999) stimulus appraisal theory and its five dimensions (section 4.6.2), which cover key concepts from SLA and educational psychology on what constitutes quality in a learning experience;
- Self-determination theory (sections 3.3.10 and 4.5), and how students’ sense
of autonomy can be enhanced or thwarted by parents as well as by teachers and by teachers’ practices inside the classroom;

- Self-regulation (see Chapter 5), and how individuals can help themselves by controlling their own motivational states through the timely use of appropriate strategies;
- Theories and concepts that deal with the influence of the learner group on an individual’s motivation.

2.16.7. Postactional stage

In the postactional stage, learners examine their behavior in retrospect and evaluate the outcome of their action, thereby possibly forming inferences regarding future similar or related actions. They may have completed the intended outcome, or they may be about to resume their attempt to complete it after an interruption, or they may even have abandoned all attempts to ever complete. No matter the extent to which they have realized their intended goal, learners are likely to evaluate what they have accomplished by comparing their original goal to their actual achievement and forming causal attributions by hypothesizing links between what they did or did not do, and the extent to which they achieved their intended goal. Such evaluation through retrospective introspection enables learners to enrich their store of accumulated experience, elaborate their internal standards, and enlarge their repertoire of action-specific strategies. Once the evaluation process is over, the original intention to act is dismissed since it has been acted upon. This dismissal of intention is followed by further planning, and by the beginning of a new motivated actional process cycle.

2.17. Professional Competency

Teacher’s professional competency is under considerable scrutiny and
as often happens with critique changes are imminent. The ministry of education in Saudi Arabia has recently suggested several important plans for teacher’s professional improvements. The teaching profession is a highly rewarding and satisfying career as teacher’s experience the positive influence and impact of their work with students through their development and appreciation of new skills, knowledge, and personal growth. On the other hand, this profession is not without its frustrations or stresses where some teachers must content with disrespectful or uninterested students. And, there are some who have not work in older schools without modern a entities and where they may also instruct large classes and deal with heavy workloads. In spite of this, teachers are expected and required to develop students so as they exhibit satisfactory performance on core subject standardized testing.

In addition to a thorough knowledge of subject matter (English in this case) Dangelet. al (2009) and yendol-hoppey et. al . (2008) suggest that teachers must be able to effectively communicate motivate and foster trust and confidence, perceive and understand a student’s emotional and educational needs, recognize and respond appropriately to cultural and individual differences, and subsequently apply strong organizational time management skills, exude patience, creativity, and dependability and work collaboratively and cooperatively with colleagues, support staff, parents, and community members.


a) A comprehensive understanding and basic linguistics.
b) Identification and classification of speech sounds, including their production, transmission, and reception.

c) An acquaintance of a variety of teaching methods and techniques, experienced knowledge to apply the principles of teaching methodology as required in different situations. General knowledge of the major theories related to first and second language acquisition.

d) Awareness of objectives of teaching English as foreign language for communications and understanding other nations, and as a tool of technology.

e) Familiarity with different types of language tests (achievements, proficiency, progress, aptitude, diagnostic) and their man criteria to evaluate in learner’s communicative skills in the target language and getting positive backwash effect to improve their method and techniques.

f) An understanding of curriculum development principles, knowledge of educational administration activities such as class management discipline and an experienced knowledge of conducting a reflective preparation of lessons.

2.18 Teacher’s Personal Quantities

Moon (2000) argues that the most important reasons for pupils liking English seem to be teacher and teaching methods. The teacher’s positive attitudes are considered to be a significant factor for a successful EFL teacher. Teachers of English should conceptualize their duties as to arouse the learner’s interest to learn the foreign language. By doing so, they will understand their learning problems and motivate them to follow autonomous techniques for overcoming such difficulties. Motivation plays an important role in the efficiency of the performance of the teachers of young learners.
The true level of ability of a person is fully expressed in the level of performance only when (and if) the person is optimally motivated at the time given the requirements of the task (Motivation) affects the time spent in an activity, and it affects the efficiency of performance of an activity. (Wu, 2003) Furthermore, the classroom environment can produce a direct effect on young learners. It develops intrinsic motivation. For example, it can establish the relationship between variables and environmental variables, such as the cohesiveness of the learning community and the communication style of the teacher.

Other personal and technical qualities should help teachers of young learners to be successful in their career. These are the degree of intelligence and the emotional maturity displayed i.e. to be patient, warm-hearted, sensitive, open-minded, and flexible. Also, the awareness of trends and developments in language teaching and keeping a portfolio of learner’s performance can improve his professional effectiveness throughout his career. As well as being a language model for students in learning English and understand English culture (Morries, 1977:32) To conclude these qualities criteria for determining the scope of the personal attributes for the preparation needed for the EFL teacher, the possible effectiveness can be achieved when they are planned and administered in the light of the whole range of the teacher’s professional needs.

2.18 Characteristic of Professional Teacher

The professional of teaching has not yet been able to establish a data base that has sufficient validity to predict who will succeed and who will fail. There are many reasons why research and studies efforts have failed to produce criterion valid instruments. One reason is that teaching is a human
process which requires constant interactions between the teacher and pupils. Consequently the number of factors affecting the process of teaching is many. The profession must continue its efforts to identify the qualifications needed for competent teaching. The problem is that there is no solid line between success and failure, since one maybe weak in certain areas but strong in others. The identifications of a mix of characteristics that describe the qualifications required for successful teaching in necessary. Hamacheck (1969) identifies several traits that good teachers possess:

1- Teaching is a human process. Teachers should have sense of humor; they can empathize with students; they are fair; they are flexible; and they are naturally and easily with pupils and peers.

2- They feel good themselves and they have a positive view of others. They feel adequate; they feel wanted; they are trust worthy.

3- They are knowledgeable and well informed on a wide range of the subject matter. They have a respect for knowledge and they want their pupils learn to respect it as a vital force in a happy and a productive life.

4- They are able to communicate effectively. They understand that communication include more than presentation. The communication process provides for discovery and interaction with others as it provides for the developmental of personal meanings.

Hamacheck concluded that the most repeated word used to describe a good teacher is ‘’flexibility’’ and provided an operational definition of the word ‘’flexibility’’ as follows:

*In other word, the good teacher does not seem to be overwhelmed by a single point of view or approach to the point of intellectual myopia. A good teacher knows that he cannot be just one kind of approach if he intends to meet the multiple needs of his students.*
Good teachers are, in sense, ‘‘total teacher’’. That is, they seem able to be what they have to be to meet the demands of the moment. They seem able to move with the shifting tides of their own needs, the student’s, and do what has to be done to handle the situation. A total teacher can be firm when necessary (say ‘no’ and mean it) or permissive (say ‘why not try it your way?’ and mean that, too) when appropriate. It depends in many things, and good teachers know the difference.

2.19 How an EFL Teacher be Effective

Since, no method has been proven to be more effective than another, many teachers prefer an eclectic method which would have this as the best available choice since variety method is dominant. (Jarolimek and Foster, 1976). There are teaching principles that EFL teachers needed to learn. They are:

1) A teacher will be able to control his class better and gain more respect if he learn the student’s names early on. If he is one who has a poor memory for names, should have all the students hold up name cards and take a picture of them on the first day of class. On the second class, empresses them by showing them he knows all their names. By doing this the teacher will create a friendly relationship.

2) An EFL teacher should expect his students to use English! 100% of the time, and accept it if they only achieve 95% usage. He should not let them get away with speaking mother tongue communicate with their parents.

He may deal quickly with inappropriate Conduct in a friendly yet firm manner.

3) If an EFL teacher doesn’t have a clear lesson – plan down on paper, then
he makes sure that he has a mental one.
He should know about how long each activity will take and have an additional activity prepared in case he has extra time.

4) An EFL teacher should consider the learners needs: “why your students are study English? How will they use English in the future? What do they need to learn?”

If many of the students are going to study abroad at an American university, for example, then the EFL teacher should be preparing them for listening to academic lectures and academic reading to some extent. If, on the other hand, most of the students have no perceived need for English in the future, perhaps he should be focusing on useful skills that they may use in the future, but may not be essential-skills such as understanding dialogs, listening to news, writing a letter to a company or a university, etc..

5) If the lesson a teacher has prepared just is not working, he should modify it. He should be sensitive to the students.

6) The EFL teacher needs to find out what the learners already know. This is an ongoing process, Students may have already been taught a particular grammar point or vocabulary.

7) The EFL teacher is the model to his students and he should be knowledgeable about grammar. This includes pronunciations, syntax, and sociolinguistic areas.

8) He also should be knowledgeable about the learner’s culture. In monolingual, like our case, classrooms the learners culture can be valuable tool for teaching.

9) Most text books follow the same tired, boring pattern and include the same major functions, grammar, and vocabulary. The main reason for this is not scientific at all-- it is the publishers’ unwillingness to take a
risk by publishing something now. Also, by trying to please all teachers’ publishers force authors to water down their materials to the extent of being unnatural at times. It is the teacher’s responsibility to add any extra necessary vocabulary, functions, grammar, or topics that he feels that the students may want or need.

10) Some activities in EFL textbooks fall apart completely in real classroom usage. It is hard to believe that some of them have actually been piloted. Many activities must be modified to make them work, and some have to be scrapped completely.

11) Most teachers and students are dissatisfied with textbooks currently available. Nevertheless, it is essential that EFL teachers choose a textbook that is truly communicative and meets the needs of their students.

12) The building blocks of language are not grammar and functions. The most essential thing students need to learn is vocabulary; without vocabulary EFL teachers have no words to form syntax, no words to pronounce. EFL teachers need to help their students to become vocabulary hungry.

13) Many familiar teaching points can be turned into games, or activities with a competitive angle. These activities are the good way to motivate students and liven up your classroom.

14) By giving a variety of interesting topics and activities, students will be more motivated and interested, and they are likely to practice more.

15) With more on-task time they will improve more rapidly.

Language and culture are inseparable. If culture is not a part of language lessons, then EFL teachers are not really teaching language, they are teaching about language.
16) By all means EFL teachers should teach the more important aspects of pronunciations, but do not bombard the students with minimal pair drills that cannot be applied to real communication. They do not really understand the meaning of any of those minimal pairs their teachers teach anyway.

A more rational approach would be to teach pronunciation in context, as necessary. For example if they are teaching a section on health, teach syllables stress with sickness words. Fever, headache, backbone, earache, constipation, etc…

17) EFL teachers should explain exactly what their students are expected to learn in a particular lesson. They need to make sure that students know what they are doing and why. The lessons should be transparent to the students, with a clear organization.

18) EFL teachers do not have to be actors or clowns, but students appreciate it when the teachers show genuine interest in teaching. Teachers who are jaded with EFL would do best to hide it, or consider moving on to another profession.

19) EFL teachers treat students as individuals, not subjects. They should not patronize or talk down to them; talk to them as one would any other person. Only in this way will true communication take place.

20) EFL teachers should make use humor to liven up the class. EFL teachers need to make it a habit to get the students to laugh at least once per lesson and be happy all the time.

21) EFL teachers should demonstrate rather than explaining whenever possible. They need to make their instructions short and clear.

22) EFL teachers should watch the faces and reactions of their students. Do they understand the lesson? Are they interested or bored? They need
to try to be aware of what is going on in your classroom at all times. If they are starting class and one student is still talking, then they should try to gently get him to stop. If they are sitting with a pair of students on one side of the room, thus they ought to be attentive to what is happening in other groups as well. There may be a group across the room that is confused and does not know what to do.

23) If EFL teachers love their coo, they will lose hard-won respect. Even if they have to go so far as to leave the classroom, the teachers should control the manner; explain to the class or student why you are unhappy with them.

24) EFL teachers should praise their students when they are getting better and encourage them when they are not doing as well as they can.

25) EFL teacher should think about their own teaching. After each lesson is ever take some time to reflect. Was the lesson effective? What were the good and bad points? How could it be improved? They need to be reflective all the time.

26) Keep in shape: EFL teachers do not have to become jaded with teachers. Get into it. They need to look at new course books and teachers training books to get new ideas. Show their ideas with colleagues. Go to conference.

There are those times when nothing goes right despite our best intentions. We must be humble enough to admit to themselves and to their students that we just messed up.

2.20 Good and Bad Teacher

Most of us have at least one story of an inspirational schoolteacher who opened our minds to learning – or the other extreme of a “terrible” one.
These are attitudes which we keep in the memories, which we never forget. Dr. Steven Sexton, the educational researcher, is intrigued by the notion of what makes so-called “good” and “bad” teachers, and how such ideals impact on teachers’ own self-perceptions and approach to their job. His research comes out with the view that, ‘teachers were strongly influenced by their own experiences in the classroom as children.’ Sexton decided it was time to investigate school aged students’ points-of-view to find out what children think makes a good teacher.

In particular, given widespread concern about the relative lack of male teachers in our schools, Sexton is interested in exploring what he considers to be the real issues. He posits that the issue of a paucity of male teachers has been sensationalized by media and by educational “essentialists” who argue that having male role models in the classroom is crucial, especially for boys.

“I see the issue as being more about gender issues and gender stereotypes,” says Sexton, who refers too much of the postulation about the negative effects of low numbers of male teachers as “media garbage”. He contends that this essentialist argument relies on gender stereotypes that don’t allow for gender diversity. In other words, it presupposes that all male teachers share similar teaching qualities and styles, as do all female teachers. This oversimplification is comparable to the commonly fashionable idea that girls learn differently to boys.

“Some people will fit into these stereotypes, but the arguments ignore that the singularly important issue is really about good and bad teaching. Which is why Sexton will spend the next year interviewing groups of school students of both male and female teachers in various primary and secondary schools, including some aged as young as five?
Actively incorporating young children in educational surveys is relatively new practice, he says, and one that requires careful planning and ethical preparation to ensure that participants and their families feel safe in the process, but the efforts are worthwhile.

"Students need the best opportunities we can give them. If teachers aren't doing that well, some kids just won't stand a chance."

“More researchers have begun to realize that students as young as five and six have something insightful to say,” says Sexton, who will also interview teachers and principals. “Students know who’s a good teacher and who isn’t.”

Sexton theories that children of this age will indicate that they like a teacher who makes them feel secure, while he expects children in years 5 to 8 will want a teacher who is “firm, but fair”. He anticipates that secondary school students will tell him they enjoy a teacher with a passion for their subject who can ignite interest in them.

Sexton points to the overly-prescriptive curriculum of 1993 as one of the driving factors behind the exodus of males from the teaching profession in New Zealand, as well as more often-quoted factors such as relatively low salaries and social status, and fear of allegations of inappropriate behaviour. The new curriculum, he believes, is helping to raise the perception of teaching as a highly-skilled profession, while other factors such as the development of teacher specializations are also helping to bring men back into the classroom. All teachers, male and female, can make their mark on future generations.

Education, as everyone knows, is a great equalizer. It is one of the strongest tools we have for addressing social inequities. Students need the best opportunities that we can give them. Teachers should do that well as some
kids just won’t stand a chance.
One would hope that all teachers would strive to be excellent, and effective. However, education is just like any other profession. There are those who work extremely hard at their craft getting better on a daily basis and there are those that are just simply there never striving to improve. Even though this type of teacher is in the minority, these bad teachers contribute significantly to making all teachers look ineffective. It is a frustrating reality in education, but there are bad teachers.

There are bad teachers that honestly believe they are good teachers. These teachers either lack a significant skill to become effective or simply do not have a grasp on what being an effective teacher requires. There are other bad teachers that know exactly what they are and what they are doing. Those teachers can typically be classified into two groups. They are the veteran teachers that are burned out or the newbie that realized they did not want to be a teacher until it was too late.

Anyhow, these teachers are not doing themselves, their students, or their profession any favors by hanging on just to draw a pay check.

There are many different ways showing that a teacher can be bad. Even an overall effective teacher may be ineffective in certain areas. A major part of a principal’s job is to identify which teachers are effective, which teachers need to improve, and which ones are ineffective and need to be dismissed. This process begins with an accurate teacher evaluation.

What qualities can deem that a teacher is ineffective or bad? There are many different things that can derail a teacher’s career.

Below are some of the most important and prevalent qualities that a bad teacher may possess:
2.21 Lack of Classroom Management

Lack of classroom management, is probably the single biggest downfall of a bad teacher. This issue can be the demise of any teacher no matter what their intentions are. If a teacher cannot control the students in the classroom they will not be able to teach them effectively. To be a good classroom manager, starts on the first day, by incorporating simple rules and expectations and then following through on predetermined consequences when those procedures and expectations are compromised. Any teacher trying to be friendly, the students will be ineffective in the area of classroom management. Students, usually, test teachers quickly recognizing the weakness, and take over a class before a teacher knows what happens.

2.21.1 Lack of Content Knowledge

Most institutions require teachers to pass a comprehensive series of assessments to obtain certification within a specific subject area. With this requirement, you would think that all teachers would be proficient enough to teach the subject area(s). There are some teachers that do not know the content knowledge well enough to teach it. This is an area that could be overcome through preparation. All teachers should thoroughly go through any lesson before they teach it to make sure they understand what they are going to teach. Teachers will lose credibility with their students extremely fast if they do not know what they are teaching, thus making them ineffective.

2.21.2 Lack of Motivation

Some teachers are not motivated to be effective teachers. They spend the minimum amount of time necessary to do their job. They never arrive early or stay late. They are just there. They do not challenge their students, rarely
give homework, are often behind on grading, show videos often, and give “free” days on a regular basis. There is no creativity in their teaching, they rarely smile or seem excited, and they typically make no connections with other faculty or staff members.

2.21.3 Lack of Organizational Skills

Effective teachers must be organized. A teacher has to keep up with so many things on a daily basis. They must be organized to do their jobs effectively. A system that works for one teacher may not necessarily work for another. A teacher needs to develop some sort of organizational system that works for them. Teachers who lack organizational skills will be ineffective. It will lead to unnecessary frustration and can take away from the good things that the teacher is trying to do. Teachers who recognize a weakness in organization should seek help to improve that area. It can be improved very quickly with some good direction and advice.

2.21.4 Lack of Professionalism

Professionalism encompasses different areas of teaching. A lack of professionalism can result in a teacher’s dismissal. Those are teachers who are routinely absent or are ineffective. They cannot do their job if they are not there to do it. Failing to follow the district dress code on a regular basis can also land a teacher in difficulties. This is especially true for young female teachers who dress provocatively. Some teachers use inappropriate language in their classroom. Each of these situations involves a serious lack of professionalism which will undermine a teacher’s overall effectiveness.

2.21.5 Poor Judgment

Teachers, like any other human being, make decisions on a daily basis. However, many of the decisions that a teacher makes affects their students
which they are charged with leading, educating, or protecting. Teachers have to keep their wits and make good smart decisions in every situation they encounter. Too many good teachers have lost their careers because they had a moment of poor judgment instead of thinking things all the way through. Common sense goes a long ways in protecting yourself. If there is a chance that it will harm someone, then you probably should lean the other way.

2.21.6 Poor People Skills

Having excellent people skills can mask a lot of inefficiencies. On the flip side, having poor people skills can undermine your effectiveness in other areas. A teacher has to be effective at dealing with people including their students, parents, other teachers, staff members, and administrators. Therefore, good communication is essential. Parents especially want to know what is going on in their child’s classroom. Having good people skills is essential and the lack of such skills could destroy at least teacher’s overall effectiveness.

2.22 Previous Studies

After discernible survey in various libraries of Sudanese universities, no one-to-one corresponding research has been carried out. In other words, no equivalent research has been written by any of researchers. Gareeballa HajoHamdoun Mudhawi (2000:112) of Khartoum University stresses in his Ph.D. thesis the importance of training teachers of English language under the title: A Training Programme for Sudanese Basic Level Teacher of English. Arafa Mahmoud Hamid Al-Taras (2006:78) of Gezira University reveals the role of language teacher as an important factor in the learning situation, under the title of her master thesis ‘The need for an Effective Teacher
Training Programme’. She comments that a teacher who is communicatively incompetent will be unable to teach English language communicatively.

Nahid Mohammed Ahmed Ali (2006:78) of Gezira University provides reasons for failure of students to communicate in English under her master thesis ‘Reasons Why EFL Students Fail to Communicate in English’, as follow:

“A good number of teachers working in the field of education at the secondary level are not trained. They are also not competent enough in communicative skills to provide one of the sources that enrich the learners’ communicative language input”.

The word ‘competence’ has been mentioned by some Sudanese researches. Suhair Adalan Mohammed Ahmed (2005:7-8) of Gezira University lists under her master thesis ‘The syllabus Inadequacies for Developing EFL Learners’ Oral Communicative,’ the components of communicative competence: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. All researchers ‘ideas before correspond to ‘competence’ as knowledge and not as the concept of Competent English Language Teacher, the quality of teacher or effective teacher. This indicates that Competent English Language Teacher is a terra incognita (i.e. unexplored idea or area).
CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

The current chapter focuses on the methods used in the study as well as presenting the subject being studied, the instruments and the procedures involve in eliciting the research data. The methodology adopted in the study includes descriptive analytical methods. The tools used to collect data include questionnaire for EFL teachers and an interview with some teacher supervisors collected is classified and analyzed statistically in terms of tables to be described.

3.1 Population of the Study

The population chosen for this study represents EFL teachers at basic schools children in Madani Locality. The population of the study consisted of (300) teacher at the basic schools Madani Locality.

3.2 Sample of the Study

The sample of this study consisted of (150) EFL teachers at the and (10) ICT teacher supervisors Madani Locality.

3.3 Tools of Data Collection

There are two procedures which were followed in collecting the data for this study. They were questionnaire for EFL teachers and an interview with teacher supervisors. The information was collected through a self-administered questionnaire distributed personally to the subject of this study. Also the researcher held the interview with the teacher supervisors.
3.3.1 The Questionnaire for EFL Teachers

A questionnaire is designed for EFL teachers at secondary level to collect information about "The impact of incompetent teacher on EFL learner's motivation" at the faculties sample of this study secondary schools at Madani Locality to know teachers opinions and attitudes. The questionnaire consist of (20) statement and the statement have (3) options (agree, neutral and disagree). Teachers' responses by the statements of the questionnaire were statistically treated and analyzed by using (SPSS) programme.

3.3.2 Interview

The researcher has interviewed some teacher supervisors because they are specialized and know the surroundings of ELT field. They were asked about different related points in order to know their opinions attitudes, suggestions will be of great help.

3.5 Reliability and Validity of the Questionnaire

3.4.1 Reliability

Reliability is a term that used when the assessment tool has the ability to perform accurately its intended purpose when it is applied again over time. The basic idea of reliability as stated by Huck and Cornier (1996:76) is summed up by the world consistency. The same thought on reliability has also granted before by Black and Champion (1976: 232) as "ability to measure consistently". The consistency here is simply used to mean that the same questionnaire gives same outcome when it is repeated again, so it is a consistency of the results. A number of methods have been adopted in measuring the reliability; the researcher uses the “Split-half reliability” method. First, the common measure of correlation “Pearson’s Correlation Coefficient” is applied with its following formula:
\[ R_{xy} = \frac{N \sum XY - \sum X \sum Y}{\sqrt{[N \sum X^2 - (\sum X)^2][N \sum Y^2 - (\sum Y)^2]}} \]

Where

\( r = \text{correlation} \)
\( R = \text{Reliability of the test} \)
\( N: \text{number of all items in the test} \)
\( X: \text{odd scores} \)
\( Y: \text{even scores} \)
\( \sum : \text{sum} \)
\( \sqrt{\text{reliability}} \)

Correlation = 0.75

\[ R = \frac{2r}{1+r} \]

Reliability = 0.86

Based on this statistical result, it is clear that the questionnaire has adequate reliability.

3.5.2 Validity

While reliability refers to stability of measured results in other repeated application, validity is used to mean the degree to which a questionnaire reflects reality. According to Joppe (2000: 1) validity determines "whether the research truly measures that which it was intended to measure or how truthful the research results are".

\[ v = \sqrt{r} \]
\[ v = 0.86^{0.5} = 0.88 \]

This statistical result reflects an ideal questionnaire validity.
Table (3.1) Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>46.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>53.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig (3.1) Sex

Table and figure (3.1) show that (53.7%) are female and (46.3%) male. So, According to the result the majority of the sample is female.
Table (3.2) Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Graduate</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>75.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post graduate</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>22.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>others (specify)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig (3.2) Education

Table and fig(3.2) show that (75.3%) graduate, (22.7%) Post graduate and (2.0%) other (specify).
### Table (3.3) Specialization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EFL</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>87.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others (specify)</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>150</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Fig (3.3) Specialization

Table and fig (3.3) reveals that (87.3%) EFL and (12.7%) are (Others specify). So the majority of the sample is EFL teacher.
Table (3.4) Experience in years

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Experience in years</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 3</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>62.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-6</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>23.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 10</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>150</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig (3.4) Experience in years

Table and fig(3.4) shows that (62.7%) less than 3 years, (23.3%) 3-6 years, (4.7%) 7-10 years, and (9.3%) more than 10 years.
4.0 Introduction

This chapter is intended to present, analyze and discuss the data which has been collected by means of the questionnaire. It also intended to test the research hypotheses against the research findings. It includes the analysis of the teachers' questionnaire, testing the hypotheses of the study and the answer to the research questions. The data was analyzed statistically by (SPSS ) program statistical Package for social science.

4.1 Results of the Questionnaire

Statement: (1) The general atmosphere in any school is conducive to learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>55.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>29.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>15.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Fig(4.1)

From table (4-1) and fig(4-1), 12.5% teachers strongly agree, 55.3% agree, 29.3% disagree and 15.3% neutral. According to the result the statement is supported since, 55.3% of teachers agree.
**Statement:** (2) Learners motivation respond positive to available teaching materials

**Table (4.2)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>70.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>16.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Fig (4.2)**

From table (4-2) and fig (4-2) teachers who agree are 70.7% teachers, those who disagree are 13.3% and 16% neutral. So according to the results 70.7% percent of the teacher agree with the statement.
Statement : (3) Learners motivation respond positive to eliciting techniques use in teaching EFL

**Table(4.3)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>59.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>19.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>21.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Fig(4.3)**

From table (4-3) and fig (4-3) teachers who agree are 59.4%, those who disagree are 19.3% and 21.3% neutral. According to the results teachers who agree are 59.4%. So the statement is reliable.
Statement: (4) Improving teaching materials from available source e.g. magazine, newspaper etc.

Table (4.4)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>60.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>26.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig(4.4)

From table(4-4) and fig (4-4) above teachers who agree are 60.7%, those who disagree are 26% and 13.3% neutral. According to the results 60.7% of the teachers agree. So the statement can be regarded true.
**Statement : (5)** Incompetent teacher in the class hiders the learning process

**Table (4.5)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>59.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>19.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>21.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Fig(4.5)**

From table (4-5) and fig(4-5) teachers who agree are 59.4%, those who disagree are 19.3% and 21.3% neutral. According to the results, teachers who agree are 59.4%, so the statement can be accepted.
Statement: (6) My, blackboards, book and chalk are only aids available

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>63.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>28.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig (4.6)

From table (4-6) and fig(4-6) teachers who agree are 63.3%, those who disagree are 28% and 7.8% are neutral. According to the results teachers who agree are 63.5%. So the statement is highly significant.
Statement: (7) English language teachers are competent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>31.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>18.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig(4.7)

From table (4.7) and fig(4.7) teachers who agree are 50%, those who disagree are 31.3% and 18.7% are neutral. According to the results teachers who are agree is (50%). So the statement is given reliability.
Statement: (8) Qualities of competent English be creative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table (4.8)</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>56.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>20.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>22.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig (4.8)

From table (4-8) and fig(4-8) teachers who agree are 56.7% those who disagree are 20.7 and 22.7% are neutral. According to the teachers who agree are 56.7%. So the statement could be relied on.
Statement:(9) English language need competent teacher for learner's motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>80.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>11.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Table (4.9)](image)

Fig (4.9)

From tenable (4-9) and fig(4-9) teachers who agree are 80%, those who disagree are 11.3% and 8.7%, are neutral. According to the results teachers who agree 80%. So the statement can be counted on.
Statement: (10) Effectiveness contribute to the creation of qualities of competent English language teacher of EFL learner's motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>54.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>21.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>24.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig(4.10)

From table (4-10) and fig(4-10) teachers who agree are 54.7% those who disagree are 21.3%, and 24% neutral. According to the results teacher who agree are 54.7%. So the statement is supported.
Statement: (11) Incompetent English language teacher on EFL learner's motivation been given an upper hand.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>32.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>17.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4.11)

Fig(4.11)

From table (4-11) and fig(4-11) teachers who agree are 50%, those who disagree are 32.7% and 17.3% neutral. According to the results teachers who agree are 50%. So the statement is significant.
Statement : (12) Access of good qualities makes successful teacher.

Table (4.12)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>75.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>14.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig(4.12)

From table (4-12) and fig(4-12) teachers who agree are 75.3%, those who disagree are 10%, and 14.7% are neutral. According to the results teachers who agree are 75.3%. SO the statement can be adopted for measurement.
**Statement:** (13) Organized teaching leads to high standard in teacher's qualities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>74.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Fig(4.13)**

From table (4-13) and fig(4-13) teachers who agree are 74%, those who disagree are 16.7%, and 9.3% are neutral. According to the results teachers who disagree are 74%. So the statement is not supported.
**Statement:** (14) Appropriate EFL learners motivation result of a competent English language teacher

**Table (4.14)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>61.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>19.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>19.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Fig (4.14)**

From table (4-14) and fig(4-14) teachers who agree are 61.3%, those who disagree are 19.3%, and 19.3% neutral. According to the results teachers who agree are 613%. So the statement can be accepted.
Statement: (15) Effective EFL learners motivation result achieves societal betterment or development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>60.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>22.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>natural</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>17.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table (4-15) and fig(4-15) teachers who agree are 60%, those who disagree are 22.7%, and 17.3% neutral. According to the results teachers are agreed with the statement.
Statement (16) Teaching ability demands competence teacher on EFL learning motivation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>agree</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>65.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>16.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>18.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig (4.16)  
From table (4-16) and fig(4-16) teachers who agree are 65.3%, those who disagree are 16% and 18.7% neutral. According to the results teachers who agree are 65.3%. So the statement is supported.
Statement: (17) Most parents don't follow up their teacher on EFL learning motivation

Table (4.17)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>92</td>
<td>61.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>18.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig (4.17)

From table (4-17) and fig(4-17) teachers who strongly agree are 61.3%, those who disagree are 18.7% and 20% are neutral. According to the results teachers who agree are 61.3%. So the statement is highly significant.
Statement: (18) Spine syllabus pays no attention to some of learners' specially motivation on EFL

Table (4.18)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>62.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>21.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig (4.18)

From table (4-18) and fig(4-18) teachers who agree are 62%, those who disagree are 16.7% and 21.3% are neutral. According to the results teachers who agree are 62%. So the statement is highly significant.
Statement: (19) The syllabus offered is not sufficient to achieve EFL objective at basic school children.

Table (4.19)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>78</td>
<td>52.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>28.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From tenable (4-19) and fig(4-19) teachers who strongly agree are 52%, those who agree are 28% and 20%, are neutral. According to the results teachers who agree 52%. So the statement can be counted on.
**Statement:** (20) The use of visual aids arouses learner's motivation in learning EFL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>73.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disagree</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neutral</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>17.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Fig (4.20)**

From table (4-20) and fig (4-20) above teachers who agree are 73.5%, those who disagree are 9.3% and 17.3% neutral. According to the results 73.5% of the teachers agree. So the statement can be regarded true.
4.2 The Interview

According to teachers’ supervisor interview all the interviewees agree that English language teaching needs to continue training, monitoring on motivations learning. Also add that the teachings need an expert to the message to students. Most of them agree that teacher follow methodological strategy in motivating learners. The majority of the respondents disagree that teachers provide the further information about the target culture and the guidance as to how to present it to their EFL learners. Teachers of English are not conscious of the importance of incorporating the motivation component in FL teaching, and do not design activities to integrate it in their lessons, has been partly confirmed, and partly not. Finally all the interviewees emphasize the necessity of the trained master who know very well when and how to remedy such thing.

4.3 Testing the Hypotheses

**Hypothesis One:** Access of good qualities makes a successful teacher. According to statistical results in the tables (4.13, 74%), (4-12, 75.3%), (4-10, 54.7%) and (4-8, 56.7%), illustrate that Access of good qualities makes a successful teacher, this result has proved that the hypothesis is accepted.

**Hypothesis Two:** Organized teaching leads to high standard in teacher’s qualities. According to statistical result, in the table (13, 74%), (20, 73.3%), (6, 63.3%) has supported strongly this hypothesis so it is accepted.

**Hypothesis Three:** Appropriate EFL learner’s motivation is a result of a competent English language teacher. Statistical results in the tables (4-20, 73.3%) and table (4-17, 61.3%), Table(4.16,65.3%) majority of the
respondents agree that: Appropriate EFL learner’s motivation is a result of a competent English language teacher. This result has proved that the hypothesis is accepted.

**Hypothesis Four** Effective EFL learner’s motivation achieves societal betterment soar development. According to statistical results in the tables (10,54.7%) ,(15,60%) ,(18,62%) illustrate that Effective EFL learner’s motivation achieves societal betterment soar development, this result has proved that the hypothesis is accepted.

**Hypothesis Five**: Teaching ability demands competence teacher on EFL learning motivation. According to statistical results in the tables (2-70.7%),(3,54%) ,(9, 80%) illustrate that Teaching ability demands competence teacher on EFL learning motivation., this result has proved that the hypothesis is accepted.
CHAPTER FIVE
CONCLUSION, FINDINGS
AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction
This chapter is closely concern with conclusion, findings and recommendations.

5.1 Conclusion
The process of teaching English foreign language will be under responsibility of both teachers and learners, the incompetence teachers encourage the students and use attractive methods to draw students' attention through the lesson and also students should take the learning process seriously to achieve the aims in the lesson. In this study the researcher come across teacher activities that delay the motivation of learners during the process of learning. Above all the teachers play a great role in motivating and teaching process.

5.2 Findings
The analysis of the collected data shows that:
1. The use of visual –aids arouses learner's motivation in learning EFL.
2. Syllabus pays no attention to some of learners' specially motivation on EFL.
3. Organized teaching leads to high standard in teacher's qualities
4. Teacher who is communicatively incompetent will be unable to teach English language communicatively.
5. Using appropriate visual aids these may enable the teacher to avoid long and monotonous explanations.
6. To motivate students during the classroom, a teacher should provide his learners with a tape to appeal them for lessons.

7. Organized teaching leads to high standard in teacher's qualities.

8. A competent teacher seizes every opportunity to encourage learning, believing that all students can learn.

9. A good teacher understands the importance of developing oneself before he is able to provide support for others.

10. To develop competence, teachers need to progress from awareness to capacity building.

**5.3 Recommendations**

The researcher recommended the following points:

1. Teachers should receive training on lesson planning and classroom management.

2. Teachers can make a difference, for better or for worse, in motivating students to learn.

3. The lack of motivation makes students uncomfortable and inactive.

4. Incompetent teachers should use more attractive methods that will encourage students to pay too much attention in the lesson.

5. Mutual respecting is very important between teachers and learners inside the classroom because it enhances treatment between them.

6. EFL teachers should consider the learners' needs.

7. Foreign language teaching should be linked to the environment of the learner.
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