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TITLE

***Triggering off Work-Avoidant Learner's Extrinsic
Motivation through the Use of Rewards during
Classroom Interaction***

The case study: Second year foreign language learners of Technicum high school

**A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the
Degree of Master of Language Sciences and Didactics**

Presented by:

Drifa Chettout

Supervised by:

Mr. Karim Medjekoune

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Dedication

I would like to dedicate this modest work to all my lovely family, to Samir, Souhila, and Wahiba and to my close friends Nabila and Feirouz, for their help, support, encouragement, and for their kind assistance.

Abstract

This study investigated whether the implementation of rewards, the use of interactional activities, and the change in the students' shape of sitting can promote teacher-student interaction among work-avoidant learners. The participants were thirteen students from Technicum high school, and they were second year foreign language learners. The objective of this study is to explore this category of students, to know more about them, and to evaluate whether the implementation of rewards, the use of interactional activities, and the change in the students' way of sitting are effective ways to make work-avoidant students more involved in the teacher-student interaction. Toward this end, the technique chosen to treat the research problem and the hypothesis is the experimental one. Thus, the research participants were divided into two groups; an experimental group, that comprehends nine students from class A, experienced the use of rewards, the round shape, and the implementation of interactional activities during the period of study; and a control group, that has four students from class B, has not experienced the things mentioned above. For the data collection, we have chosen to use classroom observation, which were used during the experiment, and questionnaires, which were used three times for each group, as research tools. The first time, we used Students' Goal Orientation Questionnaire with two classes, of about forty students for each, in order to sort out the work-avoidant students. After treating the data of this questionnaire, we have sorted out nine work-avoidant students in class A and four in class B. After that, we used a second questionnaire which is the Pre-Test Questionnaire on the General Causes of Classroom Interaction. The latter was used with each group, before and after the experiment, to know about students' attitudes at the beginning and at the end of the experiment. I mean, to know whether the experiment is effective or no. The results of the observation checklist and the questionnaires were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. The findings showed that the work-avoidant students' involvement in classroom interaction is increasing. Consequently, these research findings validated our research hypothesis.

Keywords: goal orientation, work-avoidant learners, rewards, classroom interaction, round shape, interactional activities.

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Glossary of terms

-Goal orientation : a theory that states which states that people evaluate their abilities before they set goals (Seminar of learning theories, 2011).

-Work-avoidant learners: they are learners who are characterized by absenteism and lack of participation in the classroom because they do not want to appear ridiculous (Seminar of Learning Theories, 2011).

-Rewards: they are attractive objects or events which are implemented as a consequence of a particular behavior (Seminar of Learning Theories, 2011).

-Classroom interaction: it is the process where teachers and learners negotiate throughout the course in order to attain specific goals (Khamwan, 2007).

List OF Abbreviations

EFL: English as a foreign Language

WA: Work-avoidance

PG: Performance Goals

SG: Social Goals

MG: Mastery Goals

CD: Compact Disc

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I. Statement of the Problem

The problem that many teachers face in the classroom is the non-interactive classrooms where some students are unresponsive and avoid all the situations where there is interaction with their teacher. These students do not respond to the teachers' questions and do not participate. This is a very important problem because classroom interaction may bring many benefits for language learning (Ellis, 1993; cited in Khamwan, 2007). Generally, this category of learners is motivated neither to learn, nor to participate in classroom interaction. We call these learners work-avoidant learners; they are learners who avoid situations where their self-esteem might be touched. Therefore, learners from this category always do not participate during the classroom interaction and most of teachers fail to make them integrated in the classroom interaction. This study aims at investigating about the effects of rewarding this kind of learners i.e. whether giving them rewards might trigger off their extrinsic motivation to participate (Seminar of Learning Theories, 2011).

II. Hypothesis

- If we use abstract and physical rewards with the work-avoidant students, their extrinsic motivation will be triggered off and they will be more involved in classroom interaction.

III. Background and Significance of the study

We often observe at EFL learners that students have low motivation to learn English and many of EFL students refuse to integrate themselves in the classroom interaction. Although many researches have been conducted on the different kinds of learners and many aspects of motivation have been studied, it is still felt that this topic is in its infancy and it needs further researches. Motivation is a major problem for most EFL teachers as it is the most important factor that makes work-avoidance learners participate better. This study aims at investigating about the positive aspects of extrinsic motivation. In addition, it explores the importance of rewards on work-avoidant learners using either physical or abstract rewards to make them motivated to participate in the classroom interaction since they need to be highly motivated. At the end of this study, the results will provide EFL teachers with a way, which solves the problem of work-avoidant learners, as the results, will encourage them to use rewarding as a way to trigger their extrinsic motivation.

IV. Setting and Participants of the Study

The participants of this research work are 14 of second year students from foreign language classes. They are from the Technicum high school in the academic year 2012/2013. These students are a mixture of males and females. The majority of the students speak Berber as their mother tongue, and they speak French as a foreign language.

Our research participants are from two different classes taught by different teachers. Our research study lasted fifteen hours because of the nature of our research problem, which needs a lot of time to change the work-avoidant students' attitude toward classroom interaction.

V. Research Methodology

The selected technique to treat the research problem is the experimental one. Our research subjects were divided into two groups. The experimental group which experienced the round shape, the interactional activities, and the rewards. The control group which has not experienced the afore mentioned things. For the data collection, we used an observation checklist and questionnaires. The first questionnaire entitled 'The Students Goal Orientation Questionnaire' was handed for 77 students in order to sort out the work-avoidant students. The preliminary and post questionnaires were administered only for the work-avoidant students of the experimental and control group in order to see the work-avoidant learners' attitudes toward classroom interaction before and after the experiment. The observation checklist was used all along our study in order to measure the students' motivation and classroom interaction.

VI. Purpose of the study

This study aims to investigate who the work-avoidant students are and whether abstract and physical rewards, interactional activities, and round shape can promote teacher-students interaction in an EFL classroom. In addition, it aims to explore their effects on work-avoidant learners' motivation.

VII. Description of the Study

The present dissertation comprises two parts. The first part is entitled "Literature Review" which is divided into two chapters, and the second part is entitled "Practical Part" and it is divided into two chapters.

The first chapter is under the title of "Introduction and Approaches to Motivation". It gives an overview about motivation, its importance in learning, and it provides a summary of the four approaches to motivation. This chapter is divided into three sections that deal with introduction to motivation, approaches to motivation, and then the goal theory.

The second chapter is entitled "The Relation between Rewards and Classroom Interaction". It comprises three sections; the first one deals with rewards, the second

one deals with classroom interaction, and the last one deals with the importance of rewards and classroom interaction in EFL learning.

The third chapter is entitled “Methodological Design and Presentation of the General Findings”. It comprises two sections; the first section describes the research setting, method, population, and the procedures for data collection, and the second section presents the general findings which were got obtained before starting our research experiment.

The last chapter is under the title of “Results, Limitations, and Recommendations for Future Research”. It includes three sections; the first section provides a description of the findings, the second one provides an interpretation and a discussion of the results, and the last one provides some pedagogical recommendations and suggestions for future research.

Chapter One

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Introduction

This chapter is divided into three sections. The first section is an overview of motivation. The second is on the different approaches to motivation. The last section is devoted for the goal orientation theory.

I. Overview of motivation

I.1. Motivation Defined

The term motivation is a very complex concept that has been defined in many ways. "*Motivation is a desire to do something; it is enthusiasm. It is a reason or reasons for doing something*" (Concise English, 2004). Motivation might be defined as an internal state that is responsible for our behavior, it guides and maintains it. Also, it is a very slippery concept in educational psychology. People use the term motivation interchangeably with such concepts as determination, interest, enjoyment, pleasure, will, desire, drive, motive, urge, incentive, arousal, impetus, etc even if they are not really close in meaning. In addition, it is assumed that any human behavior is always justified by a reason or reasons behind doing it. As a general rule, we can say that without motivation, there is little possibility for an individual to attempt any sort of activity that might lead to his/her development unless it is obliged (Seminar of learning theories, 2011).

Another definition given by *Sandra Graham* and *Bernard Weiner* in their article *Theories and Principles of Motivation* is that motivation is the look for the causes that make people act and behave as they do (Graham and Weiner, 1996). Always in its broad sense, motivation is an impetus and a desire to do and to achieve something (Deci and Ryan, 2000). To conclude, we need to say that motivation has an important influence on human's behavior.

I.2. The Importance of Motivation in Learning

Motivation is an important element in the learning process, and triggering the students' motivation is the responsibility of teachers because without motivation, no engagement, and no achievement are to be expected (seminar of learning theories, 2011) Also, motivation can be a facilitator of learning (Pintrich, 1999).

Motivation, either in a language learning situation or in a second language acquisition context, is of a great importance on learner's attitude and motivation plays a major role (Madrid et al, 1992). Motivation is considered the most influential in unconscious language acquisition. The learners' motivational level acts as a decisive element on language intake (Madrid et al, 1992).

In order to learn a language, the learner should have the desire to communicate something to someone, that is to say he should be motivated. Reinforcement takes place when the desired end is obtained. It can be generally assumed that learners will seek language exposure only if they feel motivated (Madrid et al, 1992). In addition, Oxford and Nyikos(1989; cited in Oxford, 1992), said that motivation often makes the learners seek for the use of a variety of learning strategies that can promote language learning(Oxford, 1992). Again, Gardner(1985),said that motivation encourages greater overall effort on the part of language learners and it results in success in terms of general language proficiency (Gardner,1985).So, from these definitions we understand that motivation is one of the most important determinant factors and has a great influence on the learning process, and because of this, teachers should look for effective techniques to motivate learners especially work-avoidant learners who have a low level of motivation.

I. Approaches to Motivation

After introducing motivation with its importance in learning; it is necessary to speak about the different approaches to motivation since they have seen motivation from different points of view.

II.1. Humanistic Approach to Motivation

This approach holds that what keeps people dynamic and permanently on the move is the search to satisfy some needs. This approach states that needs exert a powerful pressure on individuals; this pressure is a motive that does not stop until the need is satisfied. Abraham Maslow, the leading figure in this approach, classified human needs into seven levels on what is known as Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. He believes that people look to satisfy all their needs from the bottom to the top, in an orderly way(Seminar of Learning Theories, 2001).

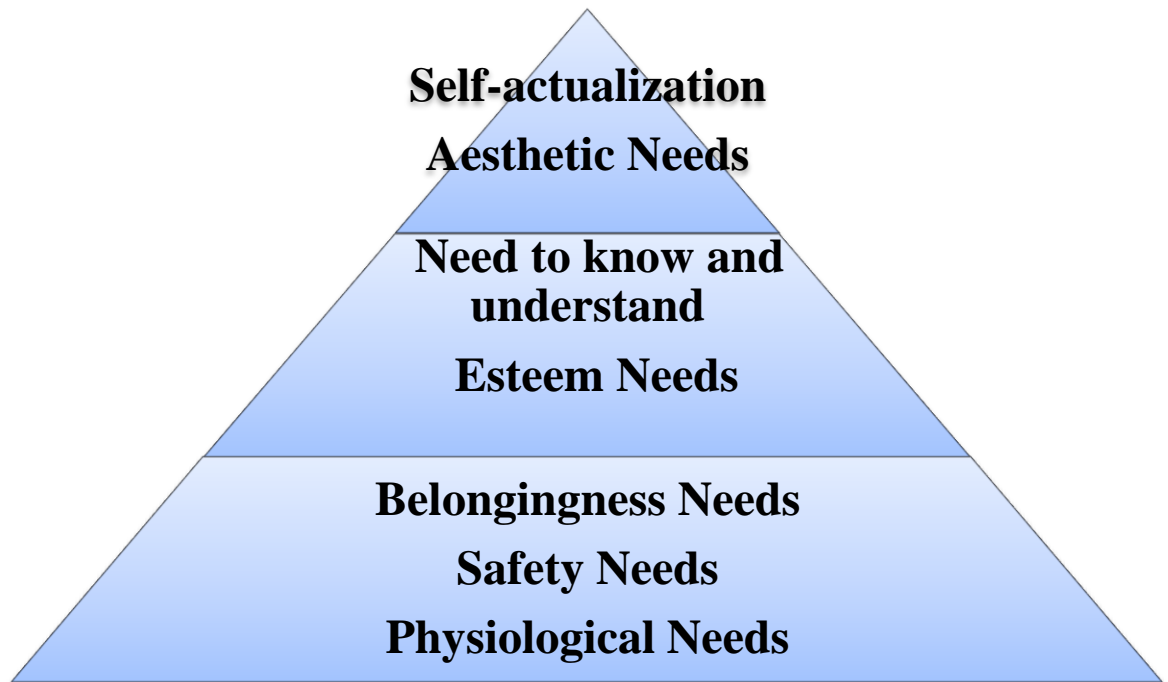


Figure 1: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Seminar of Learning theories, 2011)

People, first, are motivated to satisfy their physiological needs like eating, housing, and sleeping. After satisfying their first needs (physiological needs), people look for the satisfaction of safety needs which are the needs to be far from danger and make positive predictions about the world and the future. (Seminar of learning Theories, 2011). The third level of needs that people look to satisfy is the belongingness (also love) needs which are the needs to be respected by the society in general. Therefore, people will do their best in order to be accepted by a group (Seminar of Learning Theories, 2011). In other theories, and in general psychology, this belongingness is called socialization (Seminar of Learning Theories, 2011). The third level of needs that people are motivated to satisfy is the esteem needs which are the needs of having a positive image about one's self and being confirmed and valued by others (Seminar of Learning Theories, 2001).

Human beings have curiosity to discover and learn about every aspect of the universe. This curiosity to know can be expressed by children who relentlessly ask their parents about different things. Governments in all parts of the globe expend billions of amounts of money to finance research in order to try to answer an endless number of unsolved questions that might lead to humanity's wellbeing and happiness. Aesthetic needs are at the sixth level; they reflect people's need to appreciate beauty, organization and shape. The

seventh level that people seek to satisfy is the self-actualization needs which are, according to Maslow, rarely satisfied or never satisfied (Seminar of Learning Theories, 2011). The humanistic approach to motivation can be useful in terms of the learners' need to learn, teachers have to spark their motivation to satisfy the need to learn and interact in the classroom.

II.2. The Sociocultural Approach to Motivation

This approach states that people are invited by their societies to integrate and learn the values of those societies. Humans are social beings who need to conform to the norms, conventions, and rules of their respective societies. People are always motivated to (re)adjust their behavior in order to conform and adapt to the social norms. Derived from this approach and of direct relevance to second and foreign language learning is the theory of Integrative vs. Instrumental Motivation. This theory states that people are motivated to learn a second or foreign language either because they want to integrate the target language's community or because they want to use the language as an instrument to reach another goal (job, having online friends, studying abroad, etc.) (Seminar of learning theories, 2011).

Gardner's (1985) social psychological approach assumes that student's goals, when they engage in second language learning, fall into two categories—an integrative orientation and an instrumental one. An integrative orientation reflects a positive disposition toward a community of second language speakers, accompanied by a desire to learn second language for the purpose of interacting with, and even becoming similar to valued members of the community of second language speakers. An instrumental orientation refers to a desire to learn a second language primarily for potential concrete gains associated with second language proficiency, such as improved education, career, or financial prospects. Sociocultural orientation refers to seeking greater knowledge of the cultural and artistic production of the target language group (Gardner, 1985). These orientations may be applied in the classroom context through the use extrinsic rewards in order to spark the work-avoidant learners' extrinsic motivation to learn.

II. 3. The Behaviorist Approach to Motivation

The behaviorist approach is another approach which explained motivation according to its own point of view. This approach posits that any action is motivated by the type of incentives used to cause that action. By incentives, behaviorists refer to any external element that has the power to lead individuals into and encourage a given action. Incentives can be

divided into rewards and punishments. People engage in schooling because they are encouraged by the reward of being a learned individual in society; they are also engaged in schooling by being discouraged by ignorance. Other forms of rewards and punishments can be used to motivate a given behavior, depending on societies, gender, age, and economy. Incentives can be physical or verbal (Seminar of learning theories, 2011). According to the behaviorist view, to understand the students' motivation we have to make a careful analysis of the incentives and reinforcement present in the classroom. Reinforcement is an attractive object or event which is implemented as a consequence of a particular behavior (Woolfolk, 2004). Many theories exist within the behaviorist approach. Five of them are presented very briefly although some do not serve the problem and aim of the present study.

II.3.A.Hull's Drive theory

It holds that behavior is a function of incentive multiplied by habit. An incentive is determined by factors like hours of deprivation of a commodity necessary for survival, and habit by the number of times a response has been rewarded in a particular situation (Graham, Weiner, 1996). According to Hull, human behavior is explained in terms of stimulus-response but by the mediation of drives. Drives are internal forces, usually physiological and emotional, that push the individual to adopt a given and often predictable behavior (Seminar of learning theories, 2011). We may apply this theory in the learning context especially with the work-avoidant students through the use of some techniques that play the role of drives followed by rewards that play the role of habit.

II.3. B. Classical Conditioning

This involves the reinforcement of a natural reflex or some other behavior which occurs as a response to a particular stimulus. A well-known example of this type of conditioning, the first of its kind, is the work of Ivan Pavlov, a Russian physiologist at the start of the twentieth century, who conditioned dogs to salivate at the sound of a bell. He noticed that dogs salivated when they ate, or even saw, food. In his initial experiments he sounded a bell at the time when food was presented to the dogs. The sound of the bell became, for the dogs, an indication that food was about to be presented and eventually the

dogs would salivate at the sound of the bell irrespective of the presence of food. The dogs had been conditioned to respond to the sound of the bell by producing saliva. Their behavior had been successfully modified (Pritchard, 2008).

II.3.C. Operant Conditioning

The second type of conditioning is 'operant conditioning'. Operant conditioning is the most important type of behaviorist learning. It is more flexible in its nature than classical conditioning and therefore seen as potentially more powerful. It involves reinforcing a behavior by rewarding it. It can also work in a negative way, when an undesirable behavior can be discouraged, by following it with punishment of some form. In some cases, simply not offering an expected reward for a particular behavior is a sufficient punishment. For example, if a mother gives her child a chocolate bar every day that he tidies up his bedroom, before long the child may spend some time each day tidying. In this example, the tidying behavior increases because it is rewarded. This rewarding is known as 'reinforcement'. It is likely that the tidying behavior would decrease or stop completely if the rewards were suspended. Skinner, a psychologist working in America in the 1930s, is the most famous psychologist in the field of operant conditioning and probably the most famous behaviorist. Skinner studied the behavior of rats and pigeons, and made generalizations of his discoveries to humans. He used a device now called a Skinner box. The Skinner box was a simple, empty box in which an animal could earn food by making simple responses, such as pressing a lever. A normal, almost random action by the animal, such as pressing a lever in the box, would result in a reward, such as a pellet of food. As the rewards continued for the repetition of the action, the animal 'learnt' that in order to be fed it must press the lever. Skinner maintained that rewards and punishments control the majority of human behaviors, and that the principles of operant conditioning can explain all human learning (Pritchard, 2008).

II.4. Cognitive Approach to Motivation

This is probably the strongest, yet the most complex of the approaches to motivation. It holds that people can decide to engage in an activity when and only when they think that they can successfully exert a certain control on the activity after evaluating the activity and one's abilities and capacities to engage in that activity. It is called cognitive because many "mind operations" are set at work before generating a decision and taking a decision. This approach

is represented by many theories among which some which serve our study are presented below (Seminar of learning theories, 2011).

II.4.A. Extrinsic Vs Intrinsic Motivation

1. Extrinsic Motivation

People can do activities and undertake behaviors which are not intrinsically motivating. So, they tend to do activities which are extrinsically motivating. Extrinsic motivation is different from intrinsic motivation. Doing something which is extrinsically motivating is doing something for its instrumental value (Rayan, Deci, 2000). Rayan and Deci (2000) defined motivation as external incentives or forces that lead an individual to engage in an activity, (Deci and Rayan, 2000; cited in Mekbel, 2011) According to Rayan and Deci (2000), extrinsic motivation is a motivation which is created by external forces such as rewards and punishments; and if we are extrinsically motivated, we may have no interest in the task for its own sake; we just care about what it will gain us (Deci and Rayan, 2000; cited in Woolfolk, 2004).

Deci and Rayan recognize that not all behavior is intrinsically motivated. They proposed four levels of external regulation or extrinsic motivation (Rayan and Deci, 2000). The first level includes what they call *external regulation*. For instance, students initially may not want to work on English but do so to obtain teacher rewards and avoid punishments. These students would have a good reaction to punishments or to the offer of extrinsic rewards. They would not be intrinsically motivated and or show high interest, but, they would tend to behave well and try to do the work to obtain teachers rewards and avoid punishments. The locus of control is external in this case, but this level of motivation could have good results concerning performance or achievement. Second, students may engage in an activity because they think they are obliged and may feel guilty if they do not do this activity (Deci and Rayan, 2000).

Deci and Rayan (2000) call this *introjected regulation* because the source of motivation is internal to the person; these feelings seem to be controlling the person. The person is not doing the activity only for the rewards or to avoid punishments, the feeling of guilt or obligation are, in fact, internal to the person, but the source is still external because he/she may be doing the activity to please the others (Rayan and Deci, 2000).

The third level is called *identified regulation*. Individuals engage in tasks because it is important to them. As an illustration, a student may study hours for exams in order to get good grades to be accepted into a college. This behavior represents the student's own objective,

although the objective has more extrinsic value than it does intrinsic value such as learning. The objective is chosen by the student consciously, in this sense; the locus of causality is more internal to the individual as the he feels it is very important to him not just to others. In this case, students want to do the activity because it is personally important to them, even if it is more for instrumental reasons rather than intrinsic interest in the activity (Rayan and Deci, 2000).

The last level is called *integrated regulation*, here, people integrate various internal and external sources of information into their own self-schema and engage in behavior because its personal importance. This final level is still instrumental rather than intrinsic. But integrated regulation represents autonomy (Rigby et al 1992; Rayan; cited in Pintrich 1999)

1. Intrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic motivation is the second type of motivation. It refers to doing something because it is intrinsically interesting or enjoyable (Rayan, Deci, 2000). It is also defined a doing a task for its implicit satisfactions rather than for some external gains(Rayan, Deci, 2000).When intrinsically motivated, a person is motivated to act for the fun or challenge entailed rather than because of external prods, pressure, or rewards.(Rayan, Deci, 2000).Also, they said that people who are intrinsically motivated tend to seek challenges as we pursue personal interests and exercise capabilities,(Deci and Rayan, 2000; cited in Woolfolk, 2004).When we are intrinsically motivated; we do not need drives, urges or punishments, because the activity is a reward in itself (Woolfolk, 2004).

II.4. B. Expectancy and value theory

Expectancy and value theory is another theory derived from the cognitive approach. It postulates that the degree to which students will expend effort on a task is a determined by their expectation toward the task, and the value they place on the rewards associated with successful completion of the task (Feather, 1996, cited in Tollefson, 2000). The model assumes that the amount of effort invested is a product of the expectation of success and the value of the reward. Effort will not be expended if the reward for completing the task has little or no value to the student.(Tollefson, 2000). According to Wigfield and Tonks (2002; cited in Guilloteaux, 2007), the cognitive notion of expectancy refers to the degree to which individual anticipate that their performance in a task will result in success. Value refers to the relative attractiveness of succeeding or failing at a task(Wigfield, Tonks, 2002; cited in

Guilloteaux, 2007). So the expectation and the value students place on the rewards are the two main things that were explained in the expectancy and value theory.

II.4.C. Attribution Theory

It starts from the premise that people try to bring order into their lives by developing personal, sometimes called implicit, theories about how things happen as they do in their lives and in the lives of others (Tollefson, 2000). Attributions are defined as the perceived causes of achievement performance. It focuses on the effect of attributions on individuals' expectancies with respect to subsequent achievement strivings, and on the emotions arising out of the attributions (Guilloteaux, 2007). It posits that all causes of achievement outcomes can be characterized according to three basic properties:

- *Locus* refers to the location of a cause. It can be internal to the individual or external. When success is attributed to internal causes (e.g., ability), the individual experiences pride and increased self-esteem. Conversely, failure ascribed to internal causes results in a decrease in self-esteem (Guilloteaux, 2007).
- *Controllability* indicates whether an individual can do something about the causes of achievement outcomes, and give rise to a number of emotions (Graham and Weiner, 1996, cited in Guilloteaux, 2007).
- *Stability* pertains to the relative endurance of the cause over time. For instance, ability, and aptitude is considered stable, whereas, situational effort, knowledge, skills lead to expectancies of success in future endeavors (Guilloteaux, 2007).

II.4. D. Goal Theory

This theory states that people evaluate their abilities and capacities before they set goals and engage in their pursuit to reach them; depending on their capacities, people make decisions to set such or such goal. Accordingly, educational psychologists identified four types of goals especially in educational contexts; these are mastery goals, performance goals, social goals and work avoidance goals. Mastery goals are set when an individual engages in a domain/activity to understand it, to know as much as possible about it, even when there is no reward or encouragement behind and after studying it. Performance goals are set when an individual has an objective the beating of a competitor in the classroom, showing off and exhibiting performance and high achievements. Social goals are set by people who have the satisfaction and pleasing the others as a goal. Work –avoidance goals are goals that people set

when they do not want to appear ridiculous and hurt their self-esteem and self-image (Seminar of learning theories, 2011).

III.Goal Orientation Theory to Motivation

III.1. Goals in the Learning Context

Goals are assumed to be cognitive representations of the different purposes students may adopt in different situations (Pintrich, 1999). Learning goals are understood as dynamics states determined by some combination of students' innate characteristics and contextual factors (Canfield&Zastavker, 2001). Goals are defined as the end toward which effort is directed. Stated another way, goals what the individual attempts to accomplish (Was, 2006). To quote, De la Fuente Arñas defines academic goals as following:

“Academic goals refer to motives of an academic nature that students use for guiding their classroom behavior. As such, these goals can encourage the student to pursue different objectives in the academic or school situation” (Arias, 2004,p38).

In another definition given by Lock and Latham, a goal is an outcome or attainment an individual is striving to accomplish (Lock&Latham, 1990; cited in Woolfolk, 2004). Goals have some characteristics; these are clarity, proximity, and feasibility. A goal which is not clear is demotivating; a goal which is highly challenging can be interpreted by some students as not feasible; a goal which is far away (in time or in place) to reach may also be demotivating and discouraging (Seminar of Learning theories, 2011). In a similar study on goals it is said that the types of goals we set influence the amount of motivation we have to reach them. Goals that are specific, moderately difficult, and likely to be reached in the near future tend to enhance motivation and persistence (Pintrich&Schunk, 2002; Stipek, 2002; cited in Woolfolk, 2004).

III.2. Goal Orientation Theory (achievement goal orientation)

In educational psychology, achievement goal theory has emerged as a useful framework for understanding student motivation and performance (Canfield&Zastavker,

2010). Goal orientation theory states that students have distinctive orientations towards certain types of goals (Was, 2006). Goal theorists distinguish four types of goals; they are briefly presented below.

III.2. A. Mastery Goals (also called task goals or learning goals)

A mastery goal is to improve, to learn, no matter how awkward you appear. Students who set mastery goals tend to seek challenges and persist when they encounter difficulties. Because they focus on the task at hand and are not worried about how their performance “measures up” compared to others in the class, these students have been called task-involved learners (Nicholls&Miller, 1984; cited in Woolfolk, 2004). We often say that mastery goal students get lost in their work. In addition, they are more likely to seek appropriate help, use deeper cognitive processing strategies, apply better study strategies, and generally approach academic tasks with confidence (Butler&Neuman, 1995; Midgley, 2001; Young, 1997; cited in Woolfolk, 2004). Was (2006) defined mastery goals. He says:

“In the literature of more than the past 25 years mastery goals have been hypothesized to be the appropriate approach to enhancing learning, increasing self-efficacy, and persistence as well as the goal orientation , which encourages the use of more effective metacognitive and cognitive strategies.”(Was, 2006.p531).

Besides, students attuned to learning or mastery goals persist longer on difficult tasks and are more likely to attribute success and failure to internal controllable causes. Students who set learning goals are also more likely to show preference for challenge and academic risk-taking(Ames, 1992; cited in Was, 2006).

III.2. B. Performance Goal

It is the second kind of goals. Students with performance goals care about demonstrating their ability to others. They may be focused on getting good test scores and grades, or they may be more concerned with winning and beating other students (Wolters, Yu, & Pintrich, 1996; cited in Woolfolk, 2004). Also, students whose goal is outperforming others may do things that look smart, such as reading easy books in order to read the most books (Young, 1997; cited in Woolfolk, 2004). The evaluation of their performance by others, not

what they learn, is what matters. (Nicholls& Miller, 1984; cited in Woolfolk, 2004) call these students ego-involved learners because they are preoccupied with themselves. Performance goals are based on measuring competence in comparison to others. Performance goals lead students to attempt appearing competent or to avoid appearing incompetent when compared to others (Dweck, 1986; Dweck&Elliot, 1983; Dweck& Leggett, 1988; Elliot& Dweck, 1988; Lepper, 1988; cited in Woolfolk, 2004). Students attuned to performance goals are more apt to become frustrated and defensive in the face of failure and attribute success and failure to external factors such as luck, task difficulty and an uncontrollable lack of ability (Dweck, 1986; cited in Was, 2006).

III.2. C. Social Goals

As students move into adolescence, their social networks change to include more peers (Maehr& Urdan, 1995; cited in Woolfolk, 2004). Social goals include a wide variety of needs and motives with different relationships to learning; some help but some hinder leaning. For instance, pursuing goals such as having fun with friends or avoiding being called a “nerd” can get in the way of learning. But goals of bringing honor to your family or team by working hard can support learning (Urdu&Maehr, 1995; cited in Woolfolk, 2004).

III.2. D. Work-Avoidance Goals

Students who do not want to learn or to look smart; they just want to avoid work. These students try to complete assignments and activities as quickly as possible without exerting much effort (Pintrich&Schunk, 2002; cited in Woolfolk, 2004).These students feel successful when they do not have to try hard, when the work is easy, or when they can “goof off” (Woolfolk,2004).Students adopting this kind of goal avoid failure without hard work and achievement is viewed as completing the task with as little effort as possible(Brophy, 1983; Nicholls, 1989; cited in Was, 2006). Studies made on work-avoidant learners found that work-avoidant orientation was the most predictor of academia procrastination over all other goal orientation (Wolters, 2003; cited in Was, 2006). Again this orientation was associated with a great deal of effort minimization strategies (McInerney, 2001; cited in Was, 2006). Finally, learners who adopt this goal are characterized by absenteeism and lack of participation in the classroom whenever they think that the task is absolutely challenging and unsolvable (Seminar of learning theories, 2011).

Conclusion

We have seen in this chapter that motivation has many approaches and within each approach there are many theories. We have seen the cognitive approach to motivation, the behaviorist approach, the Sociocultural approach to motivation, and the humanistic approach. We have also seen the different learning goals; the performance goals, the mastery goals, the social goals, and the work-avoidance goals.

Chapter Two

The Relation between Rewards and Classroom Interaction

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Introduction

This chapter is devoted for the relation between rewards and classroom interaction. In the first section we made a brief overview about rewards. The second section is on classroom interaction. The last section is devoted for the importance of rewards and classroom interaction in EFL learning

I.A Brief Overview about Rewards

I.1. Theoretical Perspectives about Rewards (Reinforcers)

Rewards are effective incentives that researchers have defined in different ways. A reward is a stimulation or event that increases the oftenness of a reaction it follows (Ormod, 2012). Another definition given by Pritchard (2009) is that rewards are defined as anything that has the effect of fortifying a particular behavior and makes it likely that the behavior will appear another time (Pritchard, 2009). Rogoff in her book psychology of classroom learning, she defined rewards and said: “Rewards (*or the more technical term reinforcers*) are defined as any contingently delivered consequence associated with an increase in the future likelihood of behavior in similar situations.” (Rogoff, 2000. p755). In addition, rewards are always the junctures for things becoming better than they used to be (Walker, 1975). A reward is the offer of an environmental event as a consequence of the students’ participation, service, or accomplishment (Craihead, Kazdmi, and Mahoney, 1981; cited Anderman and Anderman, 2009).

Operant conditioning (Walker, 1975) has to do with reinforcers and penalization, with attaining objectives and avoiding pains. In Skinner’s nomenclature, objectives, reinforcers and motivators can all be referred to as positive rewards (Walker, 1975). One model of the forms of rewarding is when Skinner (1953) made his experiment on pigeons. He rewarded the pigeons for pecking at keys in Skinner box. He presented the pigeons with food after they had pecked at a key (Skinner, 1953).

As far as the application of reinforcing is concerned in academic setting, this act is called reinforcement and it is an educational conception that originated in behavioral learning theory (Rogoff, 2000). In addition, rewarding takes place when teachers manage the environmental events that follow the learner’s wanted way of acting in order to increase the strength and future likelihood of that behavior to occur (Anderman and Anderman, 2009).

To sum up, when a teacher assures a prize if the learner will achieve or when a teacher assures an award to recognize a good performance, he/she introduces a reinforcer into a learning environment.

I.2.Types of Rewards

Rewards come into two types: negative and positive rewards

Negative Rewards, as it is suggested by its name, negative reinforcers is a way of decreasing the frequency of a behavior to appear again by coupling it with an unpleasant review and there is contestation if punishment is an efficacious method of decreasing or getting rid of behaviors that are not desired. Punishment can be a very efficacious way for decreasing peculiar behaviors; however, there are disadvantages particularly in classroom situations. Indeed, anger, frustration, and many other emotional responses may follow punishment (Pritchard, 2009). Negative rewards are less desired among the work-avoidant students and it is not a good way to trigger their extrinsic motivation.

Positive Rewarding, happens when a wanted behavior is strengthened by the supply of contingent stimulus. A positive reward means any environmental event that, when supplied as a result of the behavior, increases the strength and the oftenness of that behavior (Anderman and Anderman, 2009). Moreover, Pritchard assumes that a positive reward or a positive reinforcement is a way that has a power of controlling the behavior of people and animals as well (Pitchard, 2009). This kind of rewards may be an effective way to trigger the work-avoidant learners' extrinsic motivation to learn and participate

Rewards can be under different forms and some frequently used positive reinforcers in the classroom environment are praise, tokens, stickers, money, and good grades (Anderman and Anderman, 2009). According to Pritchard, positive rewards include basic items such as, food, drink, approval or something very simple like attention and in the context of classrooms, praise, points or being free to choose the exercises are all examples of positive reinforcers that the teacher can use (Pritchard, 2009). We can offer to the work-avoidant learners a dictionary in order to actuate his extrinsic motivation to participate.

I.3.Schedules of Reinforcement

According to some research (Skinner, 1953) made about rewards, Skinner (1953) said that the rewards should be supplied at very specific times. In fact, Skinner spoke about this topic and said that intermittent rewards may be supplied exactly according to different schedules or the combination of schedules-an ordered list of times at which things are planned to happen- (Skinner, 1953) . Two broad schedules exist:

Ratio Reward: It is the number of answers emitted by the learner. As an example, to reward the learner every fifth correct answers (Skinner, 1953). Thus, we can implement ratio rewards in order to reward the work-avoidant students

Interval rewards: It is determined by the clock. As an illustration, rewarding the learners and reinforcing their correct answers every five minutes (Skinner, 1953). So we can implement our reward to the work-avoidant students using, for example, interval rewards.

I.4.Rewards for Engagement in Learning

Rewards for engagement in learning differ. I mean they may come in many sizes and shapes, types, forms, intensity, weakness, strength, etc. On one hand, some rewards seem to be *intrinsic* to specific learning tasks. To illustrate, some tasks are seen interesting, or absorbing, or amusing, or ambitious. Besides, learners may have a feeling of satisfaction and achievement towards particular learning tasks and that feeling leads to engagement. To put it more simply, the feeling of accomplishment is a rewarding experience in itself. Still, some other kinds of intrinsic rewards may exist, such as grade in school, congratulations from teachers or parents. On the other hand, however, other rewards like monetary rewards are *extrinsic* to the learning tasks. Finally, engagement in different learning tasks can conclude both *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* rewards for the student (Goslin, 2003). As far as *extrinsic* rewards are concerned, we are going to see it in a more detailed manner in section three and we are going to see their impact on learning, motivation and classroom interaction.

I.5.Extrinsic Rewards for Engagement

We have already seen above some examples of extrinsic rewards; and since there are so many different things which serve as extrinsic rewards, that we did not list in details because of space limitations. To keep it clear, let us have a quite detailed description of the number of many other things that function as extrinsic rewards.

Interpersonal Rewards: may be the best way which has the greatest power. Interpersonal rewards involve interactions between the student and important others like teachers, parents, friends, classmates, family members, and all those who have a significant

relationship with the learner. This kind of rewards can conclude different forms of congratulations, attention, good judgments about the learner's abilities, encouragement, and other supportive expressions (Goslin, 2003). We may give the work-avoidant students an opportunity to build a strong relationship with his classmates through the use of debates.

Feedback on Performance: it is another kind of extrinsic rewards; it includes many things such as grades in school or test-scores, or the prizes for competition in schools. This kind of reinforcement is as important as the foregoing one since it is related directly to specific learning tasks (Goslin, 2003).

Market Incentive: things that have the most tangible value to the learner can function as a reward for engagement in learning. This category or reinforcement includes money or awards, being released from homework assignments, going to the cinema or to the school dance, or every thing that has a particular advantage inside the family or school (Goslin, 2003).

Goal-based Reward: the accomplishment of short or long term goals. Namely, getting good marks in a school subject, obtaining a good job in the future, having a permission to join a college, or graduating from school. All these things do function as an extrinsic reward either set by the student or for the learner (Goslin, 2003).

Avoidance and Punishment: the importance of punishment in motivation can be seen when the former is avoided by the learner and this fact can have the effect of positive reinforcers. To keep the terminology clear, teachers and parents when using credible threats in fact they are motivating the learners to engage in learning tasks and to do their homework assignments. In short, they are using an extrinsic reward (Goslin, 2003).

II. Classroom Interaction

II.1. Definition of Classroom Interaction

There are many scholars with different views on classroom interaction. As stated by Richards, Platt, and Platt (1992, cited in Khamwan 2007), classroom interaction is defined as the forms of verbal and non-verbal communication and the kinds of social relationships that happen inside classrooms. Classroom interaction refers to the process where teachers and learners negotiate throughout the course in order to attain specific goals (Khamwan, 2007).

II.2. Levels of Interaction

In classroom settings there may exist a different number of methods of interacting. This is called *levels of interaction* which include:

Interaction within the individual: Individual interactions are responses to outside stimuli that the individual goes through but do not share with or utter with others (Betty, Leaver, Ehrman, and Shekhtman, 2005). These show as likes and dislikes, stress, anxiousness, and other feelings and emotions. Not only are there negative aspects of individual interaction but also there are positive sides. For example, the feeling of belongingness in class, also when the learner is waiting forward to open his book, and the feeling of happiness after the class. So, if the individual does not experience the positive sides of intrapersonal dynamics, he should analyze what is missing because effectively there is something wrong. Similarly, if he is experiencing the negative aspects of intrapersonal processes, he should find the source and do away with it (Betty et al, 2005)

Interaction between Two Individuals: This level of interaction is different from the previous one. When two persons interact, they affect each other in different ways usually unconscious of these ways (Betty et al, 2005).

Interactions within the Group: Interactions within the group are interesting to the individual's feeling comfortable in the foreign language classroom. For example, when a person tries to find a relation with another person by telling jokes; so, the latter may serve as a defence against stress and anxiety/shyness. But, interaction can take the form of creating dysfunctional classrooms as well (Betty et al, 2005). For instance, when a teacher divides his classroom into subgroups which include learners that have either a positive or a negative feeling toward each other. As the result of the negative feeling toward each other, some students could exclude other students from their relationship. The teacher in this situation should talk to his learners about the importance of group cohesion. The latter means the members of the group who like each other and the group that holds together. In addition, the teacher should explain to the learners how learning efforts can help each other.

A second dysfunctional form of interaction within the group is when the subgroup includes only one student. That person may be disliked from the others. In this case, students in the class may make fun of him. This case is called "*scapegoating*" (Betty et al, 2005), and it is very decisive to the development of the group cohesion and to the ability of learning of anyone.

The last dysfunctional form is the relationship between the teacher and the students. This can be either positive or negative. We start by the positive side it is when the learners are fond of their teacher and this alliance can last years and years. The other side which is the negative one is when the students dislike the teacher. So, in this case, the whole class may form an opposition to the teacher. And when analyzing it, we find that this kind of relation is

very dysfunctional and block the progress of learning. To conclude, the relationship between the teacher and the students is called “*group reaction to the teacher*” (Betty et al, 2005).

II.3.Examples of Classroom Interaction

The main examples of classroom interaction are cited below

II.3.A. Student-Student Interaction

Student-student interaction can either enhance or destroy learning. Student-student dynamics can be very helpful in learning (Betty et al, 2005). That is, when a group is cohesive, its members can achieve success, and often more than any student can accomplish alone. We may think of the learners who take notes for their classmate when he is absent, the students who study together, those that join each other in projects and encourage each other, and those who share the most challenging situations and provide a sense of belongingness to each other in order to feel more secure. All these things may help the students to be more risk taker in learning and to not block when making mistakes because you know that the other students are in your side. Conversely, student-student interaction and relation may be destructive. This can be illustrated when there is competition. There is a positive side of competition but also a negative one. The latter, happens when some students feel that they will not be accepted unless they are the best, or when some students feel that their efforts are countermined by the other students by preventing them from concentrating, or by keeping them off task (Betty et al, 2005).

II.3.B. Teacher-Student Interaction

The interactions that happen between teachers and students are one of the sources of motivation for learning in the classroom. The relationship between the teacher and the student is very powerful and Ehrman (1998; cited in Betty et al, 2005) called this relation “*learning alliance*”. This term means the emotional contract between the learners and their teachers where the latter supplies a secure and stable structure for learning and the student work for the sake of learning and they can feel the freedom of taking risks in learning. So, when the interaction between the teacher and the student is working in a good manner, it improves the learning process. The learners are working due to their caring about the teacher and the teacher, in turn, tries to encourage his students and wishes to receive pleasure from their achievements. For instance, a student may desire a teacher who will provide him a psychological support, and do not want to be taught by a teacher who focuses more on the subject-matter (Betty et al, 2005).

III. The Importance of Rewards and Classroom Interaction in EFL Learning

III.1. The Importance of Classroom Interaction on EFL learning

Interaction in the classroom is a very important thing in EFL language learning for the following reasons. To begin, classroom interaction gives the learners explicit and detailed ways to acquire specific languages. Then, it gives the learners veritable communication chances in the classroom (Allwright, 1984; cited in Khamwan, 2007). Citing other researchers, classroom interaction helps the learners to exchange their ideas and their points of view as it helps them to negotiate meaning which is a crucial factor for the development of languages (Khamwan, 2007).

Hatch (1978; cited in Khamwan, 2007), proposed that interaction in the classroom leads to the development of the language since it gives the opportunity to practice the target language.

The strength of classroom interaction is not only in providing non-native speakers with chances of input reception through negotiation but also in providing them with the chance to make modifications in their speech and produce a more comprehensible output (Long 1983a ; Varonis and Gass 1985; cited in Khamwan, 2007). In addition, classroom interaction helps the learner to be more accustomed to unfamiliar second language input and that the learners win chances to produce new output which is more comprehensible through negotiation (Pica, Holliday, Lewis, and Morgenthaler, 1989; cited in Khamwan, 2007). On this point, Lightbown and Spada (1999; cited in Khamwan, 2007), said that accomplishing comprehensible input and output will result in more developed levels of language acquisition. In addition, EFL learners can exercise their speaking skills naturally with their classmates and with their friends or their teacher (Allwright, 1984; cited in Khamwan, 2007). In his context, interaction in the classroom can help in supervising students by encouraging them to interact with their teachers, negotiating with them, and pushing them to communicate their problems and express their feelings through interaction with their teacher or their peers.

To conclude, interaction in the classroom is crucial since students can take profit to develop their abilities in the foreign language and practice the language as in real life situations inside the classroom during the class time (Khamwan, 2007).

III.2. The Importance of Rewards in Learning and Motivation

The first thing that comes to minds when asking the question about what can be a powerful motive that pushes an individual to make the necessary efforts to learn something, is reward(s) that the learner anticipates as a response for his efforts. Indeed, there is no way to doubt that the rewards play an important role in motivation and learning engagement (Goslin, 2003). *For the author, “rewards play an essential part in getting students engaged in the learning process in the beginning and in sustaining their engagement and motivation to learn over time”* (Goslin, 2003. p70). From this quotation, we understand that rewards play an important role in motivating the learners to engage in learning.

A response that is followed by a reward is strengthened so it becomes more likely to happen another time. It means that the responses that are rewarded will increase and they will become frequent and this means the response will be learnt (Ormod, 2012). The reward is an important element because it helps the learners to learn which responses are desirable and which are not by referring to the behaviors that are rewarded. The importance of rewards in learning is related to the use of reinforcers which indicate that a special behavior is desirable and this helps the learners to learn which behaviors they should adopt in the classroom in order to adapt successfully to the classroom environment. Similarly, the role of rewards in sustaining motivation is related to the use of positive and negative reinforcers to reinforce desirable behaviors is a strategy which triggers student’s extrinsic motivation (Anderman and Anderman, 2009).

III.3.The Importance of Extrinsic Rewards on Motivation and Learning

It is clear that extrinsic rewards are important to motivate students to learn and to engage in many activities. Extrinsic rewards may have an impact on the intrinsic and the extrinsic motivation of the learner. The assumption that relates extrinsic rewards to intrinsic motivation is that when a learner finds an activity which is extrinsically rewarded as interesting, so, the learner is intrinsically motivated. The assumption that relates extrinsic rewards to the extrinsic motivation is that when an activity is extrinsically rewarded the learner may have no interest towards the activity but he just does it because of its extrinsic outcome may be a good job, or intention from the teacher, in this case the learner is not intrinsically motivated but he is extrinsically motivated. Moreover, extrinsic rewards have an effect on the learning process and when we say learning we also refer to interaction which is a part of the learning process (Goslin, 2003). On this point, Goslin in his book “Engaging Minds, 2003” has shed a great light on the importance of extrinsic rewards in the learning process in the following terms:

“Extrinsic rewards are conceptually separable from the specific activities involved in learning a particular skill or acquiring knowledge (...) These extrinsic rewards obviously vary in their relevance to the learning tasks, as well their proximity in time to the specific behaviors for which they serve as a reward. Praise from a teacher for paying attention in class or answering a question correctly, or from a parent for completing one’s homework are rewards that are both related to the task and closely connected in time to the specific activities , they are intended to motivate. Research suggests that this is one of the reasons for their power to motivate behavior” (Goslin, 2003. pp70-71).

From this quotation, we understand that rewards have a specific power to motivate and they are effective way which makes learners motivated to learn. So, the implementation of rewards for the work-avoidant learners wills an effective way to actuate their extrinsic motivation to participate in classroom interaction.

Conclusion

We have seen in this the rewards, the different types of rewards, and the different schedules of rewards. We have also seen the classroom interaction, and the levels of classroom interaction. Besides, we dealt with the relation between the rewards and the classroom interaction.

Chapter Three

Methodological Design and Presentation of the Findings

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I. Introduction

This chapter describes the design and the methodology of our research work. It presents a detailed description of the procedures for data collection, and it presents our research general findings. It comprises two sections. The first section is entitled “A Description of the Research Design and Methodology” which describes the research sitting, and gives a detailed description of the method, the population, and the procedures for data collection. The second section of this chapter is under the title of “A Presentation of the General Findings” which describes the findings obtained before to start our experiment.

II. Research Design and Methodology

We have opted for the use of the experimental technique because it is more appropriate and more suitable for our study. Hence, one group of work-avoidant students participated as the experimental group which is from class A and it has nine work-avoidant learners. We have chosen it to be the experimental group because it has more work-avoidant students when we compare it to the control group which is four in number and it is from class B. The experimental group will receive a reward, the round shape and interactional activities all along the period of study, while the control group will experience neither rewards nor interactional activities. Our concern through the use of this method is to compare the final findings which were got from the two separate groups. By using the experimental method, we aim at examining the effectiveness of the rewards and the activities in triggering off the work-avoidant learners’ extrinsic motivation during classroom interaction and then to prove the validity of our research hypothesis.

I.1. Description of the Research Sitting

This present research was conducted at the Technicum high school, which is situated in Bejaia, during over three weeks. We conducted it on second year foreign language students. All the questionnaires were distributed and recuperated in the classroom. Our experiment is done in the classroom. The total number of the questioned students was seventy-seven but only thirteen were sorted out for the experiment; nine students formed the experimental group, and four formed the control group.

I.2. Description of the Population

The participants of the study were two classes of second year students from the Technicum high school, who studied English as foreign language. There were about 40 students in each class, but only 13 were sorted out for the experiment. These students were not chosen randomly; we have selected them after treating the data of the Students Goal Orientation Questionnaire.

I.3. Description of the Method

The method which is used in our research is hybrid. We opted for the use of the qualitative and the quantitative method. The qualitative method is used to give a detailed description of the data and a detailed interpretation of the events. The quantitative method is used to count the number of the work-avoidant students, to give statistics of what was observed, and to transform the results into numerical data.

I.4. Description of Data Collection Tools

I.4.A. The Questionnaires

They are instruments which are very utile for the data collection. Since they are anonymous the participants tend to share information with the researcher very easily. Therefore, the researcher will gather a large amount of information about the participants in a limited period of time. In our research we have used three questionnaires. The first questionnaire, which was inspired from the theory of students' goal orientation, was handed to all the students of two classes in order to sort out the work-avoidant students. After sorting them out, the latter were divided into two groups; an experimental group and a control one. These two groups were then given a pre-test questionnaire before the implementation of the experiment, and a post-test questionnaire after its implementation. The three questionnaires consist of close questions because they were structured in a very precise manner that they do not need an explication from the subjects. Besides, close questions help the researcher to analyze and treat the data in an objective manner. However, very few questions were provided with a space in order to give the subjects the opportunity to justify their answers.

I.4.B. Classroom Observation

The classroom observation method involves observing, taking notes, recording, and then analyzing the events in the classroom during the experiment. It was used as a tool for collecting data. It is our second data collection instrument. It is useful because it permits the researcher to directly observe the research participants in real time. The observation checklist was used during the experiment for the sake of measuring students' motivation and classroom interaction.

I.5. Description of the Procedures for Data Collection

I.5.A. Description of the Students' Goal Orientation Questionnaire

The Students' Goal Orientation Questionnaire consists of twenty questions. They are almost all close questions and they are put in three parts. The first contains four questions which are on the main characteristics of the four goal orientations. The aim behind asking this part of questions is to know the students' inclination toward the goal orientations. In other words, to know which goal the students seem to adopt. Concerning the second part of questions, it consists also of four questions which are asked to give the students the

opportunity to say to which goal orientation they belong. This set of questions is also a reformulation of the previous questions; the students will have another chance to confirm their first choice. The last part of questions consists of twelve questions which are on the behavioral signs and strategies of the four goal orientation in the classroom. They are designed for the purpose knowing the students behaviors and the strategies they adopt in the classroom, and to select the students who would choose the strategies and the behavioral signs that are compatible with the work-avoidance goal orientation ones.

The questions of the questionnaire were written in simple English so as to be understood from the students, except some words which were uncommon to them. So, we explained them in a very simplified manner. Seventy-seven copies of the Students Goal Orientation Questionnaire were distributed for the students in the classroom, and all the copies were returned back. The questionnaires were anonymous, but the students were asked to write the numbers which were given to them from the part of the researcher. We did this in order to know who exactly the work-avoidant students are. Table 1 shows the number of distributed and returned copies of the Students' Goal Orientation Questionnaire.

Table 1: Number of Distributed and Returned copies of the Students' Goal Orientation Questionnaire

Copies	Number	Percentage
Distributed	77	100%
Returned	77	100%

From the table 1, we notice that we have distributed to the learners 77 copies and we have recuperated 77 copies.

I.5.B.Description of the students' Pre-test Questionnaire on the General Causes of Classroom Interaction

It consists of thirteen questions. They are close questions which include one question that has a space for justification. The questions are put in two parts. The first part of questions contains five questions and the second part includes eight questions. Concerning the first part of questions, it is on classroom interaction. This set of questions is devoted to know whether the work-avoidant students interact with their teacher or no, and if their teacher gives them opportunities to interact. The second part of questions is on motivational aspects for classroom interaction. They are designed for the sake of knowing what their teacher does to motivate her learners and for the sake of knowing some missing things concerning learners' extrinsic motivation and classroom interaction, as well as to try to fill these gaps using our experiment.

The questions of the pre-test questionnaire were very simple and can be understood from all the students. The pre-test questionnaire was handed only for the work-avoidant students who were sorted out from the first questionnaire. It was handed for both groups (the experimental and the control group). Thirteen copies were distributed for the students in the classroom, and all the copies were returned back. Table 2 shows the number of handed and returned copies of the pre-test questionnaire on classroom interaction.

Table 2: Number of Handed and Returned Copies of the Pre-Test Questionnaire

Copies	Number	Percentage
Handed	13	100%
Returned	13	100%

From this table, we notice that we have handed 13 copies to the work-avoidant students and we have recuperated 13 copies.

I.5.C.The Description of the Round Shape of Sitting

After the results of the pre-test questionnaire on the general causes of classroom interaction, students said that they liked the idea of changing their shape of sitting. So, we decided to rearrange the classroom management, and to apply the round shape of sitting because it is more suitable for discussion and interaction, and the researcher was an equal in the discussion.

I.5.D.The Implementation of Communicative Activities

We had the opportunity to start our research study when the students had finished their program with their teacher; they started to revise the previous lessons for the preparations to the exams. Five sessions of English of one hour for each session were devoted to second year students who study foreign languages. We have devoted fifteen sessions of one hour for each session. Therefore, to get all the work avoidant students participate in our research study and come to attend our sessions, we have motivated them and stimulated their attention using abstract rewards. For example, telling them that our program will prepare them for the next year, and it is as additional courses for them, as it is an opportunity to learn many things that people pay a lot of money to get this chance. Finally we told them that it is a necessary procedure in the fulfillment of the requirements of Master II degree. So, the students attended our sessions.

Before starting our program, we explained to the work-avoidant learners of the experimental group that when we start our program, the student who participates more and gives more correct answers will get an Oxford dictionary and a CD of English lessons, videos and audios of English native speakers' conversations. After that, we started our program.

The program which was given to the control group was simple revisions of their previous lessons. I mean, the program that was to be done by their teacher, was done by the researcher. Whereas, the program which was implemented for the experimental group was a set of lessons which were already done with their teacher, but we selected only the activities that has the aim of making the students able to express things, to speak about personal experiences and interact. In addition, we have prepared for them some other lessons and activities that are inspired from the communicative approach which is an approach that contains a syllabus that encourages students to communicate.

We have divided our sessions with the experimental group into three phases. The first phase, we did revisions about their previous lessons such as expressing a habit in the past using 'used to', tag questions, expressing desire, how to make suggestions, how to express certainty and doubt, and conditional clauses. The second phase was devoted to the activities

that follow the lessons. For instance, we asked the students to produce sentences using the semi-modal “used to” about lifestyles, make predictions about the future using the expressions of certainty or doubt, and produce sentences of their own using tag questions. The last phase was devoted to the program which was designed for them, and which was inspired from the communicative approach. The students were asked what things or objects come to their mind when they think of their country and explain why they choose that particular object. Also, students were asked to speak about their personal experiences, to produce slogans for a car of their choice using comparatives and superlatives. The final session was devoted for debates on a subject of their choice. They have chosen to speak about the Internet; whether they agree or disagree for the use of Internet among young children.

We have given the students the opportunity to choose the topic because we wanted them to speak about something that interests them, and because it is a useful technique to make students motivated to participate in a classroom interaction.

I.5.E.The Description of the Observation Checklist

The observation was used all along our study for the experimental and the control group. The students were observed using an observation checklist. It was under the form of a table which includes the numbers of the sessions, the number of times the students wanted to participate, the number of times the students participated, and the number of correct answers. The observation checklist was used to observe the students interaction if it increases or no, to compare between the experimental group and the control group levels of interaction, and to select the winner of the reward among the experimental group.

I.5.F.The Implementation of the Physical Reward

We explained at the very beginning of our study to the students of the experimental group that the one who participates more and gives more correct answers will have an Oxford dictionary and a CD of English lessons, videos, and audios of native speakers. We have applied the Skinner’s view on the schedules of rewards. Skinner said that we can give the student a reward by counting the number of answers emitted by him. He called this “ratio reinforcement” (Skinner, 1953). So, we have rewarded the student who had the best number of correct responses and participations. The rewards were used in order to actuate the work-avoidant learners’ extrinsic motivation to participate and interact.

III.3.E.Description of the Post Questionnaire

The post questionnaire consists of thirteen questions, and all the questions were close questions which were divided into two parts; the first part of questions is on the classroom interaction. They are designed for the purpose of knowing the work-avoidant learners’ evaluation of their classroom interaction after the experiment. The second part of the questions is on the motivational aspects for classroom interaction. This set of questions are designed for the sake of knowing if the experiment that we did have triggered their extrinsic motivation to interact. The post- questionnaire’s questions were also very simple so as to be

understood from the students. It was distributed for the experimental and the control group to compare the results of the two groups. Table 3 shows the number of handed and returned copies of the post-questionnaire.

Table 3: The Number of Handed and Returned Copies of the Post-Test Questionnaire

Copies	Number	Percentage
Handed	13	100%
Returned	13	100%

From this table, we notice that we have distributed 13 copies and we have recuperated 13 copies

III. II.Presentation of the General Findings

II.1. Presentation of the Students Goal Orientation Questionnaire

Results

The following table will present the students' Goal orientations in class A. The mastery goals are colored in green, the performance goals are colored in purple, the social goals in blue, and the work avoidance goals are in red.

Table4: Results of the Students' Goal Orientation Questionnaire of Class A

Students	Class A			
	MG	PG	SG	WAG
1	5	8	6	6
2	8	8	6	10
3	9	10	9	5
4	14	4	6	9
5	11	7	11	7
6	9	10	10	5
7	8	7	7	5
8	11	6	5	7
9	7	8	9	5
10	13	6	7	6
11	10	5	8	6
12	7	9	8	11
13	6	7	8	12
14	9	8	8	7
15	8	7	5	6
16	9	8	7	6
17	8	13	9	7
18	10	5	11	5
19	7	11	13	5
20	7	7	5	5
21	9	10	8	5
22	10	8	6	7
23	7	8	8	10

24	7	7	5	9
25	11	6	6	9
26	10	8	4	8
27	10	7	11	8
28	9	7	11	7
29	8	6	7	13
30	11	6	9	10
31	10	8	11	6
32	10	11	10	6
33	7	7	10	11
34	10	7	9	8
35	10	7	8	13
36	9	7	8	7
37	9	11	11	6
38	8	5	4	9
39	10	7	9	7
40	8	6	8	5

Note that each abbreviations signifies the following

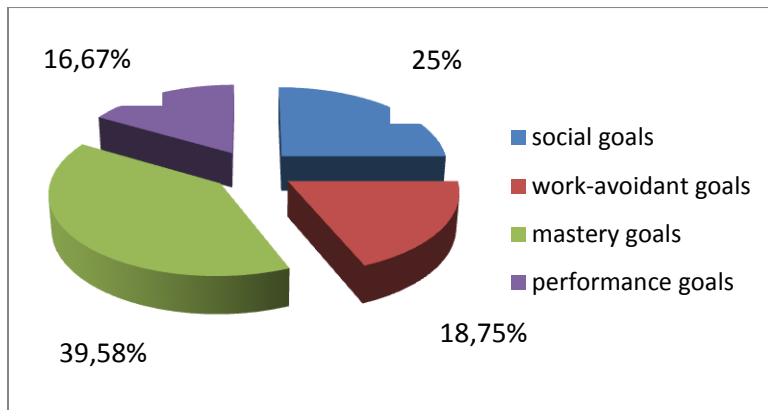
MG	PG	SG	WAG
Mastery Goals	Performance Goals	Social Goals	Work-Avoidance Goals

Note also :

RED	Green	Purple	Blue
Work-Avoidance Goals	Mastery Goals	Performance Goals	Social goals

- The numbers correspond to the number of characteristics of each goal orientation

From table 4, we notice that many students have the mastery goal. Work-avoidance goals have nine students. Other students tend to have other learning goals. We notice also that some students tend to have more than one learning goal; this is logical because a student may, for example, have performance goals in English and social goals in another subject. Also some learning goals share some characteristics. Starting from the results of this table we selected the work-avoidant students of this class as the experimental group. The following graph will display the learning goals of class A from which we selected our experimental group.



Graph 1: the Students' Goal Orientation Graph of the Experimental Group

From graph 1, we notice that the students from the class A tend to adopt different learning goals. The goal which is more adopted is the mastery one. Some students prefer to adopt social goals. Other students say that they have performance goals. Finally, nine students from this group are from the work-avoidance goals. Table 5 shows the results of the Students Goal Orientation Questionnaire of Class B in which we sorted out our control group.

Table 5: Results of the Students Goal Orientation Questionnaire of the Class B

Class B				
Students	MG	PG	SG	WAG
1	12	10	9	4
2	11	8	8	3
3	13	11	9	2
4	13	10	12	3
5	11	8	9	5
6	7	10	9	8
7	6	11	10	10
8	13	9	12	5
9	12	8	9	3
10	13	9	11	3
11	9	8	11	7
12	6	9	8	5
13	7	11	11	5
14	11	12	12	2
15	6	9	9	10
16	13	9	11	5
17	12	8	11	5
18	8	7	8	10
19	15	10	8	2
20	7	12	12	5
21	11	7	6	6
22	8	6	13	4
23	6	3	8	10
24	11	5	10	5

25	13	9	12	2
26	7	10	11	6
27	10	9	11	3
28	13	9	9	2
, 29	11	12	10	7
30	9	3	7	7
31	12	9	9	3
32	7	6	10	10
33	12	8	8	4
34	8	10	9	7
35	10	10	8	8

Note that :

MG	PG	SG	WAG
Mastery Goals	Performance Goals	Social Goals	Work-Avoidance Goals

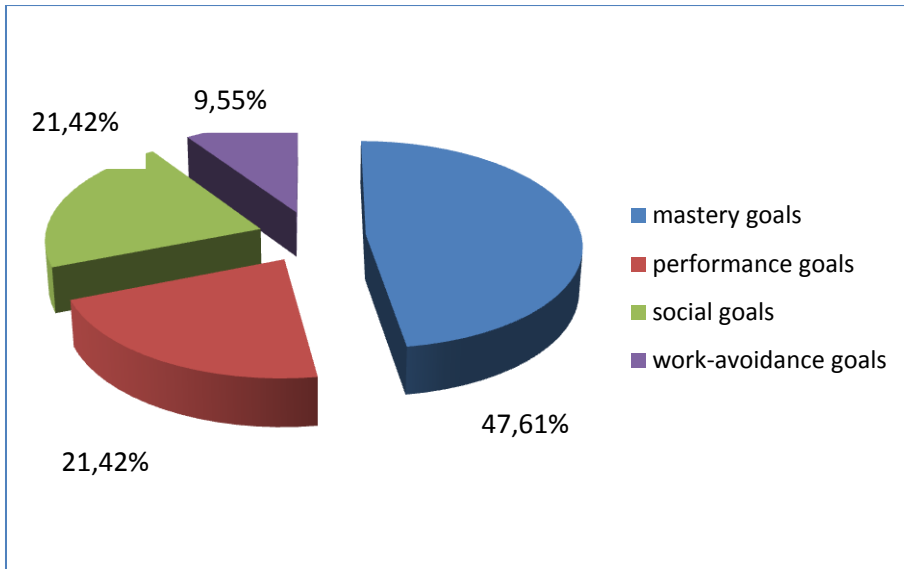
Note also :

RED	Green	Purple	Blue
Work-Avoidance Goals	Mastery Goals	Performance Goals	Social Goals

- The numbers show the number of characteristics that correspond to each goal

36	7	9	5	8
37	13	9	10	4

From table 5, we notice that the students of class B, in which we sorted out our control group, have the least number of Work-avoidant students; only four students said that they adopted the work avoidance goals. The majority of the learners of this class Adopt mastery goals and others have the other two remaining learning goals. The following graph will show the learning goals of the class in which we sorted out our control group



Graph 2: The students Goal Orientation Graph

From graph 2, we notice that the students of the class B, from which we sorted out our control group, tend to adopt more mastery goals than any other goal orientations. Work-avoidance goals are the least adopted goals among the students of this class.

When we compare the results of the two groups, we find that class B has more mastery students and less work-avoidant students. So, we decided to apply our experiment on the students who were sorted out from class A which has more work-avoidant students. The group of the work-avoidant students who were sorted out from class B was designed to be our control group.

II.2.Presentation of the Pre-test Questionnaire Results

The first part of questions was devoted for classroom interaction

- Generally speaking, do you think that you are at the center of classroom interaction?
 - Yes
 - No

Table 6 and 7 show the results of the learners centeredness

Table 6: Learner-Centeredness Table of the Experimental Group

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	9	100%
No	0	0%

Table 7: Learner-Centeredness Table of the Control Group

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	4	100%
No	0	0

From the above tables, we understand that the teachers give the students chances to participate. All the students either from the experimental or the control group said that they are at the center of the classroom interaction.

2. Are you given enough chances to participate?

- Yes
- No

The table 8 and 9 show whether the teachers give their students chances to participate.

Table 8: Students Chances to Participate Table of the Experimental Group

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	9	100%
No	0	0%

Table 9: Students Chances to Participate Table of the Control Group

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	4	100%
No	0	0%

From table 8 and 9, we understand conclude that the students are given chances to participate in the classroom interaction.

3. Do you seek to create chances to participate?

- Yes
- No

Table 10 and 11 the students' creation of chances to participate

Table 10: Students' Creation of Chances to Participate of the Experimental Group

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	0	0%
No	9	100%

Table 11: Students' Creation of Chances to Participate of the Control Group

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	0	0%
No	4	100%

From these tables we understand that work-avoidant students of both groups do not create chances to participate in the classroom

4. Do you involve yourself in the classroom interaction?

- Yes
- No

Table 12 and 13; show the students involvement in the classroom interaction of the experimental group and the control group

Table 12: The Student' Involvement in Classroom Interaction of the Experimental Group

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	1	1%
No	8	99%

Table 13: The students' Involvement in Classroom Interaction of the Control Group

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	0	0%
No	4	100%

From Table 12and 13, we understand that the work-avoidant students do not involve themselves in the classroom interaction.

5. Do you share and negotiate your opinions with your teacher?

- Yes
- No

Table 14 and 15shows whether the work-avoidant students share and negotiate their meaning with their teacher

Table 14 Students' Negotiation of Opinions among the Experimental Group

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	0	0%
No	9	100%

Table 15: Students' Negotiation of Opinions among the Control Group

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	0	0%
No	4	100%

From the above tables, we understand that the work-avoidant students do not share their opinions with their teacher in the classroom.

The second part of questions were devoted in order to know some motivational aspects that the teacher uses for classroom interaction and if the suggested aspects may motivate the learners or no. The table 14 and 15 summarizes the students' answers.

Table 16: The Experimental Group Students' answers on the Motivational Aspects of Classroom Interaction

Items(s)	item 6	Item 7	Item 8	Item 9	Item 10	Item 11	Item 12	Item 13
----------	--------	--------	--------	--------	---------	---------	---------	---------

Students	Yes		NO		Yes		No		Yes		No		Yes		No		Yes		No	
	Yes	NO	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No		
Student 1	X		X			X	X			X	X		X			X			X	
Student 2	X		X		X		X			X	X		X						X	
Student 3	X		X		X		X			X	X		X		X				X	
Student 4	X		X		X		X			X	X			X	X				X	
Student 5	X		X		X		X			X	X		X		X				X	
Student 6	X		X		X		X			X	X			X	X				X	
Student 7		X	X		X		X			X	X		X			X			X	
Student 8	X		X		X		X			X	X		X		X				X	
Student 9	X		X		X		X			X	X		X		X				X	

Table 17: The Control Group Students' Answers on the Motivational Aspects for Classroom Interaction

Items	item 6		Item 7		Item 8		Item 9		Item 10		Item 11		Item 12		Item 13	
	Yes	NO	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Student 1	X		X		X		X			X	X		X		X	
Student 2	X		X		X		X			X	X		X		X	
Student 3	X		X		X		X			X	X		X			X
Student 4	X		X		X		X			X	X		X		X	

From the tables above we notice that almost all the students from both groups agree that the change in the shape of their sitting may affect their degree of involvement in the classroom interaction. Also, they said that they receive only abstract rewards from their teacher, and they would be very motivated if they were rewarded from their teacher. But the kind of the activities they perform during classroom interaction do not answer their needs in terms of interests.

Conclusion

We have seen in this chapter the presentation of the research design and methodology, including the method which was adopted, the description of the data collection tools, the description of the procedures for data collection, and the presentation of the general results which were obtained before we start our experiment; hence, the results of the students' goal orientation questionnaire and the results of the pre-test questionnaire. The results we obtained before starting our experiment showed that there was thirteen work-avoidant students in both classes. These students share some characteristics. I mean, they have low motivation and they do not involve themselves in the classroom interaction. Also, almost all of them agree that the implementation of rewards, the use of the round shape of sitting, and the change in the kind of the activities they perform, would help them to be more motivated to participate.

After having summarized the research design and after presenting the general findings of this present study, it is time to move to the presentation of the results and the interpretation of the findings of our experiment; these are to be the core of the following chapter.

Chapter Four

Results, Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

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Introduction

After the presentation of the analysis of the data, it is time to see what the results of this study are. Hence, this chapter provides a discussion and an interpretation of the results of this study including the problems which were encountered during this study ending by suggestions for future research. It includes three sections. The first section is entitled “Analysis and Description of the Findings”. The second section is under the title of “Discussion and Interpretation of the findings”. The last section is entitled “Pedagogical Recommendations and Suggestions for Further Research” which includes three parts. The first one is on the limitations of the study; the second is on the pedagogical recommendations; and the last one includes some suggestions for future research.

I. Analysis and Description of the Findings

The data about the effects of abstract and physical rewards, the interactional activities, and the round shape of sitting on the work-avoidant students' extrinsic motivation during classroom interaction are obtained using two procedures. The first one is the use of the observation checklist; and the second one is the post-test questionnaire. The collected data are later analyzed. Thus, this section presents the analysis and describes the findings of the research.

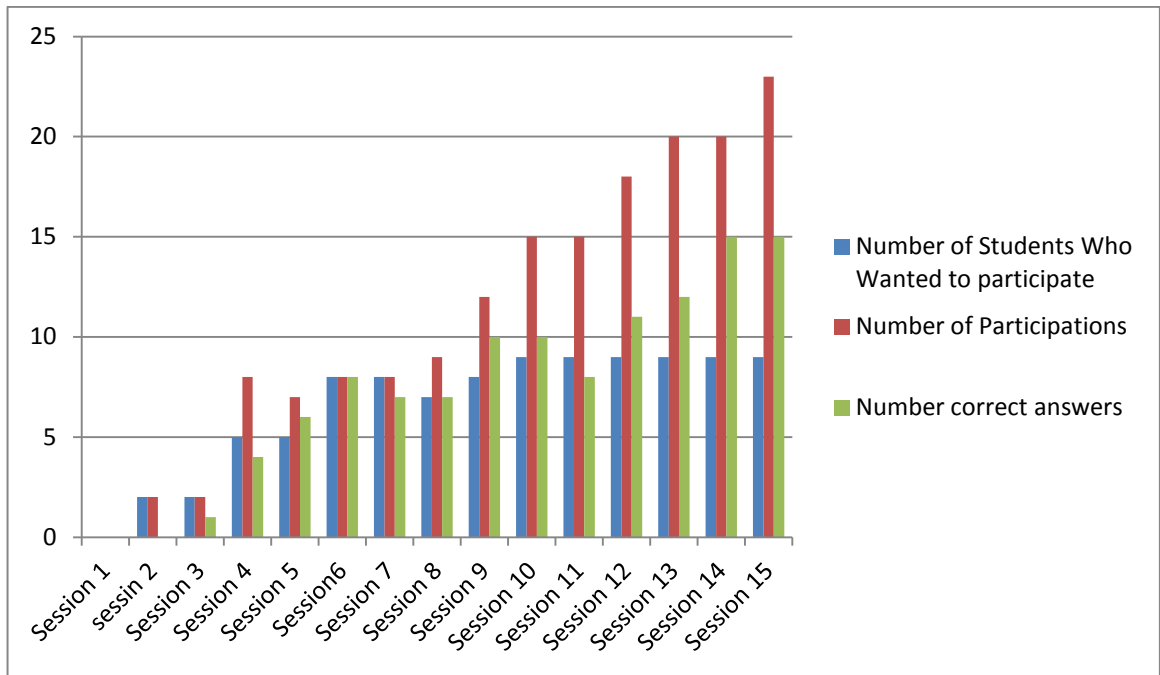
I.1. Analysis and Description of the Observation Checklist's Findings

Table 18 and 19 show the level of the Work-Avoidant Students' Interaction of the Experimental and the Control Group

Table 18: The Increase in the Work-Avoidant Students' Level of Interaction

Sessions	Number of students who wanted to participate	Number of participations	Number of correct answers
Session 1	0	0	0
Session 2	2	2	0
Session 3	2	2	1
Session 4	5	8	4
Session 5	5	7	6
Session 6	8	8	8
Session 7	8	8	7
Session 8	7	9	7
Session 9	8	12	10
Session 10	9	15	10
Session 11	9	15	8
Session 12	9	18	11
Session 13	9	20	12
Session 14	9	20	15
Session 15	9	23	15

From the table 18, the increase in numbers attracts our attention from the first sight. The numbers of the volunteers to participate increases from session to session and the participations also increase from session to session. The correct answers emitted by the work-avoidant students also increases. Graph number 3 shows this increase.



Graph 3: The Increase in the Level of Interaction of the Experimental Group

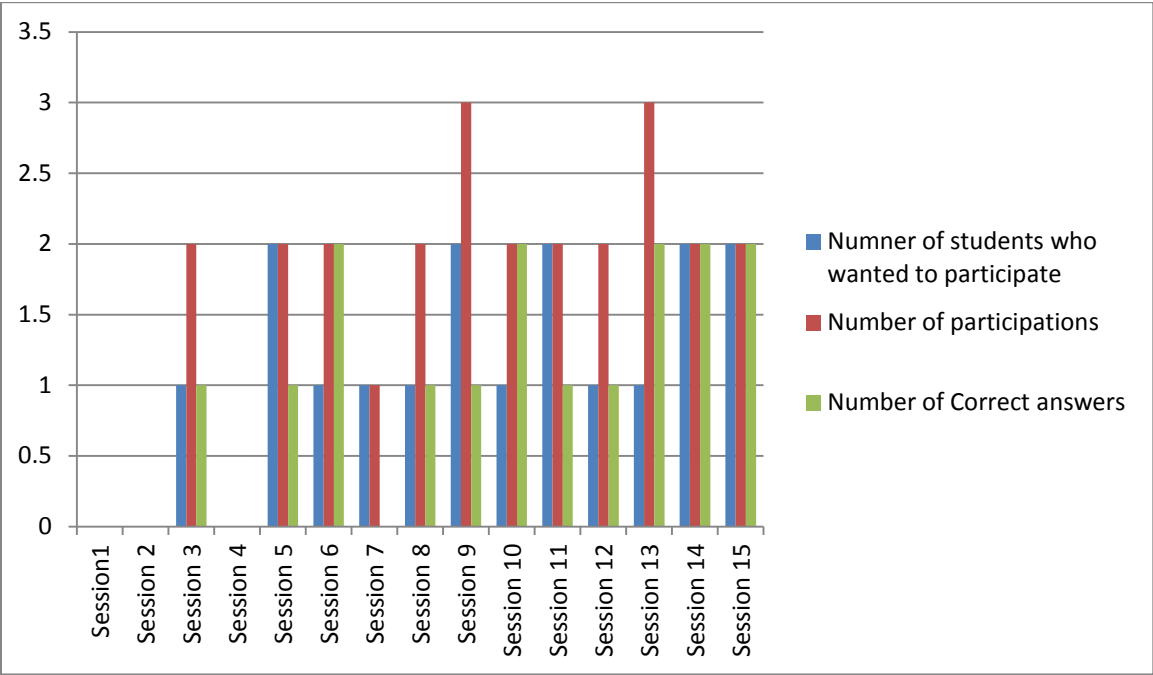
From the above graph, we understand that the rewards, the round shape, and the interactional activities are things that made all the difference to the work-avoidant level of interaction. The table 19 will show the level of interaction of the control group students.

Table 19: Level of Interaction of the Control Group

Sessions	Number of students who wanted to participate	Number of participations	Number of correct answers
Session 1	0	0	0
Session 2	0	0	0
Session 3	1	2	1
Session 4	0	0	0
Session 5	2	2	1
Session 6	1	2	2
Session 7	1	1	0
Session 8	1	2	1
Session 9	2	3	1
Session 10	1	2	2
Session 11	2	2	1
Session 12	1	2	1
Session 13	1	3	2
Session 14	2	2	2
Session 15	2	2	2

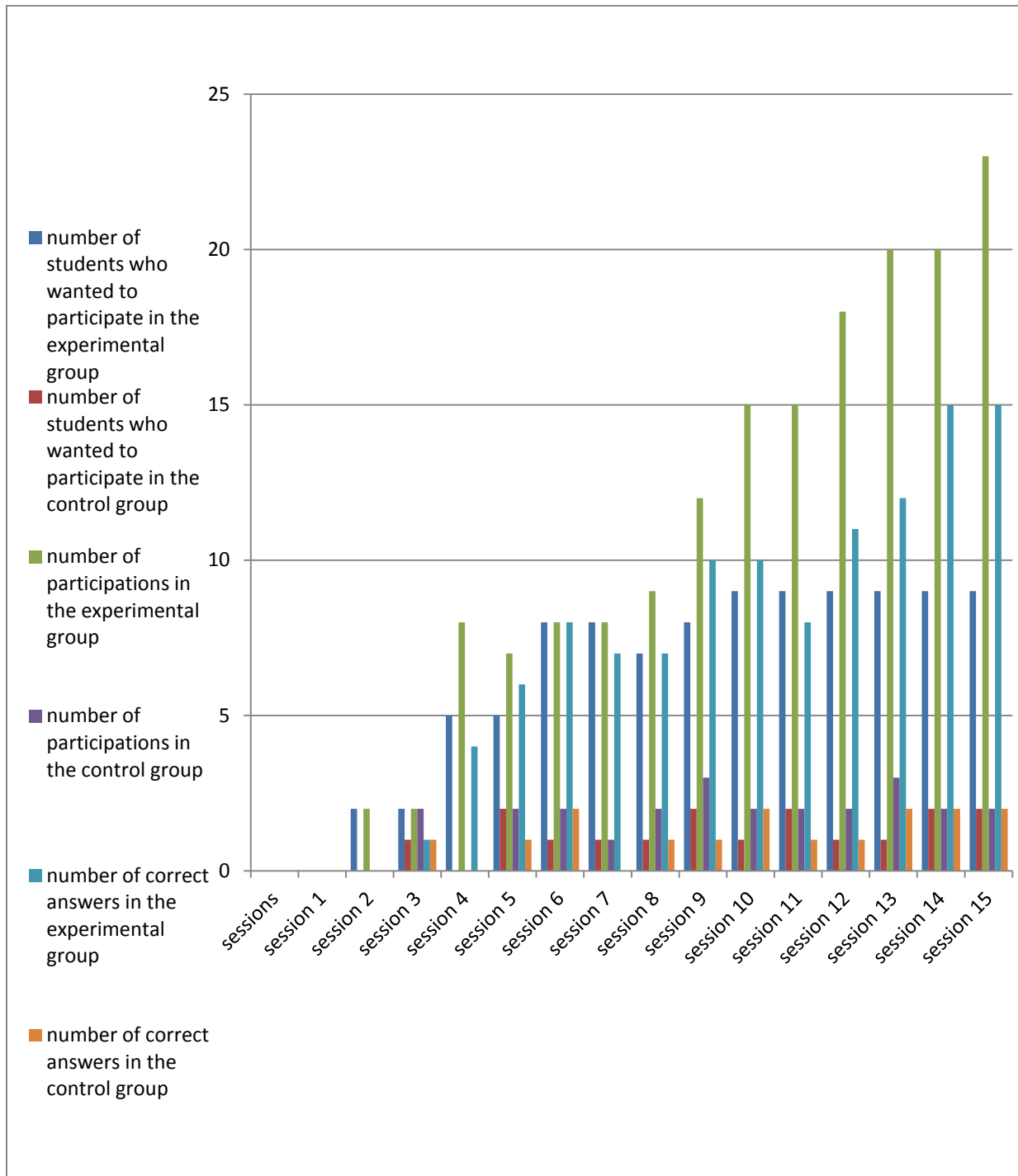
From the table above, we notice that the level of classroom interaction of the work-avoidant students from the control group has not been improved and the number of participations and correct answers is almost stable. The Graph number 4 will display the

stability of the level of classroom interaction among the work-avoidant learners from the control group



Graph 4: The Level of Interaction of the Control Group

From the graph number 5, we notice that the level of interaction of the control group is stable and has not been improved since we did not apply the experiment with it. To compare between the two groups, we have made the results of both groups in the following graph.



Graph 5: The Comparison of Classroom Interaction Level of the Experimental and the Control Groups

From this graph we notice a considerable difference between the two groups. We notice that the level of classroom interaction of the experimental group is very high and the one of the control group is very low. We notice also that the effects of rewards, the round shape and the interactional activities are strong on the experimental group.

I.2. The Analysis and the description of the Post-Test Questionnaire's Findings

After our experiment, the work-avoidant students of both groups were given a post-Questionnaire in order to know their attitudes after the experiment

The first part of questions was devoted for classroom interaction

6. Generally speaking, do you think that you are at the center of classroom interaction?

- Yes
- No

Table 20 and 21 show the results of the learners centeredness

Table 20: Learner-Centeredness Table of the Experimental Group

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	9	100%
No	0	0%

Table 21: Learner-Centeredness Table of the Control Group

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	4	100%
No	0	0

From the above tables, we understand that the researcher gave the students opportunities to participate. All the students either from the experimental or the control group said that they are at the center of the classroom interaction.

7. Are you given enough chances to participate?

- Yes
- No

The table 22 and 23 show whether the teachers give their students chances to participate.

Table 22: Students' Chances to Participate Table of the Experimental Group

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	9	100%
No	0	0%

Table 23: Students' Chances to Participate Table of the Control group

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	4	100%
No	0	0%

From table 22and 23, we understand conclude that the students are given chances to participate in the classroom interaction.

8. Do you seek to create chances to participate?

- Yes
- No

Table 24 and 25; show the students creation of chances to participate of the experimental group and the control group

Table 24: The Student' Creation of Chances to Participate of the Experimental Group

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	9	100%
No	0	0%

Table 25: The students' Creation of Chances to Participate of the Control Group

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	0	0%
No	4	100%

From Table 24 and 25, we understand that the work-avoidant students from the experimental group, after the experiment, they seek to create chances to participate. Whereas, the control group kept the same answers as the pre-test questionnaire; I mean there is less engagement.

9. Do you involve yourself in classroom interaction?

Table 26 and 27 show whether the work-avoidant students involve themselves in the classroom interaction or no.

Table 26: Students' Involvement in Classroom Interaction of the Experimental Group

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	9	100%
No	0	0%

Table 27: Students' Involvement in Classroom Interaction of the Control Group

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	2	50%
No	2	50%

From these tables we notice that there is less involvement in the classroom interaction among the control group when we compare it to the experimental group.

10. Do you share and negotiate your opinions with your teacher?

- Yes
- No

Table 28 and 29 show whether the work-avoidant students share and negotiate their meaning with their teacher

Table 28: Students' Negotiation of Opinions among the Experimental Group

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	9	100%
No	0	0%

Table 29: Students' Negotiation of Opinions among the Control Group

Option	Number	Percentage
Yes	0	0%
No	4	100%

From the above tables, we understand that the work-avoidant students from the experimental group say that they share and negotiate their opinions, but the control group do not.

The second part of questions were devoted in order to know some motivational aspects that the teacher uses for classroom interaction and if the suggested aspects may motivate the learners or no. The table 30 and 31 summarize the students' answers.

Table 30: The Experimental Group Students' Answers on the Motivational Aspects of Classroom Interaction after the Experiment

Items	item 6		Item 7		Item 8		Item 9		Item 10		Item 11		Item 12		Item 13	
	Yes	NO	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Student 1	X		X		X		X			X	X			X		X
Student 2	X		X		X		X			X	X			X		X
Student 3	X		X		X		X			X	X			X	X	
Student 4	X		X		X		X			X	X			X	X	
Student 5	X		X		X		X			X	X			X	X	
Student 6	X		X		X		X		X		X			X	X	
Student 7	X		X		X		X			X	X			X		X
Student 8	X		X		X		X			X	X			X	X	
Student 9	X		X		X		X			X	X			X	X	

Table 31: The Control Group Students' Answers on the Motivational Aspects for Classroom Interaction after the Experiment

Items	item 6		Item 7		Item 8		Item 9		Item 10		Item 11		Item 12		Item 13	
	Yes	NO	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Student 1	X		X		X		X			X	X		X		X	
Student 2	X		X		X		X			X	X		X		X	
Student 3	X		X		X		X			X	X		X			X
Student 4	X		X		X		X			X	X		X		X	

From the tables above we notice that the students from the experimental group have changed their attitude and started to participate and share their opinions with other; they also have received a reward from the researcher. Whereas, the students from the control group kept the same answers as the first time.

II. Discussion and Interpretation of the Findings

The graph number 3 revealed a noticeable increase in the in the level of the experimental group's interaction where the number of students who wanted to participate reached the top, and the number of participations were about 25 participations. Concerning the number of correct answers emitted by the students, it is increasing from session to session. This means that the work-avoidant students' extrinsic motivation was actuated. Also, it means that we have sugared the classroom interaction by offering them some effective techniques.

Graph number 4, shows that the level of the control group' interaction is stable, and there is no increase. That is to say, the work-avoidant students of the control group, who have received neither abstract nor physical rewards, remain the same and there is no change in their attitudes.

The comparative graph which is graph number 5 shows the difference between the experimental and the control groups. It compares the level of interaction with both groups. There is a considerable difference in the level of interaction; of course, this is because of the use of abstract and physical rewards with the experimental group which was on his best behavior. On the contrary, the control group was the same from the beginning until the end of the research.

Besides, the table 30 and 31 show the difference between the experimental and the control groups' answers on the motivational aspects of classroom interaction after the experiment. They show that the work-avoidant students of the experimental group have started to participate because they experienced the abstract and physical reward. Whereas the work-avoidant students of the control group still avoid participation, and interaction for them is a sore point.

To conclude, through the observation checklist analysis and the students' answers to the post-test questionnaire, we realize the effectiveness of the use of abstract and physical rewards as incentives to trigger the work-avoidant students' extrinsic motivation to interact. Thus, we determine that our research hypothesis which state that the use of abstract and physical rewards can solve the problem of the work-avoidant students, are tenable.

II.1. Summary of the Discussion and interpretation of the Results

Research question 1 was to investigate who are the work-avoidant students. The results of the quantitative analysis show that the number of the work-avoidant students was 9 in the experimental group and 4 in the control group. The percentage of work-avoidant students was 18,75% in the experimental group and 9,55% in the control group. Qualitatively, work-avoidant students were students who avoid failure without hard work; they prefer the easy work. Also, they postpone the work given to them to another time and they avoid asking for help. Most importantly, they avoid participation in the classroom and even they avoid coming to the classroom when there is a challenging task.

Research questions 2, 3, and 4 further explored the effects of abstract and physical rewards, interactional activities, and the round shape of sitting on the work-avoidant learners' extrinsic motivation. The results which were got from the quantitative analysis show that the number of participations and the number of correct answers increased in the experimental group due to the implementation of the afore mentioned strategies . Concerning the control group, the level of interaction was almost stable. The number of participations in the experimental group was between 0-23, and the number of correct answers was between 0-15. In contrast, the number of participations in the control group was between 0-2, and the number of correct answers was also between 0-2. Qualitatively, work-avoidant students' extrinsic motivation was actuated since they become more interactive. The strategies that we choose to use in order to trigger the work-avoidant students allowed them to discover that it is better for them to take the risk and participate. Besides, these strategies were useful and helpful for the work-avoidant students' attitudes and for the classroom interaction.

IV. III. Pedagogical Recommendations and Suggestions for Further Research

III.1. Limitations of the study

Throughout our research work, some obstacles faced us. One of the limitations that were encountered while conducting our present research is at the level of the students. That is, some students were absent when we distributed the first questionnaire. So, there might be more work-avoidant students than we had.

Besides, this study aims at proving that abstract and physical rewards are effective ways to motivate the work-avoidant students to participate. Toward this end, we had fifty sessions only because of the limitation of time.

Finally, this study was conducted with two groups. The experimental group has nine students and the control group has four students. So because of the limited number of the students we can not generalize our findings to all the work-avoidant students.

III.1.Pedagogical Recommendations

The pedagogical implications based on the results of this study are as followed. According to the results, after giving the students the rewards, giving them the interactional activities, and rearranging the classroom sitting to form round tables, the classroom

interaction increased and the work-avoidant students were motivated. They felt at ease in the classroom since they participated in classroom interaction and negotiated their opinions, they came to the classroom, they did the activities that were given to them, and they asked for help when necessary. Therefore, for the teachers faced with work-avoidant students, physical and abstract rewards are useful techniques which they can use to help them to change their goal orientation.

For the program, teachers should devote more time for communicative activities which must be motivating and interesting so as the work-avoidant students will have a strong willingness to learn.

Concerning the classroom management, it should be different from the old classroom sitting. We have noticed in the pre-test questionnaire that almost all the students said that they would be more motivated if we change the shape of their sitting. So, teachers should provide to their students, especially work-avoidant ones, a suitable environment to make them involved in the classroom interaction. For this purpose, round shape is a necessary aspect to be taken into consideration because it is useful for discussions, with the teacher as an equal in the discussion; this make the students at ease to express themselves. The teacher in the round table is seen as a member from the group and this motivates the students to exchange their ideas.

As we have seen in the previous chapters, students tend to adopt different goal orientations in the classroom. So, it is very important for the teachers to be aware of these goal orientations. Also, it is important for them to try to keep their students motivated and try to attract their attention to interact and learn in order to ensure a good learning environment.

III.2.Suggestions for Future Research

This part suggests the need for further research as follows. Starting from our literature review, almost all the studies related to the goal orientation theory give less importance to the work-avoidance goal orientation when we compare it to the other goals. Indeed, more research dealing with this issue is very much needed in order to deepen our understanding about it.

From our findings, abstract and physical rewards, communicative activities, and the round shape triggered the work-avoidant learners' extrinsic motivation. There should be some other factors affecting work-avoidant learners' extrinsic and even intrinsic motivation to learn. So, we propose to make more researches about this issue because it is strongly needed for the improvement of the learning environment.

Our study lasted fifty hours to change the work-avoidant attitude and to make them more involved in the classroom interaction. Therefore, a longitudinal study is recommended to be able to change the work-avoidant goal orientation since it is a psychological issue.

V. Conclusion

To conclude, it is said in this chapter that the results of this research work have proved that the use of abstract and physical rewards has a positive effect on the work-avoidant students' extrinsic motivation, and they are effective ways to make the work-avoidant learners more involved in classroom interaction. Then relying on the research results, we have suggested a set of pedagogical recommendations for future researchers.

General Conclusion

This study is conducted for the purpose of finding a solution to one of the most critical problems that the teachers may face. This problem is the work-avoidant students who avoid participation and do not respond to the teachers' questions. These students have a low level of motivation to learn. This study also aims at proving that abstract and physical rewards, interactional activities, and the round shape of sitting are useful techniques to use in order to make this category of learners integrated in the classroom interaction. We opted for the use of the experimental design to treat our research problem. The former requires dividing the research participants into two groups. In one hand, the experimental group who received abstract rewards, an Oxford dictionary, and a CD of English lessons, videos and conversations of native speakers. The former experienced also the use of interactional activities and the round shape of sitting. In the other hand, a control group who have not received the afore mentioned strategies. At the end of the experiment, we made a comparison between the two groups' level of interaction. To collect the data, we opted for the use of an observation checklist and questionnaires. The first questionnaire was handed to two classes of foreign language learners in order to assort the work-avoidant students. After this, a pre-test and a post-test questionnaire were handed to the work-avoidant students of the experimental and the control group to compare the final results and to see the effects of the chosen strategies. The observation checklist was used all along our study in order to record the work-avoidant students' participations and correct answers of both groups. The data gathered from these procedures were analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively. The analysis of the results gathered from the questionnaires and the observation checklist have shown that the work-avoidant students were motivated since the level of classroom interaction increased in the experimental group. On the contrary, the work-avoidant students of the control group remained the same because the level of classroom interaction was stable. These results validated our research hypothesis which states that we can trigger off the work-avoidant students' extrinsic motivation, to be more involved in the classroom interaction through the use of abstract and physical rewards, interactional activities, and the round shape of sitting.

Finally, regarding the time constraints and the limited number of the memoire's pages, we could not look for other factors that may affect the work-avoidant learners' extrinsic motivation to participate in the classroom interaction. Thus, it is up to the future researchers to look for these factors and try to practice them with the work-avoidant learners.

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Appendix Number1 : Students' Goal Orientation Questionnaire

Note that :

ways	usually	often	seldom	rarely	never
100%	80%	55%	15%	10%	0%
	-95%	-65%	-30%	-15%	

Questions:

- Do you think you are concerned with mastering the material and concepts, seeking challenge and learning as an end in itself?
 - Yes
 - No
- Does social comparison, doing better than the others and appearing smart interest you?
 - Yes
 - No
- Do you think that you learn for the purpose of pleasing the others like parents and teachers?
 - Yes
 - No
- Is your goal in learning avoiding failure without hard work, and completing the course with little effort as possible?
 - Always
 - Usually
 - Often
 - Seldom
 - Rarely
 - Never

Explain why.....

Does learning something new make you happy?

- Yes
 - No
- Do you feel happy in school when you know more than the others?
 - Yes
 - No
 - When your teacher thinks that you are competent, do you feel very pleased?

- Yes
 - No
7. Do you prefer the easy work?
- Always
 - Usually
 - Often
 - Seldom
 - Rarely
 - Never
8. When you have a homework, do you try to do it as soon as possible?
- Always
 - Sometimes
 - Rarely
 - Never
9. Do you postpone the work given to you to another time?
- Always
 - Usually
 - Often
 - Seldom
 - Rarely
 - Never
10. When you have to complete a task, how much effort do you put in?
- None
 - A little
 - A little much
 - Much
 - Very much
11. When you do not understand something in the classroom, do you seek for help?
- Always
 - Usually
 - Often
 - Seldom
 - Rarely
 - Never
12. When you think that the task is very hard and challenging, do you avoid participation in the classroom?
- Always

- Usually
- Often
- Seldom
- Rarely
- Never

13. Do you avoid coming to the classroom because you think that the task is difficult?

- Always
- Usually
- Often
- Seldom
- Rarely
- Never

14. Whenever there is an interaction with your teacher in the classroom, do you participate in it?

- Always
- Usually
- Often
- Seldom
- Rarely
- Never

15. When your teacher asks you a question for clarification and you are not sure about the answer, do you take the risk and give your answer?

- Always
- Usually
- Often
- Seldom
- Rarely
- Never

16. Is it important to you to maintain a positive self-image?

- Always
- Usually
- Often
- Seldom
- Rarely
- Never

17. Do others' judgments of your abilities interest you?

- Yes
- No

18. If you know you are getting 10/20 in the course, will you make a lot of effort to get more?

- Yes
- No

19. If no, is it because it is sufficient for you?

- Yes
- No

Other suggestions.....

Appendix Number 2:Pre and Post Test-Questionnaire on Classroom Interaction

Questions

1. Generally speaking,do you think that you are at the center of the classroom interaction?

- Yes
- No

2. Are you given enough chances to participate?

- Yes
- No

3. Do you seek to create chances to participate?

- Yes
- No

4. Do you involve yourself in the classroom interaction?

- Yes
- No

5. Do you share and negotiate your opinions with your teacher?

- Yes
- No

6. Do you think that the shape of your sitting affects the degree of your involvement in the classroom interaction?

- Yes
- No

Explain.....

7. Does the strategy your teacher uses to explain the lesson motivate you to participate?

- Yes
- No

8. Do you receive abstract compensation, like 'very good' from your teacher?

- Yes

- No
9. If yes, does this motivate you to make more efforts and to participate more?
- Yes
- No
10. Have you been ever rewarded (given presents) by your teacher when you achieve in the classroom?
- Yes
- No
11. If someone rewards you for achievement in the classroom, will you be motivated to make more efforts and to participate more?
- Yes
- No
12. Do you think that the kind of activities you perform during classroom interaction do not answer your needs in terms of interests?
- Yes
- No
13. Does the uninterestingness of the activities push you to avoid participation?
- Yes
- No

Appendix Number 3: The Observation Checklist

Sessions	Number of student who wanted to participate	Number of participations	Number of correct answers emitted by the students
Session 1			
Sesion 2			
Session 3			
Session 4			
Session 5			
Session 6			
Session 7			
Session 8			
Session 9			
Session 10			
Session 11			
Session 12			
Session 13			
Session 14			

Session 15			
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