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**Effective Teaching of EFL Writing: An Investigation of Teachers' Perceptions,
Beliefs and Practices**
The Case of Algerian EFL Secondary School Teachers in the Region of Mila

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this humble work to:

- The memory of my dear mother: *Houria*,
- My father: *Mohamed Tahar*,
- My husband: *Abdelghani*,
- My little daughters: *Soundous* and *Hidaya*,
- All my brothers and sisters and their sons and daughters,
- My family in-law,
- All my family and friends.

ABSTRACT

Teaching a foreign language has always been a demanding and complex task. Scholars and researchers have continuously been trying to facilitate the process and design new techniques for aiding both teachers and learners to engage in the teaching/learning process. The insufficient time that is allocated to the writing skill and the lack of teacher training to cope with the changing teaching methodologies prevent effective implementation of teaching. In this thesis, an attempt is made to explore the notion of effective teaching in order to make things even clearer to our teachers. In fact, research shows that it is rather complicated, and its understanding requires some time and effort. In order to be able to teach writing effectively, teachers need not merely be pedagogically knowledgeable, but also be able to put what they know into practice. The main focus of this study would consequently, be directed towards investigating teachers' pedagogical knowledge and their classroom practices. Bridging the gap between the former and the latter is what is actually targeted. In this study, we are concerned with the teaching/learning process, and more specifically teaching writing to third-year classes (Foreign Languages Stream) in the secondary school under the Competency-based Approach. The population is the secondary school teachers of English in the region of Mila and the sample is one hundred teachers who collaboratively answered the questionnaire providing valuable information and clarifications about its various items. It is hypothesized that teachers' perceptions and beliefs about TLP would not fully shape their classroom practices in teaching writing. The findings clearly demonstrate that teachers' pedagogical practices are rather limited and negatively influenced by many factors, and that competency-based language teaching is not perfectly implemented which indicates that what is hypothesized in the very beginning of this study is matched in the teachers' responses. Moreover, teachers' communicative practices and classroom positive interaction seem to have great impact on the learners' behaviors and attitudes towards pedagogical tasks. In the end, we hope that teachers, in general would largely benefit from this study and its outcomes, and especially the suggested recommendations for a better engagement in the teaching/learning process. The latter with all its components and challenges constitutes the core of what the teacher should be concerned with.

Key Words: Teaching/learning process, writing skill, pedagogical knowledge, theory, practice.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BAK	Background, Assumptions and Knowledge
CALL	Computer Assisted Language Learning
CBA	Competency-based Approach
CBE	Competency-based Education
CBLT	Competency-based Language Teaching
CLL	Cooperative Language Learning
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CMC	Computer-mediated Communication
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ENS	Ecole Normale Supérieure
ESL	English as a Second Language
FL	Foreign Language
ICT	Information and Communications Technology
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
LL	Language Learning
LLS	Language Learning Strategies
LS	Learning Styles
LT	Language Teaching
NF	Negative Feedback
PK	Pedagogical Knowledge
SCT	Socio-cultural Theory
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SS	Secondary School



TL	Target Language
TLP	Teaching/Learning Process
TTT	Teacher Talking Time
UG	Universal Grammar
ZITs	Zones of Interactional Transition

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ملخص

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1. Background of the Study

Writing has always been an essential skill in learning English as a second/foreign language (L2/FL). For this reason, researchers in the field (Brown, 2001; Harmer, 2004) are always trying to find new ways for teaching this skill more effectively. Introducing new approaches and methods alone is not enough to obtain good learning outcomes. This is basically because the teaching/learning process (TLP) is so complicated that the various factors that lead to its success or at least improvement cannot be easily determined. On the one hand, we have teacher-related factors including: approaches, methods, and several techniques and practices in class. On the other hand, learning styles and strategies are equally responsible for learning.

Considering the assumption that success in any kind of learning starts in the learner and extends to the teacher for more support and help, it was found necessary to consider the teacher and TLP connections. The teacher's beliefs and perceptions about this process can greatly determine the success or failure of TLP. Having access to teachers' beliefs, perceptions and knowledge would greatly help in showing the way teachers put some aspects of teaching including: process instruction, grammar treatment, feedback, peer review and assessment into practice (Gatbonton, 1999).

It has been mentioned above that some teaching aspects are crucial in the whole TLP. Feedback is by no means a common practice of teaching writing taking one form or another. All teachers seem to be using feedback either in the form of linguistic corrections or through praise, encouragement and also criticism, and it essentially depends on "the kind of mistakes being made... [And] the type of activity the students are taking part in" (Harmer, 2005, p. 99). The conditions provided by Harmer clearly show that the notion of feedback is complex; therefore, has to be cautiously treated. Feedback was proved to have effects not only on

students' final drafts, but also on their "writing behaviors and strategies" (Warden, 2000, p.574). This depends on the way of its implementation, the learning setting, in addition to learners' reactions and attitudes to feedback. Bitchner, Young and Cameron (2005) reported Truscott's suggestion that "attention be given to which methods, techniques, or approaches to error correction that lead to short-term or long-term improvement" (p. 192). These results encourage researchers to shed light on this technique, and try to fill the gaps in its implementation. Similarly, peer review, another form of feedback has been largely used in the past decades to teach writing. Nevertheless, many teachers still refuse to incorporate it in their practices because they assume that it would not be necessarily successful (Carson & Nelson, 1994). As far as assessment is concerned, Brown (2004) argues that every teacher should hold a given philosophy of assessment and grading that conforms to his/her teaching approach. In fact, introducing cooperative activities to language learning makes it possible for students to communicate more freely; thus, finding situations in which the target language is used (Gwyn-Paquette & Toghon, 2002).

With the lapse of time, teachers acquire new knowledge and form different beliefs about teaching. In other words, the more experienced teachers are, the more beliefs they would have about TLP and therefore, they would be able to grasp it. Many studies (e.g., Hollingsworth, 1989; Kagan & Tippins, 1991; Tamir, 1991; cited in Gatbonton, 1999) have focused on teachers' perceptions and beliefs about TLP. Freeman (2002) argues that the more teachers think about teaching and learning, the more confident they would become. The corresponding outcomes would certainly be of tremendous benefits for the learners on the basis that the ultimate goals revolve around them.

2. Statement of the Problem

An observation of the deteriorating level of students in writing was the starting point and the main reason behind conducting this study. Pupils of the secondary school (SS) often

show a rather weak level in English as a foreign language (EFL) writing which greatly affected their academic career as students of English (see Appendix 1). This pushed us to look for the exact causes of this problem. SS would, then, be the focal point of interest for implementing this research.

Success in learning the writing skill is greatly associated with successful teaching. The latter was and is still being investigated. Factors related to this issue vary from the teacher, to the learner, to the learning/teaching context and also methodology which is part of our concern in this research. Based on these elements, the general scope of the study has been defined.

One of the most significant issues that SS teachers often complain about is their difficulty with putting all their pedagogical knowledge into practice when teaching EFL writing, and that their beliefs and perceptions about it are not always matched in their pedagogical practices.

All that has just been mentioned requires an urgent step for trying to have access to teachers' perceptions, beliefs and pedagogical knowledge required for teaching EFL writing, and subsequently the way they shape their practices in class. In this research, the role of the teacher would be considered through attempting to define the nature of the link, if possible, between teachers' perceptions and beliefs about teaching and learning, on the one hand, and their practices in the classroom, on the other.

3. Aim of the Study

This study aims at understanding the nature, elements and characteristics of teaching EFL writing through shedding light on some aspects which affect teaching and learning in one way or another. Those aspects which are related to the teacher include: the teaching methods used, the use of group work, feedback, peer review, grammar treatment, the teacher/student

interaction in class, and the way teachers manage input and respond and, finally, evaluate the students' output. As far as the learner is concerned, focus would be put on the ways of fostering learning outcomes with the psychological side of the learner being equally considered. More importantly, this study attempts to explore teachers' beliefs and perceptions of the TLP, the source of their pedagogical knowledge, and the extent of the relationship between what they know and what they actually put into practice. We believe that questioning teachers about their perceptions and beliefs would pave the way for more and clearer understanding of some pedagogical practices for the sake of improving teaching and ameliorating learning of EFL writing.

4. Significance of the Study

The present study can be of great significance to teachers and researchers alike. In the first place, teachers of English can have all or some of their questions answered, here. This is due to the fact that this study investigates and tries to spot light on more effective practices to teach EFL writing. In fact, some teachers may have full knowledge about the most important components of the teaching process; yet, cannot put them into practice as effectively as need be. Moreover, they might have wrong thoughts and beliefs about the significance of one aspect or another. This study would, consequently, put this category of teachers on the right path through enabling them to correct and reformulate their beliefs and, subsequently, the corresponding practices in class. Other teachers, on the other hand, do not even know some essential features of EFL writing instruction and especially the most recent ones that are reported by research. These teachers, then, are expected to greatly benefit from the results of the study whatever they would be through incorporating new ways of teaching writing more effectively.

Regarding the topic addressed here, the study can contribute to EFL research basically because it considers one of the basic skills: writing. In a nutshell, this study provides some insights into more understanding of effective EFL writing instruction in the secondary school.

5. Research Questions and Hypotheses

In this research, an attempt is made to investigate the role of the teacher in TLP and the way he/she uses various teaching techniques and practices. Moreover, teachers' perceptions and beliefs about teaching writing would be explored. The study equally examines the link between teachers' practices and procedures and learning outcomes including: motivation, anxiety and writing performance. Therefore, the following research questions would shape the whole study:

1. How do teachers perceive TLP in teaching EFL writing?
2. What are their beliefs about teaching EFL writing?
3. What shapes teachers' beliefs in teaching EFL writing?
4. Do teachers really apply what they know about teaching approaches and methods in class?
5. What is the relationship between teachers' beliefs and PK, and their practices in class?
6. What are the elements which would help teachers to teach EFL writing more effectively?

Based on these questions, this study would be carried out in the light of the following hypotheses:

- Having access to teachers' beliefs and perceptions about teaching EFL writing would help in showing the way teachers put their pedagogical knowledge about the aspects of teaching EFL writing into practice.

- Teachers' perceptions and beliefs about TLP would not fully shape their classroom practices in teaching EFL writing.

6. Means of Research

The research questions posed would greatly guide us in devising a methodology to collect data about TLP and teaching writing in particular. Intended to be descriptive in nature, the present study primarily relies on the questionnaire as a research tool. In addition, the interview (unstructured) is used for additional information. The questionnaire mainly targets the various aspects of teaching writing in SS (third-year classes) along with teachers' sources of PK, their beliefs about TLP and the subsequent practices in class. In the questionnaire, all types of questions are used: yes/no questions, closed and open-ended questions. The interview consists of a set of questions whose purposes mainly revolve around some clarifications that could not have been reached via the questionnaire.

7. Structure of the Thesis

The thesis would be a whole of six chapters. The first one is concerned with TLP in general: its nature, components and characteristics. This would normally pave the way for bringing the writing skill under the spotlight. The second chapter provides a broad description of writing instruction including the most important and effective aspects of teaching writing. The main focus of the third chapter is teachers' beliefs and construction of their PK. In this chapter, an attempt is made to explore teachers' beliefs and the corresponding practices as suggested in the literature. In the fourth chapter, space is dedicated to teaching writing under the Competency-based Approach (CBA) in the Algerian SS emphasizing form, content, methodology and objectives. Chapter five explains the methodology used in order to carry out this research and shows the implementation and discussion of the results of this study with all



its stages. Finally, the last chapter concludes the thesis by providing some implications and recommendations.



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CHAPTER ONE: TEACHING/LEARNING PROCESS

Introduction

During the last decades, scholars have largely reconsidered the nature of TLP and how it can be redefined to give it a new image concerning: teachers' roles in class, learners' new tasks and other relevant factors. This has been mainly undertaken for the sake of boosting learning and obtaining more satisfying outcomes.

The present chapter focuses on the components of TLP whether linguistic or psychological and explains each element in order to enlighten what might seem ambiguous for teachers. It equally sheds lights on some new concepts in the field of academic language learning and teaching and opens new horizons to teachers for more scientifically-proved practices in class. In this case, every detail is important so that issues would not be misunderstood. It should be noted, here, that this chapter talks about TLP, in general without focusing on a given language skill.

1. Teaching/Learning Process

Hohenstein and King (2011) define learning as “a relatively permanent change in thought or in behavior that results from experience” (p. 176). This suggests that learning an FL can be difficult in the sense that learners are supposed to go through a series of miscellaneous tasks and activities that would ultimately end up with a definitely different background and characteristics of the person in question. One more thing is that research (Gardener, 1993; Marzano, Pickering & Ploock, 2001) reports that effective language learning is by all means a hard and challenging task. According to Crawford, Saul, Mathews, and Makinster (2005), “learning fully and usefully means that students can think about what they

learn, apply it in real situations or toward further learning, and can continue to learn independently” (p.1).

Teaching an FL can be even more difficult. Camenson (2007) states that “many people not yet in the profession believe that because they can speak English they should be able to teach it” (p.8). In fact, it is not always the case. Further, more complicated issues are interconnected including for instance the FL culture (Sercu, 2005). Scrivener (1994) emphasizes the distinction between learning and teaching claiming that the teacher plays only a small part in the learning process and that other features can affect learning. However, the two tasks should not be tackled separately, for the former is basically dependent on the latter, and the latter seeks to reach the former. Wragg and Brown (1993) define explaining as “the giving of understanding to another. It can involve children learning about: concepts; cause and effect; procedures; purposes and objectives; relationships; processes; consequences; a host of other notions” (p. 13). This is the reason why teaching and learning are considered as two components of the same process. Language then, being the central issue of this process, has to be viewed in relation to cognition; another complex component of the human being. In fact, review of the literature demonstrates that cognition has been largely dealt with by psychologists (Piaget, 1968) and linguists (Chomsky, 1965) alike on the basis of its direct and indirect link with the different processes involved in learning, in general.

1.1. Language and Cognition

Language is not an independent skill that learners can acquire without involving their thinking skills (Moseley et al., 2005). Feelings and emotions are equally included. Brown (2000) explains what is meant by language:

Language is behavior, that is, a phase of human activity which must not be treated in essence as structurally divorced from the structure of nonverbal human activity. The activity of man constitutes a structural whole in such a way that it cannot be subdivided into neat "parts" or "levels" or

"compartments" with language in a behavioral compartment insulated in character, content, and organization from other behaviour. (p. 144)

Another elaborate explanation of the nature of language is provided by The IRA-NCTE joint Task Force on Assessment (2010):

Language is a system of signs through and within which we represent and make sense of the world and of ourselves. Language does not contain meaning; rather, meaning is constructed in the social relationships within which language is used. Individuals make sense of language within their social relationships, their personal histories, and their collective memory. In order to make sense of even a single word, people take into account the situation and their relationship with the speaker or writer. (p.3)

Language is human-specific; it serves as a means of communication and social interaction (Widdowson, 1996; Scovel, 1998), and because of this social involvement, language can serve as a mirror for differences between humans (Spolsky, 1998). There is no doubt that all normal human beings can acquire language at a given age. But, the way this acquisition takes place has been the subject of debate between scholars for decades. The 20th century was characterized by a very commonly known debate between two scholars: the psychologist, Skinner and the linguist, Chomsky. According to Mitchell and Myles (2004), Skinner's behaviorist learning model mainly revolves around "copying and memorizing behaviours encountered in the surrounding environment.... children could learn language primarily by imitating the speech of their caretakers" (p.12). The other different explanation of language learning was, as has been aforementioned, provided by Chomsky who claimed that "language is too complex to be learnt in its entirety...[children] must therefore have some innate predisposition to expect natural languages to be organized in particular ways and not others" (Mitchell & Myles, 2004, p.12). According to the universal grammar (UG) model, "the essential nature of language is cognitive. It is seen as a psychological phenomenon: what is of primary interest is what the form of language reveals about the human mind" (Widdowson, 1996, p. 13). The proponents of this view maintain that:

- All human beings are equipped with a mental apparatus that is responsible for language. Therefore, Language “is part of any normal human being’s mental or psychological structure” (Radford, Atkinson, Britain, Clahson & Spencer, 2009, p. 1).
- Human language is the product of “an innate faculty” (Piske & Young-Scholten, 2009, p.3).
- Linguistic features are innate which means that there is no need to learn reading and writing (Chomsky 1965, as cited in Matthews, 1990).

This controversy is, among other things, an indicator of the intensity of the works and theories which are directly or indirectly related to language learning and acquisition alike.

Language is inseparably related to cognition. However, the nature of the link between them was a matter of struggle between scholars who try to answer the question “Does language influence or is influenced by cognition?” Williams (2003) reports Piaget’s view stating that “cognitive abilities developmentally precede linguistic abilities; thus, the development of linguistic structures depends on cognitive abilities” (p. 257). Piaget’s arguments for his view are inspired from his model of children’s intellectual development. He claims that, though infants cognitively develop in their first year of life, they cannot use language until after that age and that “changes in cognition that are the results of maturation and development have linguistic consequences” (Williams, 2003, p.259). His view supports the idea that in order that students excel in reading and writing, they should first be taught how to think. Piaget’s findings were criticized by research. For instance, Rice and Kemper (1984; cited in Williams, 2003) came to the conclusion that “there is no empirical support for the proposal that children’s cognitive development has a significant effect on their language” (p. 260).

Vygotsky (1986) and Whorf (1956) have a different view and believe that language influences cognition. The proponents of this view argue that “reading great works of literature

therefore would have a more beneficial effect on thinking than reading a lab report or a book on history” (Williams, 2003, p.268). Moreover, simplemindedness can equally be the result of illiteracy. In fact, Goody and Watt’s theory summarizes this view:

literacy and more particularly alphabetic literacy of the kind used for Western languages causes cognitive changes to the extent that literate people (that is, those literate in a language using alphabetic script) simply think differently-that is, more logically-than those from cultures without alphabetic literacy-an idea that many Westerners find appealing, no doubt because it “explains” what they perceive to be superiority of Western cultures. (Walters, 1990; as cited in Williams, 2003, p.267).

However, critics of linguistic relativism claim that some mental deficiencies in non-literate subjects in these studies are not necessarily the result of non-literacy but to other cultural or religious considerations. Another criticism directed to the idea that language influences cognition is based on the fact that although deaf children have learnt neither speech nor any language sign, they have developed a certain level of cognition like other hearing children.

1.2. Anatomy of the Teaching/Learning Process

In this study, we want to focus more on TLP because its understanding is essential for teachers as well as those who are directly or indirectly interested in the whole issue of education and instruction for one reason or another. Put it another way, teachers are involved in this process, and if they do not deeply understand it, they might not perform as perfectly as it is expected from them. Moreover, this can help them in understanding how to react with their pupils in class and solve some if not all of their pedagogical or other related problems. This is basically due to the claim that “good teaching is situational-it varies in response to the learners” (Grow, 1991, p. 127). That is to say, the learners are the main characters in the whole process, and the teacher’s pedagogical behavior should go in harmony and in accordance with the learners’ needs and expectations. In fact, teachers are supposed to have

considerable knowledge on everything including the nature of learning and how it takes place as well as the various styles and strategies of learning an FL and how pupils/students make use of them in order to obtain better learning outcomes. Within the socio-cultural theory (SCT) (Vygotsky, 1978; 1986), for instance, it is admitted that “learning is...a social phenomenon embedded in specific cultural, historical, and institutional contexts” (Villamil & Guerrero, 2006, p.23). That is to say, learning is not viewed as an isolated ‘event’, but that which is deeply connected to other related conditions, for instance, the psychological state of the student can play a tremendous role in all that and has impact on it one way or another. Moreover, figure 1 demonstrates how language is divided into some of its composing constituents which, in turn, should be taken into consideration in the process of teaching:

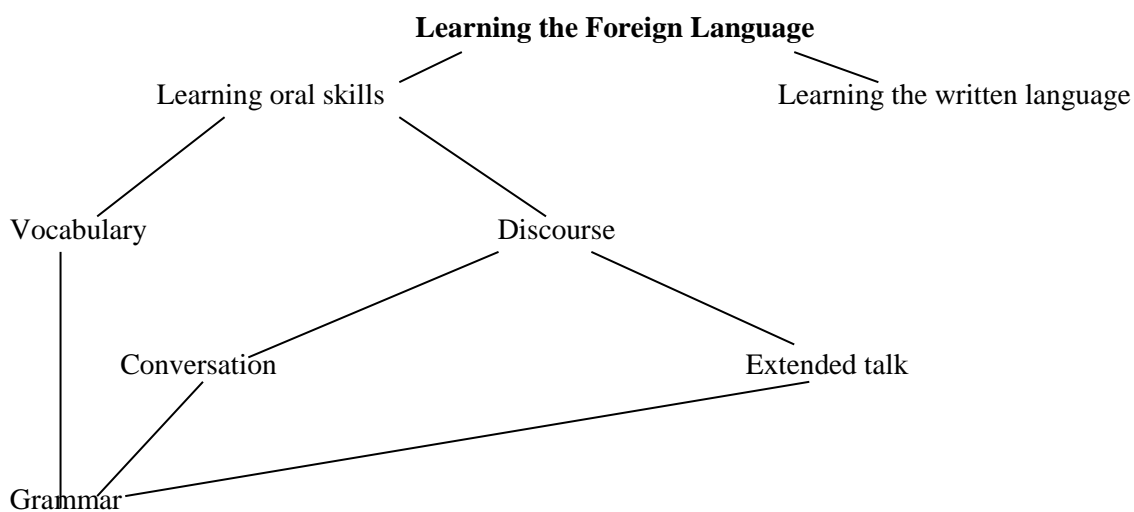


Figure 1: Dividing up ‘Language’ for Child Foreign Language Learning (Cameron, 2001, p. 19)

Understanding language teaching (LT) and learning has always been the aim of research. This is particularly for the sake of improving them and trying to introduce new methods and techniques. According to Stern (1983), “language teaching can be defined as the activities which are intended to bring about language learning” (p.21). The point is that one cannot understand something unless one explores it and examines it from every angle. One should equally put some questions that can be helpful in illustrating things better. Woods

(1996) mentions three gaps that he thinks are of great importance to understanding the teaching/learning context:

1. Research has not described the structure of classroom language teaching in pedagogical terms, i.e. in the context of the larger units of course structure and the underlying objectives.
2. It has not examined the processes by which language teachers plan and make decisions about their teaching (both for and in the classroom).
3. It has not examined the language teaching/learning process as it is perceived and interpreted by the participants' themselves-in particular the teacher. (p.11)

In fact, teaching involves learning “how to learn from experience and on how to build professional knowledge” (Korthagen, Loughran, & Russell, 2006; p.1025). Moreover, Oliver (2000) explains and makes a contrast between positive and negative evidence. The former is “the input or models that language learners receive about the target language [and the latter is what] provides information to learners about what is not possible in the target language” (p.120). In addition, many other factors are involved. The teacher’s personality, teaching atmosphere, the materials and media available, number of pupils per group, learners’ readiness for study, administrative laws all interfere in the whole process of teaching and learning.

Duff (2005) maintains that both teachers and students in secondary schools are faced with enormous challenges. In Algeria, middle and high schools’ teachers are most of the time complaining about teaching including: The weak level of pupils, the overcrowded classes, pupils’ reluctance to react with them, or accept advice, lack of respect...etc. All these obstacles make teaching even more difficult and more challenging. One may wonder about the nature of this job and exclaims whether teaching is difficult by nature; or some external factors render it unbearable sometimes. In fact, it is the researchers’ job to answer this and

other similar questions, and at the same time try to offer some or many solutions to every problem and obstacle. TLP is a matter of many factors put together; this is in terms of anatomy. In the first place, it is claimed that everything, with no exception turns around TLP. That is to say, everything is here because of this process. First, the teacher should not consider teaching as a job that gives him/her a salary at the end of the month, but rather a duty around which some goals revolve. Obviously, this is not something easy to reach, but at least this study aims at drawing teachers' attention to some aspects of such a situation. Some ; however, would consider this a perfect case, and that it is quite impossible to reach it especially regarding the hard conditions of education in Algeria including overcrowded classes, and the changing views of teachers. This again puts us in front of another challenge: What matters the most; the materials or one's will for achieving something? No doubt, the materials such as books, technological media...etc are means by which teaching can be carried out, but also if there is no will for teaching, then, those materials and media would be useless. In conclusion, both teaching materials and willing teachers are necessary for a successful process of teaching and learning.

When we think of learning itself and its connection with teaching, we first ask a question: "why we teach at all?" we definitely teach so that other people learn i.e. get "a feeling of deep meaningfulness" (Johnson, 1999). This means that the two processes are deeply interconnected, and none of them will actually succeed without the other. To explain more, we cannot talk about a successful process of teaching if learning does not take place, no learning occurs without teaching and "we can't assume the student is learning just because the teacher is teaching" (Armstrong, Carroll & Wilson 93, p. 19). Some would argue that we have self-directed or autonomous learning in which teachers' role is rather restricted in the whole process. This is absolutely true. In fact, the teacher can be a person, a book, a computer... etc. Moreover, understanding this process can help teachers find solutions to the various problems

that they might be faced with, and defeat all kinds of obstacles no matter how difficult they are.

The learning process is another issue that teachers should be largely concerned with. In fact, they should understand its nature, and the various steps of learning, language learning strategies (LLS) and also signs of learning. Of course, research has always given considerable importance to the learning process as a whole, and more specifically the learner himself. Many aspects of learning have been shed light on for the sake of understanding how learning takes place. It is absolutely true that no one can deny the importance of this; however, the question that arises, here, is whether teachers try to do so or not.

These complicated processes of teaching and learning should be given more emphasis and consideration by Algerian scholars and researchers in the field of FL teaching. In Algeria, when we say researchers, we mean university teachers. Teachers of other levels' are merely consumers, and sometimes they are not even consumers but only watchers. One should not consider this a criticism; it is just a report of the situation which is gradually becoming worse as the pupils' level is on the wane for a variety of reasons. For this reason, it is of paramount importance that teachers of all levels and of all modules in Algeria be frequently exposed to the results of research about teaching and learning so that they better understand the two processes and their exact nature.

If teachers teach without caring whether learning takes place or not for one reason or another, then the whole process would be sheer failure. Sometimes, we can never know whether students are learning or not. They might show that they have grasped something, but in fact, they did not. Even if teachers ask them through oral forms of interaction, they might not say the truth for many reasons including shyness and fear of their colleagues' sarcastic comments. So, teachers are not to be always blamed for any failure in TLP. It is partly for this reason that we described this process as complicated, and it is no easy thing to say who is

directly or indirectly responsible for the success or failure TLP. In fact, a cluster of reasons and a variety of factors have to be carefully examined for an effective and successful ‘cure’ of the disease. In this vein, research is constantly finding new remedies to all kinds of pedagogical dilemmas. For instance, Egbert (2003) explores the effects of the Flow theory on language learning. This theory consists of “intense focus and involvement that leads to improved performance on a task” (p. 499). Figure 2 partly explains it and demonstrates the way it can affect language performance.

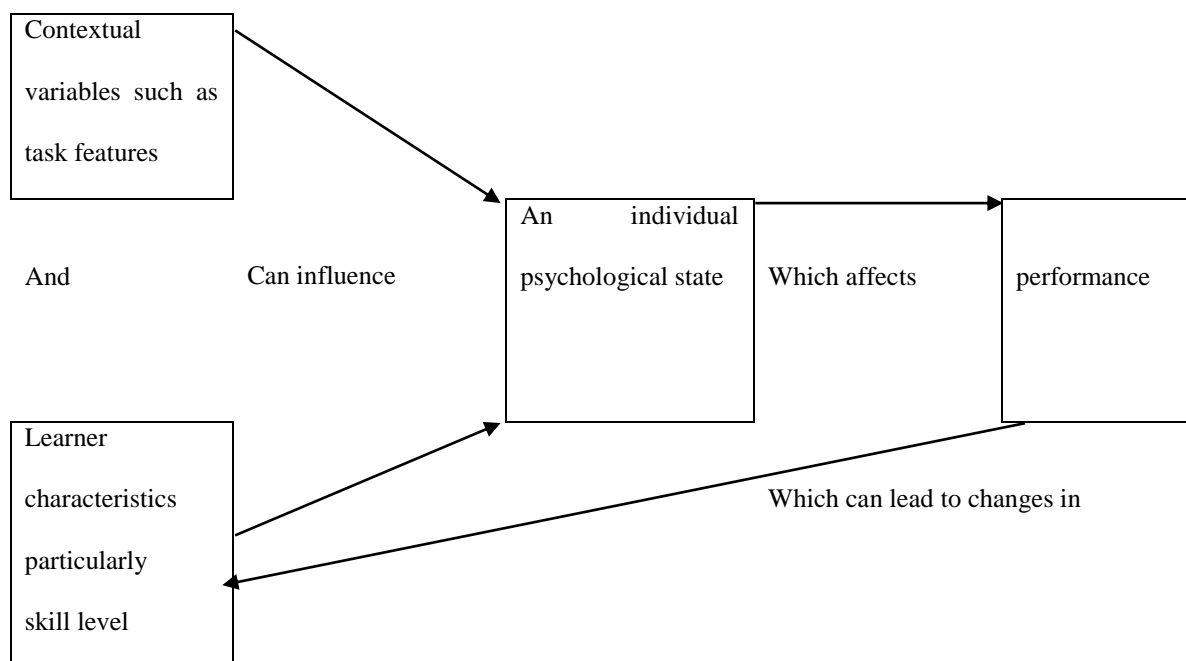


Figure 2: Simplified Model of Flow and Learning (Egbert, 2003, p.500).

2. Elements of the Teaching/Learning Process

Success of TLP is a matter of many factors put together. However, these factors contribute with varying degrees with the result that some components are more prominent and significant than others. In fact, the role of teaching has always been discussed in research, and it varied in accordance with the methods and approaches of teaching. The latter have long

preoccupied researchers because of their significance and importance for enhancing the language skills and, more particularly, writing.

The teacher, the learner and the teaching/learning circumstances all contribute to the process and its outcomes. In fact, there are “classroom rules and conventions [which] establish the framework within which learning takes place” (Wragg, 2005, p. 59). If the teacher starts teaching without taking into account all these factors, he will surely get tired soon. Being aware of that can be of great advantage to him because it can alleviate the burden of teaching and make things easier. Successful teaching and learning is the result of collaborating efforts from all sides: teachers, parents, researchers and learners themselves, so that the teacher who accepts to try the results of research does his best to transmit knowledge to good learners under the supervision of responsible parents and with the provision of enough teaching materials and media. Equally important is the thing that good teaching does not necessarily lead to good learning. Therefore, no one is to be solely blamed in case of the failure of the whole process. This picture of the teaching skeleton may seem ideal, but if taken into consideration, it will pave the way for ameliorating the system of education in Algeria. For this reason, the whole staff is called to contribute positively in the whole process, and if things are really taken seriously, everything would be better.

In trying to introduce reforms for teaching, the Ministry of Education has to start from the person and returns back to him. Clearly speaking, all turns around the teacher and the learner in the sense that the former gives knowledge and the latter receives it. Surely, knowledge, what is given, is not just a piece of furniture that is easily handled. In fact, a particular atmosphere is necessary for the success of this process.

So far, we have mentioned three basic components in the whole complex process. If the teacher tries to do his best, and makes considerable effort in teaching; and at the same time the learner is ready for receiving knowledge and also shows seriousness in what he does,

then, there would be good relationship between the two sides. One should not understand this as friendship, but just respect and good interaction. In fact, other details, though important, do not have much weight as the previous factors do. Here, there is a tendency towards caring about the human being for everything turns around him. Understanding both the teacher and the learner helps in understanding TLP with all its stages and secrets. In fact, success in education is the result of combining two factors: human resources and materials. However, we should start with the human being and, then, move to other things.

2.1. Teacher

Formally speaking, the teacher “is someone who has completed an initial, pre-service training programme and is now working in a language teaching context” (Wajnryb, 1992, p. 4). If learning does not take place, teachers are the first to be blamed for. This; however, is not always true, and teachers are not always responsible for what happens during TLP. It is true that the teacher’s role is big and he/she is the master of the classroom and is responsible for what happens inside, but there are other things and factors which equally contribute to the whole process, and therefore, have certain effects on it. Pagliaro (2013) maintains that:

The context (environment) in which learning takes place involves numerous factors. Among them are you (the teacher), the community in which the school is located, and the students. To be a successful teacher, you should become thoroughly familiar with all of these factors. But the most control you personally have over these factors is yourself. (p.1)

Westwood (2008b) stands in partial opposition to the previous conclusions and claims that “several studies [Topping & Ferguson, 2005; Wilson, 2003] suggested that the quality of a teacher is more important than any particular method or model of instruction in ensuring that students develop essential literacy skills” (p.10).

If we conjure up the traditional classroom, we would obtain a picture of the teacher doing everything: giving knowledge, correcting the learners’ mistakes, giving advice and

other extra tasks. Recently, however, the role of the teacher has been largely questioned (Sato, 2002), and so many tasks are no longer part of his job. This is the reason why, he/she cannot be blamed for everything anymore. The issue is, in fact, somehow complicated and so many details are to be put into consideration.

This is an essential and necessary step for the success of TLP because it is quite natural that detecting the problems and their causes is half the job of trying to find their solutions. In a nutshell, teachers are asked to “create and maintain an ‘effective learning environment’ in their lessons, one of the biggest concerns that they have is related to class control, management and organization” (Waring, 2004, p. 105). In addition, working cooperatively with colleagues is of outstanding benefits. Williams (2003) reports that “teachers who work in isolation from their peers are often less effective than those who actively seek teamwork” (p. 11). But, before we ask the teacher to perform his tasks, some working conditions must be available including: “The reduction in stress and anxiety for the teacher that comes from identifying and minimizing potential problems before entering the teaching context is one outcome of effective planning that should not be underestimated” (op.cit, p. 86). Moreover, Schelfhout et al. (2006) believe that to produce good teachers, teacher education programs should prepare student teachers to be able to:

- master the content knowledge of the discipline they are specialized to teach
- have skills and knowledge about teaching/learning in order to teach properly
- work in school contexts³
- notice any shortcomings in their teaching and constantly try to improve it
- take on a broader pedagogical and moral responsibility. (As cited in Rahimi, p. 3).

In a nutshell, we can say that teachers can conceive learners in terms of “learning styles, aptitude-treatment interactions, learner autonomy, the affective domain, and learner beliefs about language learning, among many others” (Horwitz, 2000, p.532). Moreover,

“teachers can make learning meaningful when they employ activities that call on students to use their prior knowledge and experiences to construct their own frames of thought” (Bevevino, Dengel & Adams, 1999, p. 275).

Evaluating teaching is another focal point of interest in the mid of the whole process of teaching. This should be taken into account, in the first place, by teachers themselves on the basis that the matter concerns them before anyone else. Figure 3 from Brown and McIntyre (1993, reported in Cooper and McIntyre 1996, p. 6) clarifies the issue:

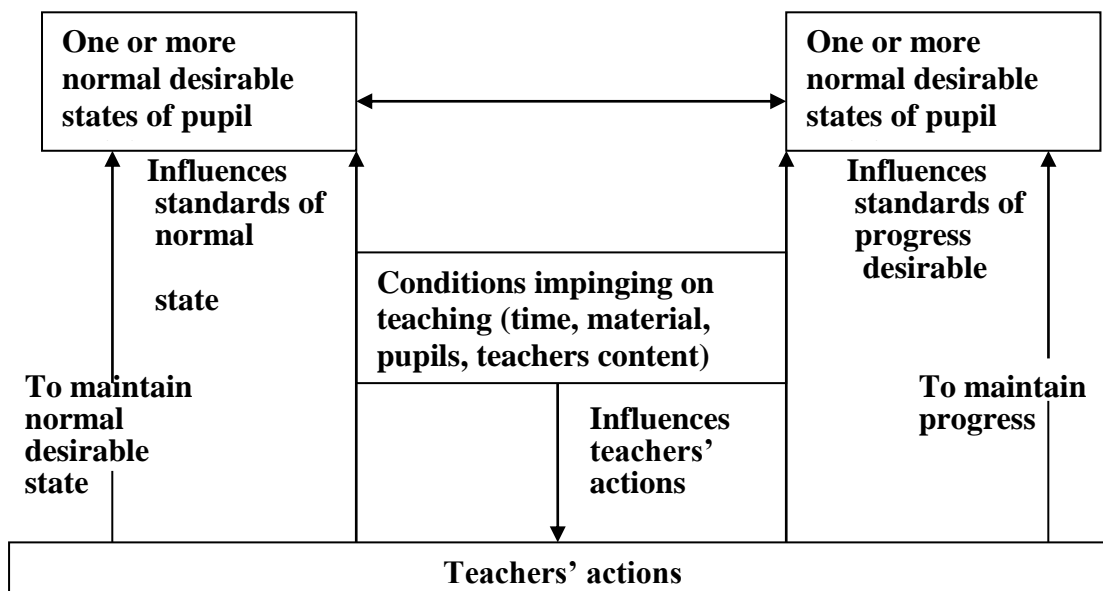


Figure 3: Concepts that Teachers Use in Evaluating their own Teaching

Of course, for a successful career, teachers should “learn their craft through a mixture of personality, intelligence, knowledge and experience (and how they reflect on it)” (Harmer, 2007, p. 23).

2.1.1. Personality Traits

Personality traits are, among other things, what makes the person and inevitably forms his character, behavior, style of living and probably the most preferred future jobs. For this reason, it is impossible to ignore this. Some people are readier than others for some jobs. So,

we at least try to adapt ourselves to the situation as much as we can. It is taken for granted that if someone does not like something, they would not perform well in it. Unfortunately, a considerable number of teachers were obliged to teach because they were afraid of doing other jobs, and this sometimes results in partial or complete failure of TLP.

Shyness is considered as a problem for teachers. In other words, if someone is remarkably shy, he/she would not fulfill the tasks well. Nonetheless, it can disappear with time and under given circumstances. That is why, it is essentially important to recognize the problem, and try to work it out.

2.1.2. Teacher's Role in Class

Woods (1996) raises a problematic issue that is central to effective language learning: the role of the teacher, stating that research should shift towards focusing on “the classroom setting in which formal learning is taking place” (p.3). Because of the significant effects of teaching strategies on learning and language learning in particular, research should continuously investigate them and try to enlighten teachers with other strategies and techniques which would help teachers and students alike. According to Scrivener (1994), there is not “an ideal methodology” (p.1). Rather, the teacher should try to adapt his beliefs and knowledge to the classroom circumstances.

The significant implication of the role the teacher performs in the classroom is undeniable especially as far as the general management of the classroom is concerned. Oxford (1990) puts it clear that:

Teachers can exert a tremendous influence over the emotional atmosphere of the classroom in three different ways: by changing the social structure of the classroom to give students more responsibility, by providing increased amounts of naturalistic communication, and by changing learners to use affective strategies. (pp.140-141).

Indeed, the teacher is the classroom manager, and his personality and conceptions about the nature of language learning (LL) can greatly influence the general atmosphere of the classroom. According to Cox and Heames (1999) “for the tutor, managing the learning environment involves much thought and planning about helping individuals to come together as a cohesive group or set of groups. Group dynamics are very influential in the progress and achievements of the group” (p.8).

The pedagogical role of the teacher has been subject to change throughout time, and with the communicative approach, it has been redefined. This new role of the teacher is the result of the findings about the learner and the learning process. In fact, learning is not always the direct and automatic result of teaching. Rather, other factors can have considerable influence on learning outcomes. It is partly for this reason that “teachers in modern classrooms are no longer lecturers, they are facilitators, their main task is to set goals and organize the learning process accordingly” (Szűcs, 2009, p. 4). So, he is no more than a guide and facilitator (Atkinson, 2003), and teachers’ practices in class can be greatly determined by students’ beliefs about the language they are studying (Bernat & Gvosdenko, 2005). Moreover, the teacher “takes on the roles of resource person, coach, and co-participant, encouraging the students to be meaningful, comprehensible, and supportive in their work together” (Pica, 2005, p. 339). In the same vein, the teacher is in class to teach but according to scrivener (1994) “the teacher’s most important job might be to ‘create the conditions in which learning can take place’” (p.9). The teacher, then, is faced with a double job. His suggestions, of course, have been a subject of investigation for decades of research. Sometimes, however, this task is the most difficult and may take time more than teaching actually takes. What makes the job difficult is the personality of the teacher himself. Some teachers may not be ready for that at all and argue that they are, here, just to pass knowledge to other people. Even those teachers who are ready to do that “need certain organizational

skills and techniques” (Scrivener, 1994, p.9). Finally, we conclude this part of the discussion about the possible roles of the teacher within communicative language teaching (CLT) by quoting Littlewood (2003) who cites some possible roles of the teacher:

- ❖ General observer of his students’ learning.
- ❖ Classroom manager.
- ❖ The familiar role of language instructor.
- ❖ Advisor.
- ❖ Communicator. (pp.92-93)

Being a good teacher does not require linguistic knowledge, but also demands a talent that enables him/her to make students ready for acquiring that knowledge. Scrivener (1994) calls this “classroom management” and states that “The essential basic skill for classroom management is therefore to be able to recognize *options* available to you, to make appropriate decisions between these options, and to turn them into effective and efficient actions” (p.9). The teacher, then, should be the master of the classroom; he observes, makes options, decides and finally acts. Of course, this extra job is not expected from every one for new teachers need some time before they actually engage in those deeds. Once in the classroom, the teacher is continuously faced with options and has to make decisions. For this reason, he/she should make the right decision at the appropriate time. One wrong action might bring about catastrophic consequences.

The teacher, then, should be highly concerned with TLP and does everything available to improve it. By improvement, we mean in the first place, loving teaching and trying to do the task from heart and not just doing the job ordinarily. This can be the basic thing, and once this is achieved, the rest would naturally follow. When something is heartily done, the best results would be obtained. Nonetheless, the thing that we are actually concerned with is the methods and techniques of teaching in addition to the content (syllabus). Teachers of SS in

Algeria are more or less restricted in the sense that they have no right to go beyond the text books because everything is there: what and how to teach with the result that no real space is available for further creation (Appendix 3). The latter, however, can still be reached through other ways. Basing on that, it would be quite easy to detect *good* from *bad* teachers if we can really use the two labels. The teacher is absolutely not a robot that imitates everything word-for-word. No matter the degree of restriction to which she/he is subjected, he can leave his/her personal touch in everything done in class and with his/her learners no matter what materials are available.

It is true that the role of the teacher in class has changed from the one who is responsible for TLP to just a guide and facilitator; but this does not mean that he does care whether learning takes place or not. Woolfolk (2004) has focused on efficacy in teaching in much of her research; she defines teaching efficacy as “a teacher’s belief that he or she can reach even difficult students to help them learn” (p.370). Part of the teacher's efforts should be directed towards raising his students' motivation, and trying out new techniques and methods that can make the learning process more enjoyable and interesting and try not to “approach teaching with a novice mindset” (Jackson, 2009, p.24).

2.2. Learner

It is believed that the learner is the most important element in TLP. In fact, the learner is the focus of everything and all turns around him/her. Now, anatomy of the learner is in itself a big study because so many things are to be said about this issue. Jarvis (2006) reports that much “emphasis in contemporary education has been on learning and the learner, although concerns about teaching have continued to surface. A great deal of emphasis in contemporary education has been on learning and the learner, although concerns about teaching have continued to surface” (p.17). The learner is a complex element, and deserves

further studies. For instance, Opp-Beckman and Klinghammer (2006) classify learners into four categories: active and reflective learners, sensing and intuitive learners, visual and verbal learners, and sequential and global learners. Each category requires further consideration and account.

In fact, it is of paramount importance to draw teachers' attention to some factors that they have to take into account while teaching. According to Taylor (2009), "gender, age, L1 and national identity shape language use" (p. 145). To begin with, the learner's age is what apparently tells about many things including: his/her learning capacities, and her/his possible reaction to the external world...etc. In the field of psychology and psycho-pedagogy, scholars (Piaget, 1959) study the learner at various ages and give insightful results about that. Of course, this is important on the basis that the same teachers can teach at various levels where the learners' ages are not the same. So he/she has to be equipped with a set of information to find solutions to all kinds of problems. As far as gender is concerned, no real differences exist between male and female learners.

The role of the learner, however, has equally changed but in the opposite direction. That is to say, he/she has become the first responsible for the learning process. CLT has redefined the role of both the teacher and the learner. As far as the latter's role is concerned, sharp differences are noticed in comparison with the traditional one when the learner was merely a passive receiver of knowledge. This is the reason why, characteristics of the new role have to be clarified for the sake of carrying out the learning process in the most appropriate and effective way.

2.2.1 Learning Styles and Language Learning Strategies

Not all students learn the same way. Everyone is supposed to adopt the way that mostly suits him, and with which he would feel more comfortable (Pritchard, 2009). The way

or approach of learning is called learning style (LS). LLS constitute another complex concept that actually requires further clarification. Before the discussion is carried on, it is important to draw a distinction between LS and LLS. Wallace (1991) explains the differences between LLS, and LS:

...People have different attitudes to learning and their own individual ways of learning. Where these are unconscious, or an integral part of the learner's personality, we have called them *learning styles*. However, there is evidence that people can also have considerable control over which style of learning they use in particular situations, so it might be more appropriate to focus on the idea of *learning strategies*. (p.28)

Likewise, Cohen (2003) makes a distinction between LS and LLS stating that styles "are general approaches to language learning, while strategies are specific behaviors that learners select in their language learning and use" (p.279).

The following quotations summarize the researchers' definitions for LS:

- "The term 'learning style' has been used to describe an individual's natural, habitual, and preferred way of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills" (Lightbown & Spada, 2006, p. 59).
- Brown (2000) defines them as "general characteristics that differentiate one individual from another; strategies are those specific "attacks" that we make on a given problem" (p.122).
- "Learning style is an overall pattern that provides broad direction to learning and makes the same instructional method beloved by some students and hated by others" (Oxford, 2003, p. 273).
- "Learning style is defined variously as:
 - _ a particular way in which an individual learns;
 - _ a mode of learning – an individual's preferred or best manner(s) in which to think, process information and demonstrate learning;
 - _ an individual's preferred means of acquiring knowledge and skills;

_ habits, strategies, or regular mental behaviours concerning learning, particularly deliberate educational learning, that an individual displays”. (Pritchard, 2009, p. 41)

LLS are the main focus of much research in the field of language learning. Scholars have long recognized that strategy use is important for language learning (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997; Ehrman, Leaver & Oxford, 2003; Oxford, 1989; Rubin, 1975; cited in Parks & Rymond, 2004). Various definitions and classifications have been provided. For this reason, it is found more practical to organize them in a list, so LLS are:

- “concerned with how learners use their brains consciously and purposefully to handle their learning and make it more effective” (Fox and Matthews ,1991; as cited in Bull & Ma, 2001, p.173).
- “those processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language, through the storage, retention, recall, and application of information about that language” (Cohen,1998; as cited in Gass & Selinker, 2008, p.439);
- “ the conscious thoughts and actions that learners take in order to achieve a learning goal” (Chamot, 2004, p. 14);
- “specific actions, behaviors, steps, techniques [or thoughts] – such as seeking out conversation partners, or giving oneself encouragement to tackle a difficult language task – used by students to enhance their own learning” (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992; cited in Oxford, 2003, p. 274);
- “the conscious or semi-conscious thoughts and behaviors used by learners with the explicit goal of improving their knowledge and understanding of a target language” (Cohen, 2003,p. 280).
- “learning processes which are consciously selected by the learner. The element of *choice* is important here because this is what gives a strategy its special character.

These are also moves which the learner is at least partially aware of, even if full attention is not being given to them” (Cohen, 1990; cited in Cohen & Weaver, 1998, p.1).

O’Malley et al. (1985) explain the confusion about the exact and true components of a learning strategy, and the inter-relatedness of some learning and teaching activities; they put it:

There is no consensus on what constitutes a learning strategy in second language learning or how these differ from other types of learner activities. Learning, teaching and communication strategies are often interlaced in discussions of language learning and are often applied to the same behaviour. Further, even within the group of activities most often referred to as learning strategies, there is considerable confusion about definitions of specific strategies and about the hierarchic relationship among strategies. (p.22)

A variety of classification methods are associated with LLS. Three main categories are discussed in the literature:

1. **Meta-cognitive strategies:** The role of metacognition in learning is extremely big in the sense that “individuals can be taught to regulate their behaviors, and these regulatory activities enable self-monitoring and executive control of one’s performance” (Bransford, Brown & Cocking, 1999; as cited in rivers, 2001, p. 279). In fact, effective learning involves continuous thinking about all that revolves around the learning process and its various components (Pinter, 2006). According to Anderson (2003), language acquisition can be achieved more appropriately if the learner is equipped with some meta-cognitive knowledge (this includes knowledge about LLS) that would enable him to manipulate his own learning. Metacognitive knowledge about strategies is defined as “understanding when and where to apply strategies and the gains produced by strategies when used” (McCormick & Pressley, 1997; cited in Carrier, 2003, p. 388). Chamot and O’Malley (1994) over-estimate meta-cognitive strategies and assume that persons may not have the capacity of using strategies in an effective way though they possess some declarative

knowledge about this mental operation. One reason for this inability to maintain and transfer strategies is that the learner may not have developed the necessary meta-cognitive knowledge about the strategy. Equally important is the thing that talking about the various LLS and the ways of applying may encourage learners and if learners are convinced that when they use such a strategy, they will surely succeed, then they would be willing to try them (Chamot & Rubin, 1994; cited in Rubin, Chamot, Harris & Anderson, 2007).

The following table demonstrates the various stages of the meta-cognitive cycle

<p>Before: Planning stage</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● What do we have to do here? ● Have we done this before? ● How can we build on what we already know? ● How many ideas have we got to start with? ● Which shall we do first?
<p>During: Monitoring stage</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● How are we doing so far? ● Have we got enough time? ● Do we have to change our plan? ● Have we got a problem? ● How can we sort out the problem or get help?
<p>After: Evaluating stage</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● What did we learn? ● What did we enjoy about this project and why? ● What did we find easy or difficult and why? ● How can we do it better next time?

Table 1: The Meta-cognitive Cycle (Pinter, 2006, p.108)

2. Observable and non-observable strategies: Chamot (2004) claims that there are two types of strategies: observable and non-observable. An example of the former type is taking notes. Non-observable strategies are equally discussed by Chamot, Dale, O'Malley and Spanos (1992); examples of this type include: “monitoring comprehension or activating

prior knowledge” (p. 14). Chamot (2004) further continues the discussion by asserting that the only way to know whether any learning strategies are exploited by students is to ask them.

- Oxford (1990) classifies indirect learning strategies into three: Meta-cognitive, Affective and Social. In the affective strategies, she emphasizes the importance of motivation as an essential feature of language learning as well as self-esteem, attitudes, anxiety, etc. She argues that “the affective side of the learner is probably one of the biggest influences on language learning success or failure” (p. 140). It should be emphasized that training students to use some social strategies in order to increase their motivation is not as easy as it might appear to be. Oxford (1990) raises the issue of the existing prior knowledge and its lasting effect. This can be an obstacle to learners. In other words, “if learners are brought up all their lives to prefer particular learning strategies...they may not be highly motivated to drop these preferences and instantly learn a new set of strategies” (Oxford, 1990, p.207).

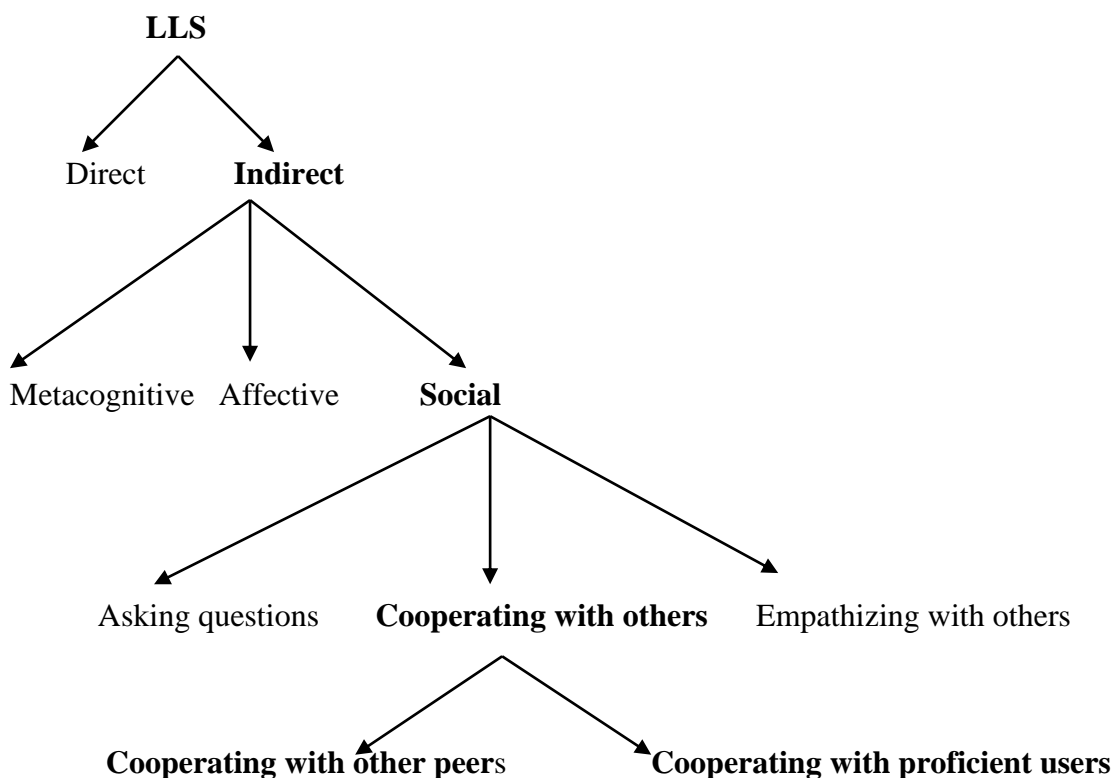


Figure 4: LLS (as classified by Oxford, 1990)

LLS are an essential part of any learning task. Strategies of all types include: “clarification, verification, analyzing, monitoring, memorizing, guessing, deductive versus inductive reasoning, emphasizing one thing over another, and practice and production “tricks” (Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 440). Strategies can influence the learning of different tasks whether simple or more complex. Furthermore, they help the learner to achieve proficiency. In fact, “the relationship between language learning strategies and the student’s proficiency level is far clearer. More proficient language learners use a greater variety and often a greater number of learning strategies” (Chamot, 2004, p. 18). Moreover, by developing some meta-cognitive strategies, learners will have some knowledge about both what and how the subject matter has been learnt (Carroll & Wilson, 1993). In addition, Rubin (1987, as cited in Su, 2005) also highlighted the big contribution of LLS to the language system and its components.

One of the problems that actually arise is concerned with teachers’ motivation and readiness for including strategy training as part of the course itself. It is probably no easy thing to convince all teachers to introduce strategy training in their course. Obstacles like: lack of interest, absence of a specific way for implementing such a training, and lack of motivation in students themselves can constitute a real problem for such an initiative. This issue is, in fact, a matter of debate among scholars each demonstrating his point of view. In this respect, Woods (1996) advocates teaching students strategies of learning which he calls “meta-learning” that is “learning how to learn” (p. 189). Another argument is that learning strategies can be too abstract for students to fully grasp. It is partly for this reason that teachers are asked to “model how strategies can be used for a particular task to make them as concrete as possible” (Rubin, Chamot, Harris & Anderson, 2007, p. 144).

2.2.2 Affective Side

Another issue that actually deserves highlighting is the teachers' concern with the pupils' affective side. By the latter, we mean good self-esteem, self-dependence, autonomy, higher motivation, interaction, etc. It is believed that the affective side is as important as the linguistic one and the teacher's role is to develop both sides and try to find new ways and techniques to reach the predefined objectives. Research (Oxford, 1999) reports that the psychological side of the learner has a direct effect on his linguistic achievement. Dewaele (2005) argues that "focus on affect and emotion among researchers might inspire authors of teaching materials and foreign language teachers to pay increased attention to the communication of emotion and the development of socio-cultural competence in a L2" (p.367). For instance, Onwugbuzie, Bailey and Daley, (2000) considered anxiety "as among the most important affective predictors of foreign language achievement" (p. 88). The traditional view of teaching is that the teacher, who is the main actor in the classroom, sends knowledge to his pupils without actually involving them in the process of teaching. Within CLT, this view has, of course, radically changed and moved towards concentrating more on the learner and considering him the main focus of the whole process. This is not all; there is a tendency towards prioritizing the affective side of the learner including: forbidding beating, or saying words that can hurt his feeling. Affect with all its components plays a major role in the success of learning. Research (Oxford, 1990) report that if the affective side of the learner is taken into consideration, learning is fostered.

2.2.2.1. Motivation

Motivation is considered as a complex notion (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005), and it is defined as "... an internal state or condition (sometimes described as a need, desire, or want) that serves to activate or energize behaviour and give it direction" (Kleinginna & Kleinginna,

1981, cited in Hudson & Hramiak, 2011, p.96). Gardner (1985, cited in Noels, Clément & Pelletier, 1999, p. 23) defines motivation as “the combination of effort and desire to achieve the goal of teaching the language”. It follows that effort and desire are essential elements for building motivation.

Motivation, being a complex component, has always been considered by scholars as an essential aspect of TLP. Noels, Clément and Pelletier (1999), for instance, consider motivation “a key ingredient” for the success of second language teaching. In the same vein, Woods, (1996) in a study to explore teachers’ background, assumptions and knowledge (BAK), views motivation from two standpoints. From the first point of view, motivation is seen as the means that leads to learning, and from the second viewpoint it is the end (final goal) itself. Similarly, Oxford (1990) emphasizes the importance of motivation as an essential feature of language learning as well as self-esteem, attitudes, anxiety, etc. She argues that “the affective side of the learner is probably one of the biggest influences on language learning success or failure” (p. 140). In the same vein, Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant, and Mihic (2004) emphasize motivation as “one variable important in second language acquisition” (p. 2).

Success in L2/FL learning is, no doubt, a matter of a cluster of elements. The learning situation plays a good part in fostering students’ motivation as well as enhancing their academic achievement. So, “a negative attitude towards the target language or its speakers, or the other members of the class, may also affect one’s determination and persistence to be involved in the classroom and its activities” (Steinberg & Sciarini, 2006, p. 130). In discussing the possible sources of motivation, Skehan (1989) argues that “one such source might be the learning activity itself. (The intrinsic hypothesis). In such cases the stimulus for motivation would be the inherent interest of learning, because classrooms or learning situations might be attractive places in themselves” (P.49). According to Lewis (2002), “school policy, the textbook, and a national curriculum all influence the way students feel

about language learning in general and about learning English in particular” (p.41). In addition, external motivation is the most prevalent type of motivation used not only in classrooms, but also in the world at large (Erwin, 2004, p. 6).

In a study carried out by Woods (1996) about teachers’ BAK in English as a second language (ESL) contexts, all teachers seemed to agree that motivation is a crucial issue in learning only that their views about the source of motivation and especially the role of the teacher, if any, in motivating students differed. He reports some teachers' views relating that a teacher said that her role in class was not to motivate the learners but to teach them. On the other hand, another teacher saw motivating students as part of her job. Woolfolk (2004) reports that “most teachers agree that motivating students is one of the critical tasks of teaching” (p. 349). Accordingly, any good teacher will primarily worry about any possible strategies for raising his students’ motivation. Hopefully, educational psychology provides teachers with various techniques to achieve better results via motivating students.

In the discussion of the place of motivation in L2 and FL learning, it has been made clear via arguments, given by many researchers, that unless students are motivated to learn a given language, their performance in it would be rather poor. Here, the question arises as to the possible sources of motivation. Put it another way, what motivates students to learn a given language? This question is in fact not easy to answer for there is no agreement as to the exact sources of motivation. In favor of this view, McDonough (1986) argues that “teachers may disagree, however, in their estimates of the proportion which is contributed by the students themselves and the proportion which is contributed by the teacher’s own actions and the activities making up the language instruction” (p.148). Therefore, it is necessary to make attempts for the sake of determining the contribution of every element of the learning process in raising and enhancing learners' motivation. In the same vein, McDonough (1986) carries on saying that “so it is important to attempt to find out some acceptable answer to the

question of relative contribution, because the designers of future language instruction (both materials writers and trainers of teachers) need to know what aspects of motivation are amenable to manipulation and when and where and how” (p.148). Motivating students, then, will depend, in the first place, on teachers’ beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge about learning and teaching. This leads to say that though there has been a shift towards more focus on the learner, the teacher’s role is still weighty.

2.2.2.2. Self-esteem

Another complex issue in the process of teaching and learning is self-esteem. By the latter, it is meant the ways the pupils or students look at themselves as far as learning and other aspects of life are concerned. Here, we are mainly concerned with learning and how it can be greatly affected by self-esteem (Woolfolk 2004). For a variety of reasons, learners can deeply believe that they cannot learn a particular thing and that it is impossible to succeed in a particular module. This can be felt either through the learner’s behavior or it is openly stated. This negative view towards what one can or cannot do is very dangerous, and it is very possible that terrible effects would follow. The reasons for this situation are many and varied. Some incidents at school in which the pupils are humiliated, for instance, for not accomplishing a given task or a failure in a particular module can make the learner believe that his/her capacities are limited and that he/she would not be able to do this again. This situation, if not taken into account and not well treated, would result in serious psychological injury to the learner. And later on, even if he/she likes something, and wants to succeed in it, there would always be obstacles that actually forbids him/her and hinders what he/she wants to do.

Though parents can quickly interfere and make serious attempts to solve the problems, it is believed that big part of the job should be carried out by the teacher himself/herself. In

class, it is the teacher who is continuously observing his/her pupils; thus, he can easily evaluate the learners and raise their self esteem in case of any problems. Regarding his role in class, the teacher can raise or lower the learner's self-esteem. Of course, there are various ways for doing so, and the good teacher is the one who knows what to do, how and when. It is partly for this reason that we have argued that the role of the teacher is always big and considerable.

In fact, issues like self-esteem, interaction, motivation are complementary and interwoven; they cannot, in fact, be separated from one another, or even raising one without affecting the others. We would simply say that interaction boosts self-esteem for learning, and if learning takes place, learners' self-esteem would be raised.

2.2.3 Autonomy

Autonomy is one of the aspects of learning that came to the scene in the twentieth century. Briefly, it means that "pupils will have a greater say in what they do and how they do it" (Grenfell, 2000, p.18). One should not, however; think that autonomy means the total absence of the teacher and that learners take decision in every situation. Rather, "the teacher provides the framework around which learning is organized and makes materials and resources available that will enable the pupils to carry out their talks" (Grenfell, 2000, p.18). According to Rogers (1983; as cited in Brundrett & Silock, 2002), the learner is like the woman who is going to give birth to her baby, and the teacher is like the midwife who is there just to help and guide. No doubt, such a step requires some teaching professionals to adopt the process because its failures or success should be the result of many efforts put together.

Of course, we cannot talk about autonomous learning at all levels of study and with all learners no matter their ages. To some extent, autonomous learning means that learners depend on themselves in learning and use special strategies to manage to do that. In reality, it

is worth to know which category of learners try to be autonomous and which do not. This can be absolutely useful for teachers. Normally, teachers should encourage autonomous learning on the basis that “learning should empower a student to become ... free, mature, and authentic” (Savin-Baden & Major, 2004; cited in Loyens, Magda & Rikers, 2008, p.414). Likewise, “Self-regulated participants were capable of solving problems independently, identifying trouble sources, initiating revision, and providing scaffolding, as well as displaying an attitude of self-confidence in terms of content, language use, tasks, and procedures” (Villamil & Guerrero, 2006, p. 27). Moreover, Nenninger (1999) reports that “Montessori (1913) emphasized the child's ability to solve learning tasks independently ("polarisation of attention") if stimulated by a carefully prepared environment” (p. 72). So, all teachers need to know why this kind of learning is useful and how they can foster it. Of course, things are not as easy as one might think i.e. the learner is not just what we have been talking about , but at least some ambiguous issues have been more or less clarified.

2.3. Learning Atmosphere

When we talk about TLP, we probably focus more on the teacher and the learner on the basis that they are the most important elements: one is the giver and the other is the receiver. Nonetheless, these two elements may not succeed in their jobs unless a good atmosphere of learning is available. The latter is essential for successful teaching and learning and it is a matter of many factors put together. Camenson (2007) reports that:

There are certain factors in the teaching profession that can lead to stress. Some of these include handling discipline problems in the classroom; meeting a new class for the first time; overcrowded classrooms; deadlines for grading papers or handing in exam scores; and inadequate materials or facilities. (p.11)

The exact causes and sources of bad behavior, for instance, are unfortunately difficult, if not impossible, to identify. Supporting this view, Wilson (2004) clearly states that “the factors contributing towards pupils’ behavior in class are complex and that unidimensional

explanations are not helpful” (p.39). About the same issue, Alan (2007) provides three tips for minimizing learners’ unacceptable behavior. This can be achieved if the teacher:

- aims to personalise the learning for each student and identifies the most appropriate learning style;
 - supports and challenges students as well as planning activities and content which are interesting;
 - monitors and recognises progress based on well developed assessment strategies.
- (p.74)

In fact, a certain number of conditions can foster learning including: “plenty of opportunities for learners to participate in class and an atmosphere in which they feel motivated to learn” (Davies & Pearse, 2000, p.12). Likewise, Pinter (2006, p.10) considers “the social environment, the cultural context, and in particular the influence of peers, teachers, and parents engaged in interactions with children” outstanding factors of learning enhancement. A good relationship should exist between the teacher and his learners. One should not understand this as friendship but at least a kind of respect on behalf of the learners and love from the teacher. This way, we would obtain a kind of relationship that leads to better results. Obviously, reaching such conditions is the responsibility of everyone: the teacher himself, the parents and the administrative staff. Recently, the ministry of education decreed some laws that define and regulate some of the pupils’ rights including: no beating or insulting. But this is a debatable issue. Theoretically, it puts into consideration the pupils’ affective side by raising their self-esteem. However, in reality, we observe that pupils and parents are trying to profit from it the maximum by committing mistakes and most of the time insulting teachers, and they know that they are somehow protected by these laws. Normally, this kind of laws should create a good atmosphere of learning and protect both the pupil and teacher.

3. Teacher/Learner Relationship

One important aspect in academic learning is the teacher/learner relationship. By the latter, we mean the way the teacher deals with the learners and how they react. This aspect is believed to be extremely important and research should give much more importance to it. The traditional concept of learning is: a place where the teacher meets his learners and passes some knowledge to them and everything stops here. It is reported that the relationship between the teacher and the learner greatly affects learning outcomes (Liberante, 2012). Of course, this is not always true, for some learners just do not care about their teachers or what they think about them. I am not saying that this is good but at least some learners are by nature like that. What concerns us more is the category of learners who care much about their teachers, the way they look at them and what they think about them. Negative feedback (NF), for instance, proved to immensely affect learning (Erturan-İlker, 2014). Repeated insults and menace for lower grades and bad marks can be very dangerous in the sense that it can make them believe that they are not competent enough and thus they would probably fail.

Motivation is essential for teachers for the success of TLP, and its absence can cause real problems to them in the classroom. The latter can comprise pupils with various mentalities, and with different social and linguistic backgrounds. Some are motivated to learn foreign languages and others are absolutely not. That is the reason why the teacher is always advised to read a lot about research and its results about language learning and teaching. The reality in the Algerian context is bitter. Most of the time, our teachers seem to be fighting a battle in which the enemy is their pupils. The problem is serious, and it is important to know the reasons first. This situation can be due to many factors. In the first place, most teachers and especially the novice ones ignore the real nature of TLP, and how the classroom should look like. The latter is not an arena where one of the fighters is doomed to die. On the contrary, the two sides have to co-exist in order to succeed, each reaching his goal, and if one

side is defeated then, the whole process is going to be a real failure. In fact, things may not be so complicated, and simple tips can really help. For this reason, teachers should not give up from the first attempt, nor should they be stubborn.

Teachers should put in mind that trust and *not fear* is the kind of relationship that should exist between the teacher and the learner. So, the following task is how to establish trust. We would say that relations like: trust, love, respect, motivation for learning are necessary for the success of both teaching and learning. But at the same time, they are difficult to establish. For this reason and others, we can safely say that teaching is one of the most difficult jobs, and its success requires a lot of effort and sacrifice.

Considering the issue of teachers' pedagogical knowledge, we would say that the latter should not be concerned just with the information about the subject matter, but also with rich knowledge about how to deal with pupils. This kind of knowledge is as important as the former, because spending time giving information without being sure whether it would be acquired or not is non-sense. Another problem is that some teachers may not be convinced that this is necessary at all. The majority of experienced teachers claim that severity is necessary for the success of teaching, and that trying to talk to the pupils and discuss some subjects with them may be misunderstood by them; they might think that they are free to do anything they want which can result in the failure of TLP.

In conclusion, reaching the stage of effective teaching is no easy thing. And great effort has to be shown for it. Effective teaching does not only mean being punctual. Of course, coming on time and leaving the classroom also on time is important, but there are far more important factors. Choosing the appropriate techniques for teaching such or such an aspect is the secret of success. Moreover, knowing how to motivate the learners and push them forward can be of great benefit to them. In fact, it does not very much matter how much time the teacher spends with his pupils as to what happens once in the classroom. One may spend two

or three sessions with one teacher without learning anything; whereas the same person may learn so many things during just one session for another one. Of course, the teacher is not to be blamed for everything, but at least his role is tremendous.

3.1. Interaction

Interaction can be defined as the reaction between the teacher and his/her learners or between the learners themselves. In fact, interaction is seen “as a prime source of data for the study of language learning” (Brouwer, 2003, p. 534). It is mainly based on negotiation which is defined as “an activity through which L2 learners and interlocutors work together linguistically to repair or resolve impasses in communication and come to an understanding of each other’s message meaning” (Pica, 1996, p. 4). Its most common form is sharing ideas and exchanging what every side actually needs through conversations which “are important since they require attentiveness and involvement on the part of learners. By conversing, they can practise adapting vocabulary and grammar to a particular situation and making their own contributions to the conversation comprehensible” (Judd, Tan, & Walberg, 2001, p. 8). In this vein, Stevick (1980) states that “success depends less on materials, techniques, and linguistic analyses, and more on what goes on inside and between the people in the classroom” (cited in Inceçay, 2011, p.128).

Secondary school teachers in Algeria are often complaining about their pupils’ level (see appendix 1). Some of them say that the level is on the wane. Others; however, claim that pupils are more and more becoming difficult to deal with. But, do our teachers ask themselves about the causes of the previous phenomena? If they do, this is the first step towards solving the problem. The following step is recognizing the importance of dialogue between the teacher and the learner. Dialogues establish strong links between the two sides and this leads to creating and establish a strong basis of trust. In fact, the advantages of the latter are great.

Of course, this is just one point of view, for others believe that the kind of relationship that should exist between the teacher and the learner is something else. There must be a kind of seriousness that would characterize the relationship between the two, so that learners fear the teacher and unquestionably follow his/her instructions. Also, you can never know what is going on inside the learners' mind because he/she may not tell everything and not even the truth. Establishing trust may work better than fear and especially so far as communicating their problems and pedagogical preoccupations is concerned. Changing views are slowly starting to influence teachers.

One part of the problem can be solved by the teacher/learner interaction. Psychologically speaking, interaction can make the learner feel at ease thus, creating a good atmosphere for learning (Liberante, 2012). Obviously, we are talking about positive interaction in the sense that the teacher uses such ways as praises and sharing the learners their preoccupations whether related to their studies or about extra issues. By doing that, the learner sees no embarrassment asking questions in case he does not understand anything whatsoever. Therefore, the teacher can easily, if interested and he has to be, discover whether learning is taking place, or he is just wasting his/her time. On the other hand, interaction can be negative. Here, the teacher talks and shares something with the learners, but in a negative way. In this case, no confidence is established between the two sides resulting in the failure of TLP.

According to Littlewood (2003), the classroom is a social context where students and the teacher interact with each other. He clearly states that "the classroom is...a real social context in its own right, where learners and teacher enter into equally real social relationships with each other" (p.44). This social interaction between them is then continuous and can take so many forms such as: asking and answering questions, giving instructions, expressing demands,... etc. however, when it comes to using FL, the classroom is considered as an

artificial context in which situations for using the language are created for the sake of preparing learners to the real outside contexts. Nonetheless, teachers “should go beyond simple language drills to create opportunities for meaningful interaction in the classroom by using activities in which students employ natural language examples in real language situations” (Judd, Tan & Walberg, 2001, p. 8). Now, the way teachers can manage to make the link between these two contexts is a core question. Littlewood (2003) claims that “the usefulness of language learning does not depend only on what specific pieces of language the learner encounters. Still more, it depends on whether he masters the more general principles which underlie them” (p.44). He further explains that learners acquire a given number of rules explained in one or more situations and he/she is supposed to apply them later in other contexts. Littlewood (2003.) emphasizes the issue of maintaining the classroom as a social context and claims that when teachers use his/her learners’ mother tongue when he/she communicates with them, he unconsciously minimizes the value of FL and deprives students of so many real contexts for using the target language (TL). In his words, “it also means scarifying valuable opportunities for well-motivated foreign language use” (p.45). Littlewood (2003, p.45) names four principles for making the classroom a social context:

1. Using the foreign language for classroom management.
2. Using the foreign language as a teaching medium.
3. Conversation or discussion sessions.
4. Basing dialogues and role-plays on school experiences.

3.1.1. Forms of Interaction

Hadadi, Abbasib and Goodarzi (2014) report that within CLT, much more importance was bestowed to proficiency in the language via using it in real-life situations. Of course, we are not saying that interaction automatically means fostered learning, but it helps the learners

to feel at ease while learning, and therefore, they would analyze the material better and grasp it rapidly. According to Oliver (2002), “a learner’s L2 proficiency influences the amount of negotiation that occurs” (p. 99), and that “negotiation for meaning appears to be affected by the age of the participants and their inherent differences” (Oliver, 2002, p. 98).

Interaction has many forms. *Talking with the learner* is the simplest and most known form of interaction and it has a number of positive effects on learning. Talking to the learner includes: asking them about the lessons themselves and whether there are things that they do not understand, or about extra topics that are of interest to the learner. This can be highly beneficial. This does not mean that they have to become friends, for such a situation can have terrible effects. The perfect case is that the learner puts in mind that whenever he feels the need to talk about something, or even if he has a serious problem, the teacher is there to provide him with the advice he needs. This can assure the learner and leads him to care more about the lessons.

In fact, a distinction should be made between interaction during the lesson itself, and interaction outside the classroom. The former is part of the lesson itself and its absence means that its implementation can be a failure. Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill and Pincas (1980) shed light on this obscure corner of TLP and maintain that “when teaching...the teacher has to think very carefully about the most appropriate ways of enabling *every* pupil to participate as fully as possible in the lesson” (p.180).

3.1.2. Benefits of Interaction

The importance of interaction varies according to learners’ age, but at all ages it is beneficial and fruitful. So far, we have been discussing positive interaction. Negative interaction also exists and it has the opposite effects. This kind of interaction is *activated* when the teacher and the learner are at odds. Of course, the teacher does not say “I am going

to interact positively or negatively”, but it is the way interaction is undertaken, what is said in it and how it ends that gives it the appropriate label. Interaction, then, is another aspect of TLP and it is considered as the basis for other things.

It is true that some learners can learn and succeed without interacting with their teachers, but still interaction is important and is of great benefits to them (Choudhury, 2005). The benefits of interaction are not only at the level of learning, but also at other levels. It can equally contribute to the learners’ social life and helps them in integrating in society and knowing how to react with all people as well as solve the various social problems. For This reason, it is of paramount importance that teachers try to interact with their students and talk to them as long as possible.

In fact, the advantages of interaction are great, Lightbown and Spada (2006) report that “Evelyn Hatch (1978), Michael Long (1983, 1996), Teresa Pica (1994), and Susan Gass (1997) argue that conversational interaction is an essential, if not sufficient, condition for second language acquisition” (p. 43). It contributes both to the affective and linguistic side. In a nutshell, interaction fosters learning, and makes the pupil feel at ease because he/she keeps in mind that there is someone to talk to him whenever necessary, or just to discuss some related issues.

3.2. Impact of the Teacher on Learners

When we talk about the teacher, there are so many things to say. His impact on his learners can be great (Furrer, Skinner & Pitzer, n.d.). The kind of effect teachers can have on their learners depends on many factors. In the first place, the character of the teacher himself and his manner of behaving in the classroom, whether with the learners themselves or other colleagues. It is worth mentioning that pupils and especially children are good learners and can excellently memorize everything they see or hear. The second important factor is the

learners' readiness for influence. Obviously, not all pupils are ready to be influenced by the same degree. This again is a matter of many things including pupils' attention in class, his concentration on what the teacher is saying or doing...etc. The other factor is the general atmosphere in the classroom and whether it encourages any kind of interaction or not. Coming back to the teacher as a source of PK, it is considered as a valuable reference if well exploited. Of course, it has been noted before that PK includes information, skills and various techniques of teaching. Research reports that a considerable number of teachers are influenced by their teachers' ways of teaching and others unconsciously find themselves teach, more or less the same way their teachers used to do. In fact, it is no easy thing to fully understand TLP and the more research is done, the more secrets are unveiled.

So, the effects can be at the level of their manners, dressing, way of speaking, etc. In a nutshell, the teacher is a model that is rather imitated. Research equally raises the issue of imitating teachers in their ways of teaching, and it is found that a good percentage of teachers teach the same way their idol teachers used to do. So, the impact of the teacher is great.

4. Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL)

Technology is another issue that has to be raised when discussing TLP. The term technology, according to Shama and Barrett (2007), "covers a wide range of recent technologies, such as the internet, CD-ROMs and interactive whiteboards" (p.7). Computers and other technological media are becoming necessary for both teaching and learning. This is basically due to the fact that:

The nature of literacy is also continually changing.... The tools of literacy are changing rapidly as new forms of Internet communication technology (ICT) are created, including (at the time of writing) bulletin boards, Web editors, blogs, virtual worlds, and social networking sites.... (The IRA-NCTE joint Task Force on Assessment, 2010, p. 4)

The use of technology additionally includes using the internet. By the latter, the learner can download the various programs of language learning in order to strengthen their linguistic level in addition to what they are taught academically. According to Hismanoğlu, (2010), “when adopted and integrated into learning and teaching properly, the internet may help to change the traditional teaching methods into more modern approach” (p.106). Leu (2002) points out that “the Internet has entered our classrooms faster than books, television, computers, the telephone, or any other technology for information and communication” (cited in Anderson, 2003, pp. 2-3)

CALL is a learning method that consists of learning a language by using computers and other technological devices. Research reports that it is beneficial and fruitful. For instance, Anderson (2003) maintains that “teachers in many parts of the world want to be able to expose learners to authentic language on the topics they are learning about in the language classroom. The internet has become a very useful tool for accomplishing that purpose” (p. 4). Of course, the reasons are many and varied, but no matter what the reasons are, research is always trying to find new ways and techniques for encouraging learning. This is the reason why teachers are asked to read a lot about the results of research in the field language teaching and learning.

Turula (2010) states that “if our students – digital natives – already exist and function successfully in virtual reality we should educate them in their natural environment instead of trying to invite them to lessons in our world” (cited in Prizel-kania , 2015, p. 2778). For this reason, all teachers are asked to try to introduce technology in their career for the sake of obtaining better results. According to Pop (2015), “the integration of new technologies into the educational process has opened the way...to the rethinking of the pedagogical methods, strategies and resources used in the teaching, learning and assessment process” (p. 325). It is true that some would say that the use of technology in teaching is an affair of the Ministry of

National Education which provides the schools with the necessary media, but the will to use technology equally contributes to the success of the whole process. In Algeria, the educational system is slightly changing for the best. The module of *computing* has been recently added to the curriculum at secondary schools, so at least all pupils would be able to use a computer. This can greatly facilitate learning and even make it enjoyable. As for teachers, they can for instance use electronic instead of print documents. This can attract pupils' attention and make them concentrate more in the lessons and also motivate them for learning. In group work, one can highly benefit from technology through networks by which they can share their works and exchange feedback in a quick, easy and inexpensive way. Websites can equally be helpful for interaction between the teacher and students, and between students themselves (Williams 2003). More and more research is being conducted to explore CALL and its benefits.

Now if students do not like reading because some of them find it boring, why not trying to make them like it by using technology. Using electronic tablets and smart phones to read books can be interesting. Reading is a basic skill, and for this reason, research should continuously find new ways to encourage it. Teachers as well must take this problem into account and try to do their best to make students love reading and be habituated to it. The issue of learning is so complex. There are many aspects in language learning and all have to be well considered. Here, it is worth mentioning that some learners are internally motivated. That is to say, they are willing to learn the language themselves but other learners show no desire for learning, and if no other external factors make them motivated to learn, they would never do it.

All aspects of language can be taught via technology including the writing skill. The latter is an important skill and its teaching is sometimes difficult because students are reluctant to learn writing, and a considerable number of them do not find writing interesting. For this reason, there have to be special ways for teaching this basic skill. As far as writing is

concerned, Hartley (2007) reports that “the new technology has changed — and will continue to change — the methods by which people write” (p.293). Of course, teaching writing or any other skill requires some kind of training for teachers and it would take some time and effort before they become experienced. Jauregi, De Graaff and van den Bergh (2012) maintain that “in order for (future) teachers to critically appreciate the challenges and opportunities of ICT-enabled networked language learning environments, it is essential that they gain hands-on experience in the use of such environments for communication with language learners” (p.120).

Research equally proves that technology is very useful when giving and receiving feedback. According to Warschauer et al. (1996), “computer-mediated communication (CMC) allows students to take a more active and autonomous role when seeking feedback, since they can raise questions when they want to and take the initiative in discussions” (cited in Hyland & Hyland, 2006, p.8).

Lieu and Sadler (2003; cited in Hyland & Hyland, 2006) compared between results of peer review implemented through different means and concluded that:

Students using CMC, especially those using real-time communication in online chat rooms, made a greater number of comments, but that these were more superficial, perhaps due to pressure to respond immediately. Face- to- face interaction resulted in a more positive response with more focused feedback and more questions and interaction among peers. (p. 9)

His conclusion is that CMC cannot wholly replace traditional ways of conducting peer review; however, they can work in a complementary way.

The following figure from Woollard (2007, p.2) clearly shows the role of ICT in the field of teaching:

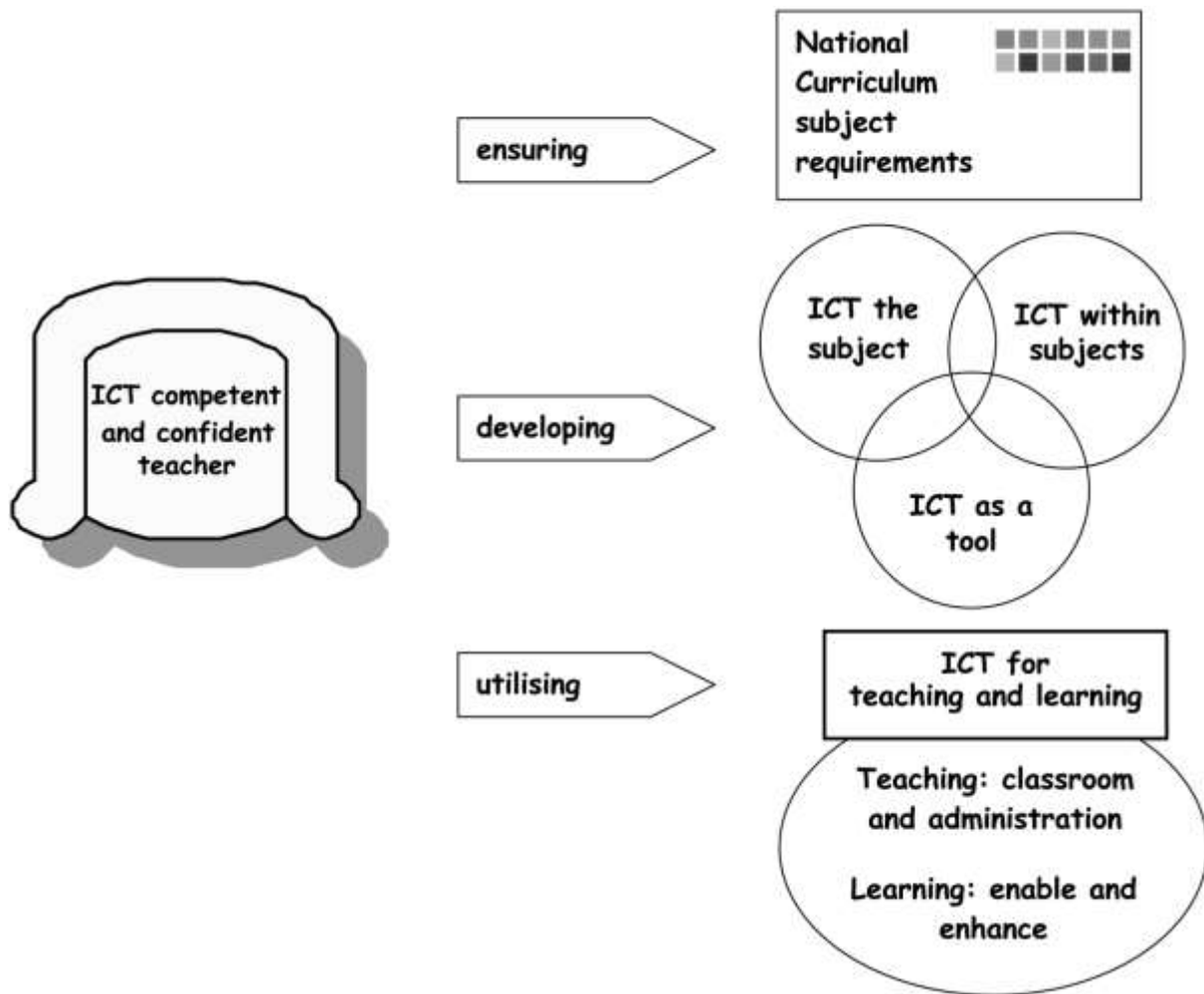


Figure 5: Competencies of ICT

The benefits of CALL are numerous and seeming touch many levels. According to Sarfraz, Mansoor and Tariq (2015), “the CALL environment provides a practical learning environment with interactive assistance by instructors, and performs multiple functions not practiced in the traditional classrooms” (p.731). Likewise, Dina and Ciornei, (2013), assert that “computer assisted language learning and teaching offers the language teacher and learner a lot of activities that, when carefully planned as part of lesson development, enable an easier and better understanding for language learners” (p.249). Furthermore, Halfaoui Ghomari (2015) openly explains the benefits of ICT:

The need for designing a framework that accounts for psychological, pedagogical as well as technological/organizational considerations for successful ICT integration in a foreign language teaching/learning environment seems to us necessary if one is to expect pedagogy to be transformed and

learning to be enhanced and local economy to be developed. Our idea is that an ICT-ESP based approach to learning/teaching ESP is necessary if one is to expect communicative competence to be developed and improved. (pp.756-757)

Despite all that has been said in favor of ICT, one problem is associated with the use of technology. According to Woollard (2007), “There is a technology breakdown syndrome; as technology develops it seems as if the ICT centred disasters are greater. As you learn to become an effective and efficient teacher with ICT you will also be learning how to solve or work around the technical problems as they arise” (p.3).

5. Causes of Learning Difficulties

Teachers of English in SS are always complaining about their students’ level in writing (see Appendix 1). Of course, they try to know the reasons for this situation in order to provide the appropriate solutions. Some teachers claim that the problem begins when they start studying the language itself. Consequently, no linguistic baggage is built, and students would remain weak in this skill. The second category of teachers attributes the deteriorating level in writing to the fact that they do not read. Of course, reading is a receptive skill that enables the learner to become a good writer. Research (Krishman et.al, 2009) reports that the benefits of reading are great and this unique skill affects all the other skills directly or indirectly.

Failure in language learning and particularly the writing skill is attributed to various factors. Some are certainly related to the learner himself, and his learning styles and strategies, and others are associated with the teacher and teaching methods and practices in class including: feedback, peer review, the use of group work, process instruction, grammar treatment, and assessment. In fact, this issue is so complicated that research is continuously shedding light on new factors that can predict the success or failure in FL/L2 learning. Grenfell (2000) joins the two factors stating that “this focus on the individual learner arises

partly as a result of methodological disappointments, including communicative language teaching” (p. 17).

Pritchard (2009) divides learning difficulties into four categories:

1. *Difficulties with input*: He argues that our senses and especially vision and hearing lead to input while learning. Therefore, if the learner’s two senses do not function properly, his input would subsequently decrease.
2. *Difficulties with integration*: He claims that this category concerns what goes on inside the human mind, when the information is processed. He says that examples of those problems include: “inability to retell a story in the correct sequence, inability to memorize particular sequences, such as the months or seasons, and the inability to generalize a concept to other areas of understanding” (pp.58-59).
3. *Difficulties with memory*: Difficulties with short-term memory, long-term memory, and visual memory are, in his opinion, what leads to problems with language skills as: reading, writing and spelling.
4. *Difficulties with output*: He maintains that learners inability to produce language i.e. output is caused by their failure to recall the information they need. Likewise, Van den Branden, (1997) raises this issue and states that “language learners, especially beginners, often fail to verbalize their meaning intentions in comprehensible, sociolinguistically appropriate, and/or correct terms” (p. 590). This is one of the most reported difficulties which are associated with learning. In Prichard’s own words, “difficulties can be characterized by the inability to marshal thoughts sufficiently well for them to be put into clear spoken words” (pp.58-59).

No matter what the reasons are, the core objective is to try to find remedies to the problems and help learners of English because writing is a basic skill.

Another issue that can tremendously affect language learning is that of *zones of interactional transition*. Markee (2004) explains this notion:

When teachers and learners make the transition from one speech exchange system to another, it is quite common for problems of various kinds to occur as members adjust to the turn-taking and repair practices of the new speech exchange system. Empirically attested examples of trouble that occur in the environment of ZITs (taken from a database of nine task-based, small group-mediated university ESL classes) include:

1. Misunderstandings of the function of teachers' questions, specifically whether these are *display* or *referential* questions (see Markee, 1995);
2. Off-task talk that occurs at the interstices of two activities (Markee, in press-a);
3. Challenges that occur in the environment of *counter question* sequences;
4. Instances of *tactical fronting talk*, which consists of tactically ambiguous or misleading claims made by learners to teachers concerning precisely who is having trouble understanding problematic language". (p. 584)

6. Causes of Success/Failure of the Teaching/Learning Process

In the first place, it is essentially important to draw attention to the fact that "the process of acquiring academic language is complicated and ongoing" (Himmele & Himmele, 2009, p.20). Slavin (2003) states that anxiety is constantly present in education. So after all this discussion, we come again to TLP and its success. The learner plays a big role in all this. If he is ready for learning, then she/he would do his/her best to profit the maximum from whatever materials are available at school. On the contrary, if learners are not interested in learning, they would fail. However, we should bear in mind that "teaching is interactive work [and] successful teaching and learning depends on the needs of both being met" (Wilson, 2004, p.37).

In fact, even before we start discussing the causes of success and failure of TLP, some notions have to be clarified. Success of the process in question is rather associated with a cluster of factors especially: the teacher's love of his job, the learner's readiness and willingness to study, and some external factors. In other words, it happens that we find a good learning situation in which the teacher is fond of his job and does his best to transfer knowledge (notions and skills) to his pupils and serious learners who are actually very much interested in learning. But despite all that, and because of some unknown factors, learning

does not take place; it means that in the end, pupils showed that they did not understand. In this regard, Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill and Pincas (1980) refer to one side of this problematic issue:

The characteristic secondary school class is large ... and because of its size, it usually reflects a wide range of ability. Some would say that it is also characteristically unmotivated for hard work in learning a language, and it is certainly true that there are situations in the world in which the reasons for learning English are not self-evident, so that students may well feel less commitment to language work than to—say—geography or physics. (p.175)

It is true that the learner-centered approach focuses on the learner and considers him the first person who is responsible for learning, but all this is carried out under the teacher's supervision. This is more conspicuous with young learners who cannot actually fully control the process. In a nutshell, the impact of the teacher is always there no matter its degree. Obviously, TLP turns around the learner and in the end, it is whether the learner learns or not that is the core of the whole process. Since it is all about learning and whether it takes place or not, one wonders whether it is the only measure for the success and failure of TLP. Is the notion of success attributed to the process itself and its implementation or to the final result? In other words, is attention directed to learning itself or the processes involved or both? Of course, all that has been said applies equally to the notion of failure. It is for this reason that it would be difficult to exactly evaluate the teaching/learning process, and give a final judgment about its success or failure. Obviously, teachers assess their pupils and give grades or marks for their tasks and activities; however, this is not the kind of evaluation that is highlighted, here. We all know that grades and marks do not always show the real level of learners. Moreover, good marks and high grades do not necessarily mean the success of the process.

Conclusion

Teaching and learning are at the same time two dependent and independent processes. That is to say, they refer to different notions in the sense that the former is giving knowledge

and the latter is receiving it. In addition, they are dependent because learning is based on teaching, and teaching is there to make people learn. This simple clarification is by no means satisfactory or enough for things are far more complicated. However, it is necessary to make such an explanation so that it facilitates understanding the exact nature of the two components. The appropriate atmosphere together with collaborative efforts of all sides can bring about extraordinary results. This is the reason why, TLP is too demanding on the basis that many elements are involved in it and its success comes finally after too much effort and time. What is more, TLP with all its components constitute the primary issue that both the teacher and learner should be highly concerned with. In fact, the true and enlightened understanding of TLP on the teacher and learner's part would positively contribute to success. Having shed light on TLP in general, we would devote the next chapter to exploring the writing skill and its teaching on the basis that what is sought in this study is the investigation of effective teaching of EFL writing.



CHAPTER TWO: TEACHING WRITING

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CHAPTER TWO: TEACHING WRITING

Introduction

Not giving much importance to basic skills is one of the miscellaneous causes of learning failure. Learning writing is necessary in any language. Here, it is important to remind that writing is an essential skill of English, and much emphasis and importance have to be given to it. Of course, learning English, like many other languages, involves mastering a number of its aspects like: grammar, phonetics, oral expression, writing, etc. For this reason, it is going to be a challenge for them to try to teach all the corresponding activities effectively. Obviously, every teacher gives much more emphasis to one activity over the others depending on his beliefs and tendencies. However, this is not acceptable; otherwise, we would get students of English whose English has some deficiencies. All aspects of English, then, should be taught keeping in mind that some students can later on be specialized in English, and they would greatly need what they have learned in the high school.

The most important aspects of writing would equally be discussed. On the whole, this chapter is dedicated to all that can be said about writing for the sake of providing our teachers with a long list of tips and key elements that would undoubtedly lead to success in the whole process of teaching writing at the end of the study. Here, we would talk about writing in general, and then some space would be devoted to secondary school teaching of the skill in question. In fact, this would be with regards to the various obstacles that might impede the fulfillment of the task including: time restrictions, learners' level...etc. All stages of teaching writing from the warm-up to assessment are considered in this chapter with reference to teachers' techniques and methods for implementing that as well as the various obstacles that might confront them.

1. Writing Skill

EFL students have always shown a deteriorating level in writing. Here, it is not merely meant essays and relatively long paragraphs but even simple sentences. Bailey (2003) states that “international students especially find the written demands of their courses extremely challenging” (p.8). Any responsible teacher is likely to stop at this widely-spread phenomenon. A variety of questions are subsequently asked and their corresponding answers should be seriously sought. In fact, “research on SLA and use is a dynamic field characterized by discussion of a wide variety of issues, both conceptual and empirical” (Ritchie & Bhatia 1996, p.35). But, before we get into explaining some notions about writing, it is essential to consider this definition. According to Langer (2000), high literacy:

refers to understanding how reading, writing, language, content, and social appropriateness work together and using this knowledge in effective ways. It is reflected in students’ ability to engage in thoughtful reading, writing, and discussion about content in the classroom, to put their knowledge and skills to use in new situations and to perform well on reading and writing assessments including high stakes testing. (cited in Hanson, 2009, pp. 3-4)

In the first place, a definition of an FL is more than necessary. According to Oxford and Shearin (cited in Baker & McIntyre, 2000), a foreign language is “one that is learnt in a place where that language is not typically used as the medium of ordinary communication” (p. 312). It means that one cannot learn a FL unless he is taught or, he moves to live where a FL is used (whether L1 or not). Learning a FL has many benefits including: “[facilitation of] better communication and understanding between individuals who come from different cultural backgrounds and speak different languages” (Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide & Shimizu, 2004, p. 120). But, in order to improve in a given FL, the learner needs to use the language and practice it as much as he can (Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide & Shimizu, 2004).

Every language skill has specific characteristics. If we take speech and writing, for instance, we find that the differences between speech and writing are many and varied. Olsen (1977, cited in Williams, 2003, p.267) states that “[writing has] no recourse to shared

context... [because] sentences have to be understood in context other than those in which they were written” however, in speech, “meaning is derived from the shared intentions and context of speaker and hearer , where as in writing, meaning resides in the text itself at the sentence level and has to be extracted by readers” (Williams, 2003, p.267). According to Harmer (2004), “one of the most obvious differences between writing and speaking has to do with the processes that writers and speakers go through” (p. 8). It is partially for this reason that the findings about writing should not be generalized to speech/speaking and vice versa.

Writing is one of the skills which are somehow difficult to teach because “learning to write requires cognitive and affective investments” (Rijlaarsdam, Bergh & Couzijn, 2005, p.3). This is the reason why careful attention has to be given to it, and to the way it is taught. What makes the situation even worse is that learners are equally not so willing to learn. A good percentage of FL learners care more about speaking. The majority believe that learning a language means being able to speak it. Lazar (1993) argues that “it may well be that learners are classified as advanced and can communicate with ease in English-speaking environment. Yet they might not be able to cope with the language of the text because it departs strikingly from the usual norms of language use” (p.53). Let’s consider the definition: to know a language means to be able to produce and understand an infinite number of new words and sentences. The notion of production leads us to discuss receptive and productive skills. The former includes listening and reading, where as the latter are speaking and writing. Another classification is oral and written skills. The former includes: listening and speaking, and the latter includes reading and writing. In reality, FL learners focus more on oral skills and largely neglect writing and reading. This situation is a real defy for both teachers and researchers. For this reason, new and more motivating and interesting tips and techniques have to be devised to teaching writing and encouraging reading. In fact, no language can be excellently learned if one or more skills are deliberately or non-deliberately neglected.

Teaching EFL writing effectively is, in fact, a matter of many factors put together which would, no doubt, make it complex. According to Rinnert and Kobayashi (2009):

The writing of EFL students is affected not only by their first language (L1), but also by the educational context where they learn to write. This socially and culturally characterized context provides metaknowledge about writing (i.e. view of audience and goals of writing) as well as linguistic and textual knowledge, affecting the ways in which students process and produce writing. (p.23)

Research in the field of EFL writing is conducted for the sake of designing new ways and techniques for teaching this skill. Teaching methods, the way of using feedback, learners' psychological side are all related to teachers' knowledge and practices one way or another.

1.1. Nature of Writing

The perception of writing has changed as recent studies began to focus more on the process that leads to the final product and not on the product itself (Appelbee, 1984; as cited in Freeman & Richards, 1996). In other words, the focus is shifting to “writing as a process” (Crowley, 1998; as cited in Matsuda, 2003, p. 68). This shift would lead to another understanding so far as writing is concerned; it makes use of writing “as a process of creating, discovering, and extending meaning rather than a process of putting down preconceived and well-formed meaning” (Tsui, 2002, p. 97).

Recent studies have shown that a new perception is formed about writing. Kucer (2005) states that:

Writing is not simply speech written down. Although there are times when the two language modes share many internal characteristics, especially when the context and purpose for the communication are similar, there also exist significant differences. Consequently, written language does not fully reflect any individual's spoken language patterns. (p.67)

Within CLT, Writing is considered as a process in which learners go through various stages before they give their final product (Brown & Hood, 1989). At least, even if the product is not so much satisfactory, a relatively valuable degree is given to the steps or stages that the writer

goes through to achieve his/her final goal. For this reason, teachers should perceive writing as “a process of putting down preconceived and well formed meaning” (Tsui, 2002, p.97). Similarly, Zhu (2004) explains this nature of writing in terms of students’ roles which have to be social in the first place. For this reason, in his attempt to motivate students for writing, the teacher should bear in mind that writing “is a social activity” (Ackerman, 1990, p.173). In cognitive psychology, “to understand how students learn to write, one must understand how [mental] structures develop as an individual matures and acquires knowledge of the world” (Clark, 2003, p. 10). Another view about writing is that “all writing is performance. Style performs our voice. Our syntax and diction perform language” (Morley, 2007, p. 215). In accordance with these claims, Flynn and Stainthorp (2006) assert that writing is “an example of human information processing in action. It is a highly complex task that requires the orchestration of a number of different activities simultaneously and thereby places great demands on the cognitive system” (p.54). Moreover, two basic elements have to be taken into consideration when teaching writing. Hegarty (2000) openly states:

There are two basic elements to any piece of writing. One is content—what the writer has to say. The other is form —the way the content, or message, is presented. The form of a written piece includes its organization and layout. Form gives a reader an immediate idea of what to expect. Without reading a word you could probably recognize a written piece by its form. (p. 6)

Last but not least, it is extremely important to try to explore teachers’ perceptions so far as writing is concerned, and whether they try to know what is new and incorporate it in their teaching methods and techniques. It may not be an easy thing especially if certain procedures work just for a considerable period of time. In addition, some teachers may not be ready for change. Teachers should know that the decision to make a change comes from them. Equally important is students’ rights to benefit from the fruits of research.

1.2. Reasons for Writing

Writing is a basic skill in any language learning. Its advantages are numerous and varied. For this reason, it would be better if they are categorized as follows:

1. Linguistic benefits: in discussing reasons for pushing students to write, Harmer (2007) argues that writing gives learners the opportunity to think more than any other oral activity (conversation). Consequently, more language processing is fulfilled. Moreover, “writing helps students connect their thoughts, deepen their content knowledge, and communicate with others” (Urquhart & McIver, 2005, p. 26). Also, “writing and by extension, writing skills, are fundamental to the university experience for students and academics alike” (Morrison-Saunders, Bell & Retief, 2012, p. 1). Finally, Weigle (2002) argues that writing instruction is becoming more and more important in the field of language education.
2. Psychological and social benefits: Rijlaarsdam, Bergh and Couzijn (2005) emphasize the importance of having an interest in writing arguing that this would lead the learners to be more involved in learning. Another benefit is to enable students “to remember, to observe, and to think, as well as to communicate” (Barras, 2005, p.11). Moreover, Hillocks (2002; in Williams, 2003) maintains that writing is one way for seeing the world more clearly and sharing feeling. Likewise, Hawthorn (2011) claims that successful and meaningful participation can be the subsequent result of developing the writing skill.

In addition, the following figure demonstrates some purposes of writing:

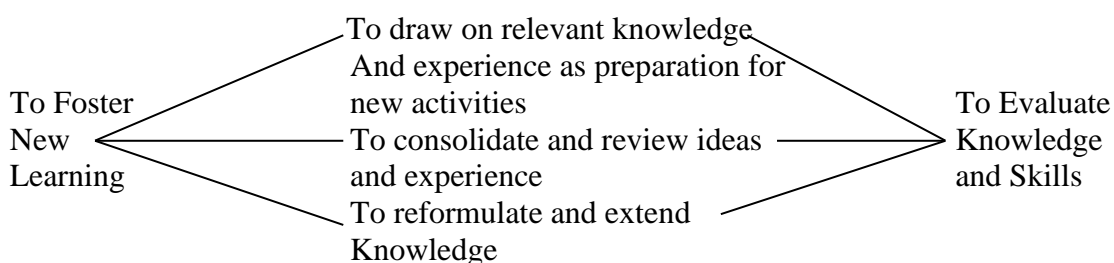


Figure 6: Purposes of Writing in the Classroom (Langer & Applebee, 1987, p.42)

Parrott (2004) raises teachers’ awareness to a number of elements that should be taken into consideration when teaching writing. First, he starts with “reasons for writing” arguing

that learners may write for a variety of reasons such as: “to develop linguistic competence [and] to encourage the development of fluency” (p.222). Students, of course, can write for a variety of purposes, but most important of all is that teachers know the purpose and how to guide them throughout the task to get better results. As a second step in any writing task, Parrott (2004) suggests “preparation, motivation and communication”. All teachers should be aware of motivation and how to foster it, and that they should equally have ideas on how to make students self-confident and ready to write. After that, teachers move to the core of the task through:

- ❖ Teaching the features of particular text types
- ❖ ‘process’ approaches to teaching writing skills
- ❖ Designing writing tasks
- ❖ Correction of written work
- ❖ Grading composition (pp.223-6)

2. Teaching Writing

Teaching writing has always been one of the main focuses of EFL and SLA research. Our primary concern, here, is to highlight the most important composing elements of writing as a process. However, it is claimed that “because of the complexity of the writing process, it is difficult to envisage a model of writing in terms of its “subskills”” (Schoonen, et al, 2003, p. 166). In a study carried out by Cumming, Kantor and Powers (2002), the participant teachers showed “a balance in their decision making between attention to rhetoric and ideas and to language features in the ESL/EFL compositions that they assessed” (p.89). Davies and Pearse (2000) tackle the notion of teaching and learning writing from two different but complementary angles. First, vocabulary functions as the flesh that fills the whole skeleton of the activity in question. According to him, “good writing skills usually develop from

extensive reading, some specific training, and a good deal of practice” (p.96). Lacking the words is failing to write, and having poor vocabulary would result in inappropriate writing products. In this vein, Davis and Pearse (2000) state that “vocabulary is neglected in some English language courses. This is a pity because working with words can be enjoyable and satisfying for learners” (p.59). Second, the effects of grammar on EFL writing were largely investigated by researchers in order to see whether there are any fruits from teaching grammatical rules or not (Frantzen 1995; Manley & Calk, 1997; Cooper & Morain, 1980; Cooper, 1981; cited in Reichelt 2001). Frantzen’s study (1995) shows that there is noticeable advantage from grammar instruction on writing improvement. On the contrary, Manley and Calk study (1997) reports advantageous results from grammar treatment. Though the two studies investigated different grammar points and their possible effects on writing, the results were rather different. Third, the other issue about writing is fluency and accuracy. Brown (2001, p.334) reports that with the introduction of CLT principles in the 1980s, “teachers learned more and more about how to teach fluency, not just accuracy, how to use authentic texts and contexts in the classroom, how to focus on the purposes of linguistic communication, and how to capitalize on learner's intrinsic motives to learn”. Also, “accuracy is only one aspect of the total fabric of good writing” (Bailey, 2003, p. 95).

The second standpoint of Davies and Pearse’s discussion of teaching writing is concerned with the necessity for mastering some basic skills:

- handwriting or typing
- spelling
- constructing grammatical sentences
- punctuating”
- gathering information and ideas relevant to the topic, and discarding what is not relevant

- organizing the information and ideas into a logical sequence
- structuring the sequence into sections and paragraphs
- expressing the information and ideas in a written draft
- editing the draft and writing out a final text. (p.96)

Defining good or effective writing is not as easy as one might think. In fact, every researcher prioritizes some specific elements that he considers essential to good writing. To exemplify, Caruso (1994; as cited in Reichelt; 2001) highlighted syntactic complexity, and Aziz (1995; as cited in Reichelt; 2001) stressed grammatical agreement, context and vocabulary. However, one can say that effective writing should be evaluated on the basis of many intertwined linguistic criteria with varying contributions. Parrott (2004) considers two aspects necessary for effective writing which “involves conveying a message in such a way as to affect the audience as the writer intends” (p.211).

One big problem that actually poses itself when it comes to teaching English writing is related to practice. This view is equally shared by Byrne (1988) who asserts that “writing will be the skill in which they are not only least proficient, even after considerable practice but also the one for which they will have the least use” (p. 6). Moreover, Hinkel (2004) reports that “Johns (1997) found that students ...often fail to recognize and appropriately use the conventions and features of academic written prose” (p.4). This problem is prominent when speaking about an FL. And here, it is the case because English is an FL in the Algerian linguistic context. Reichelt (2001) highlights this issue and asks this question: “what role, if any, will writing in FLs play for students outside the FL classroom? And within the FL classroom itself, what is the purpose of writing...?” (p. 579)

In relation to the difficulties that are associated with teaching writing, Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill and Pincas (1980) maintain that some aspects have to be put into consideration. These include:

- 1 Mechanical problems with the script of English;
 - 2 Problems of accuracy of English grammar and lexis;
 - 3 Problems of relating the style of writing to the demands of a particular situation;
 - 4 Problems of developing ease and comfort in expressing what needs to be said.
- (p.116)

2.1. Cooperative Language Learning

The socio-cultural view of motivation recognizes the role of learning communities in maintaining learners' identities (Woolfolk, 2004). This implies that the learning classroom and the community are significant determiners of successful learning. In this respect, encouraging students to work collaboratively through group work can be one way for sustaining the socio-cultural view of learning (Woolfolk, 2004). With respect to Vygotsky's social constructivism, Woolfolk (2004) states that by "participating in a broad range of activities with others, learners **appropriate** (internalize or take for themselves) the outcomes produced by working together" (p.324). Learners also "acquire new strategies and knowledge of the world and culture" (Palincsar, 1998; in Woolfolk, 2004). This view stands in opposition to the traditional classroom presentation in which "students sit and listen while the instructor tries to get some new point across" (Thomas, Strage & Curley 1988, pp. 321-322). The following table clarifies the distinction between teacher-based and learner-based types of teaching:

Teacher-centred learning	Pupil-centred learning
Teacher exposition	Group work
Accent on competition	Accent on cooperation
Whole class teaching	Resource-based learning
Teacher responsible for learning	Pupil takes responsibility for learning
Teacher providing knowledge	Teacher as guide/facilitator
Pupils seen as empty vessels which need filling	Pupils have ownership of ideas and work
Subject knowledge valued	Process skills are valued
Teacher-imposed discipline	Self-discipline
Teacher and pupil roles stressed	Pupils seen as source of knowledge and ideas
Teacher decides the curriculum	Pupils involved in curriculum planning
Passive student roles	Pupils actively involved in learning
Limited range of learning styles and activities	Wide range of learning styles employed

Table 2: Teacher-centred and Student-centred Learning (Williams et al., 1992; reported in Hudson, 2011, p.68)

A variety of definitions have been associated with the term *cooperative learning*, but they all have something in common: it involves cooperation between the learners whose efforts collaborate to achieve a given task. Brown (2004) defines collaboration in learning as “a community of learners capable of teaching each other something” (p.270). Although the notion of cooperative learning is not a new one, it has only been examined in the last three decades (Woolfolk, 2004). Roughly speaking, it is the use of small groups or task-based instruction “which affords students the opportunity to develop a range of cognitive, metacognitive and social as well as linguistic skills while interacting and negotiating in the classroom”(Crandall, 1999, p. 226). Nunan (1992) uses the terms cooperative language learning (CLL) and collaborative learning interchangeably and quotes the following definition: “Collaborative learning entails students working together to achieve common learning goals” (p. 3).

CLL proved to have great benefits for the learners on many levels, and at all stages. Various approaches and perspectives on learning acknowledge the benefits of cooperative

learning (O'Donnell, 2002; O'Donnell & O'Kelly, 1994; in Woolfolk, 2004). Research proves that individual learning is quite different from cooperative learning. In support of this finding, Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, (2008) put it clearly that:

Teachers frequently talk about a group of students as a single entity, reflecting our experience that placing individuals together in a group and treating them as an ensemble leads to group patterns of behavior that may be quite different from the styles and norms of the individuals who make up the group. (p. 201)

In discussing possible ways of arranging students in class, Harmer (1998) considers group work and pair work cooperative activities the advantages of which are mainly giving students equal opportunities for using and practising the language and more independence from the teacher. Another important benefit of CLL is that it makes it possible for students to communicate more freely; thus, finding situations in which the target language is used (Gwyn-Paquette & Toghon, 2002). Moreover, both group work and pair work assign more responsibility to the learner. Harmer (1998) shares this position and states that “decisions are cooperatively arrived at, responsibilities are shared” (p. 21). Sharing more responsibility can further increase the learner's self-esteem. CLL “promotes learning through communication in pairs or small groups” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 174) and its major concern is to enable students to learn from each other through their contribution to the group. Harmer (2005) maintains that “successful collaborative writing allows students to learn from each other” (p.73). Another finding is that CLL seems to offer greater opportunities for learners to use the target language with each other (Gwyn-Paquette & Tochon, 2002). Moreover, CLL provides:

- variety and dynamism
- an enormous increase in individual practice
- low-stress private practice
- opportunities to develop learner autonomy
- interaction with peers. (Davies & Pearse, 2000, p.125)

CLL consists of a group of students working together to achieve a common goal. Inside the group, “each learner has an essential role to play if that goal is to be achieved. Cooperation in this regard is more than just collaboration, where it is possible to complete a task and develop a product without the contribution of all the members” (Crandall, 1999, p. 230). In fact, the notion of cooperation is a core issue in CLL. Supporting this view, Larsen-Freeman (2000) maintains that in cooperative language learning, what makes learning cooperative is the image of teachers and students working together. The figure below demonstrates their roles in all stages of CLL:

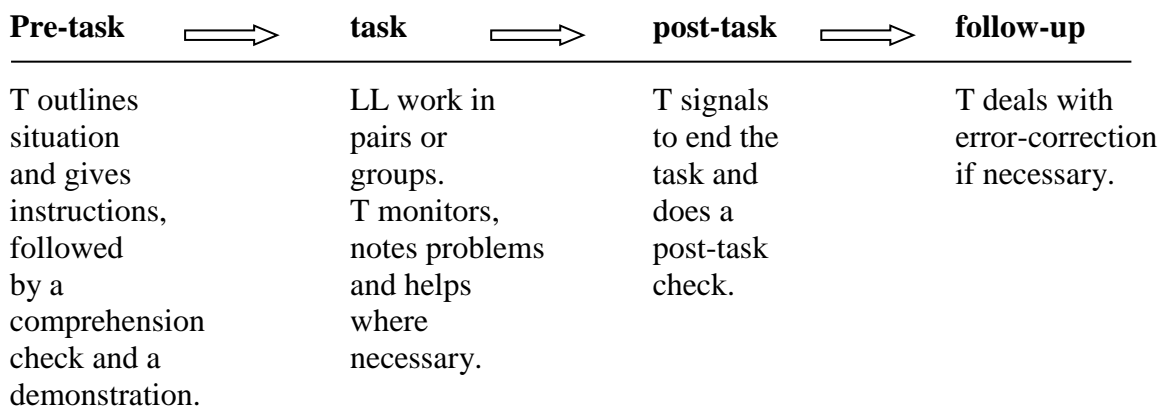


Figure 7: Stages in the Management of Pair or Group Work (Davies & Pearse, 2000, p. 126).

In fact, no teaching method or technique is completely perfect. Likewise, CLL has some negative effects, in general and on the learner, in particular. To begin with, Richards and Rodgers (2001) criticized its implementation arguing that making groups with students of different proficiency levels may lead some learners to benefit more than others would do. He goes on adding that teachers themselves may find the new roles assigned to them rather difficult. Moreover, Working with other peers may lead some students to think that they would no longer be the focus of their teacher, something which can disturb them (Harmer, 2005).

2.2. Writing Workshops

The changing attitude towards the exact nature of the writing skill has greatly affected the way it is taught, according to Murray (1992), “in 'real-world' contexts, writing is not a solitary enterprise; it is a social act” (p. 100). Workshops are widely used in all fields of teaching because of their efficacy. They simply involve students working together in groups in order to achieve a writing task. As far as the number of students per group is concerned, Williams (2003) sees that “the ideal number is five, because it...allows for better interaction among members” (p. 134).

Williams (2003) summarizes the implementation of this particular classroom structure as follows:

Drafts can be read by group mates or by members of other groups, but they eventually return for revision. As students are revising, the teacher circulates among them and offers constructive comments on their work... and then has them return to their work so that they can apply the lesson immediately. These sorts of interventions have led many in composition to view the writing teacher as a coach. (pp. 131-132)

With the advance of technology and its rapid introduction in the field of LT and learning, it is reported that “writing workshops have also been extended through the use of computer networks that allow students to exchange writing with each other and with the teacher and receive comments without the need for face-to-face interaction” (Hyland & Hyland, 2006, p.8).

2.3. Writing Conferences

Brown (2004) considers conferencing “a standard part of the process approach to teaching writing, in which the teacher, in a conversation about a draft, facilitates the improvement of the written work” (p. 264). This involves a kind of interaction between the teacher and the learner. Of course, interaction can be linguistic for the purpose of detecting mistakes in the draft; therefore, improving and rewriting it, or affective which can create a

good atmosphere, and consequently, making the learners feel at ease. In the same vein, Hyland and Hyland, (2006) claim that “oral conferences can not only lead to revisions in subsequent drafts but also lasting effects on improving writing in later assignments” (p.5). Frankly speaking, hundreds of pages will not be enough when talking about interaction in class and its positive outcomes.

One kind of conferences is the interview. The latter is defined by Brown (2004) as “a context in which a teacher interviews a student for a designated assessment purpose” (p. 265). For the sake of conducting successful interviews, one needs to carefully and purposefully select the question to be asked. Brown (2004) puts much emphasis on this matter and offers general guidelines for more effective interviews. These are cited below:

1. Offer an initial atmosphere of warmth and anxiety lowering (warm-up).
2. Begin with relatively simple questions.
3. Continue with level check and probe-questions, but adapt to the interview as needed.
4. Frame questions simply and directly.
5. Focus on only one factor for each question. Do not combine several objectives in the same question.
6. Be prepared to repeat or reframe questions that are not understood.
7. Wind down with friendly and reassuring closing comments. (p. 266)

It is almost difficult to agree on a number of tips on conducting interviews and assume that they would necessarily work; at least, not all of them. In fact, there are many factors to be kept in mind when intending to work with interviews. Brown’s guidelines consider both the affective and linguistic dimensions for their remarkable importance in learning. However, one would not take them for granted and apply them to every single context. The Algerian situation is our central issue, and the question is: can conferences and interviews be used in

the Algerian learning context? Factors like overcrowded-classes and time can hinder the learning process rather than foster it.

If some learners do not support the use of conferences, then, it is a waste of time to bother oneself organizing them this way. Logically, before introducing any relatively new teaching method or technique, students or pupils should be trained on its right implementation and be informed about its benefits. Consequently, learners would be aware of it and become involved in it. Furthermore, not all teaching and learning techniques work with all students. Therefore, an initial attempt is an unavoidable step.

2.4. Feedback

All teachers and learners know that “errors are natural, inevitable, and necessary part of learning” (Davies & Pearse, 2000, p.105). Those errors must of course be corrected. Feedback is classified into three types: teacher’s feedback, peer review and self-correction. However, it is claimed that “when you decide to intervene to correct errors in fluency practice, the recommended self peer teacher correction sequence applies as in accuracy practice” (Davies & Pearse, 2000, p.55). There is much confusion as to the exact nature of this element of teaching. It is one form of interaction, either between the teacher and his learners or between the learners themselves. Feedback does not only mean correcting students’ errors; it additionally means interacting with the learners and trying to motivate them for learning the language. In fact, “to be effective, feedback should be conveyed in a number of modes and should allow for response and interaction” (Hyland & Hyland, 2006, p. 5). Research proves its advantages for learning and the learner. In fact, the meaning of the word *feedback* is not just restricted to correcting mistakes; according to Gower, Phillips and Walters (2005), “feedback can take a number of forms: giving praise and encouragement;

correcting; setting regular tests; having discussions about how the group as a whole is doing; giving individual tutorials; etc.” (p.163).

The following table comprises a set of codes to decipher the type of error easily and quickly:

<i>Error type</i>	<i>Code</i>	<i>Description</i>
Word choice	WC	Excluded spelling errors, pronouns, informal and idiomatic usage
Verb tense	VT	
Verb form	VF	
Word form	WF	Excluded verb form errors
Articles	Art	
Singular-plural	S/P	Referred to noun ending errors
Pronouns	PR	
Run-on	RO	Included comma splices
Fragment	FR	
Punctuation	PU	Comma splices, and fragments; excluded run-ons
Spelling	SP	
Sentence structure	SS	Included missing and unnecessary words and phrases and word order problems. Excluded run-ons, comma splices, and fragments
Informal	INF	Referred to register choices considered inappropriate for academic writing
Idiom	ID	Referred to errors in use of idiomatic expressions
Subject-verb agreement	SV	Did not include other singular-plural or verb form errors
Miscellaneous	N/A(category used for analysis only)	Errors that could not be otherwise classified

Table 3: Error Categories and Codes Used in Teacher Marking and in Analysis (Ferris, 2006)

2.4.1. Teacher’s Feedback

According to Slavin (2003), feedback refers “both to information students receive on their performance, and to information teachers obtain on the effects of their instruction” (p.353). Feedback, he claims, can serve as a motivating force and reward in particular circumstances. To maintain its motivational value, feedback has to be clear, specific,

immediate and frequent (Slavin, 2003). In addition, the teacher always remains a source of feedback (Bitchener et al, 2005). However, Hamp-Lyons (2006) concludes that “effective giving of feedback is a highly skilled teaching process, and we need to develop strategies and materials for helping teachers to acquire this skill” (p.157), and that “there should be no such thing as negative feedback” because this “can be disheartening, disappointing and frustrating as you will have put a lot of effort into producing it” (Hramiak, 2011, p.27).

In his study of error correction, Truscott (1996; in Warden, 2000) shows a different point of view and concludes that “correction of errors is counterproductive ...and that people do not like to be corrected ... [and] that uncorrected students may go on to be better writers” (p. 575). Truscott (1996; in Bitchener et al., 2005) considers error correction “harmful because it diverts time and energy from the more productive aspects of a writing programme” (p. 192). Ferris (1999; in Bitchener et al., 2005) stands in opposition to Truscott's claims about the uselessness of error correction and maintains that research confirmed the utility of error correction so long as the feedback provided is clear and selective.

The teacher's feedback can be either direct or indirect. In case of the former, the teacher diagnoses the errors and gives the correct form; where as in case of indirect feedback, though the teacher identifies the errors, he leaves it for the student to find it himself and correct it (Bitchener et al., 2005). Oliver (2000) reports Long's finding (1996) about NF stating that it “may be either *explicit*, as in the case of overt error correction, or *implicit*, as in the context of communication breakdown” (p.120).

2.4.2. Peer Review

Research (Min, 2006) reports that peer review is another essential component of TLP. Self-directed learning is one aspect of peer review. It consists of the learners taking “increased responsibility for their own learning. Be willing and capable of learning from and with others.

Participate in diagnosing, prescribing, and evaluating their progress. Exercise self-discipline” (Krabbe, 1983, p. 372). Another definition is provided by Thomas, Strage, and Curley (1988) they state that “self-directed learning, if and when it occurs, consists of thought and behavior that students elect to engage in to direct, manage, or monitor the event” (p. 314).

A crucial aspect of collaborative writing is peer revision. This technique “has become a widely used teaching method in first (L1), second (L2), and foreign language writing instruction” (McGroarty & Zhu, 1997, p. 2). In fact, revision is a crucial issue in the process of writing. Researchers (Stallard, 1974; Zamel, 1983; in Warden, 2000) found that L2 skilled writers tend to revise their work more than unskilled writers do. Another finding (Sommers, 1980; Faigley & Witte, 1981; in Warden, 2000) is that “good writers concentrated more on revising content over form” (p. 574). Guerrero and Villamil (2000) shed light on peer review stating that:

Collaborative stances seem to be characterized by an emphasis on negotiating ideas and making meaning throughout the interactions, by peers trying to see the text through the writer’s eyes, and by an atmosphere of mutual respect in which feedback is allowed to flow freely from writer to reader and vice versa. (p. 55).

Peer review involves learners correcting each other’s mistakes in a given learning task. Researchers think that when learners correct each others’ mistakes, they feel better because they feel that they are all equal. According to Hyland and Hyland (2006), “from a socio-cognitive perspective, peer review can be seen as a formative developmental process that gives writers the opportunity to discuss their texts and discover others’ interpretations of them” (p.6). Moreover, “if grouping is ineffective and tutoring is impractical, how can correction be achieved by the classroom teacher? The answer lies in a program of individualized correction utilizing self-directed material” (Schubert, 1973, p. 442). Again, other problems are associated with peer review. First, students may not be able to discover all the mistakes either deliberately or not. After all, they remain learners and their level is not that

good. Also, they might fear some of their colleagues, and detecting their errors can lead to serious disputes between them. This is the reason why peer review should be conducted under the teacher's supervision. Firstly, this is to prevent any possible pupil-pupil quarrel, and secondly to draw their attention to any undetected errors. This is just another example where the teacher appears as guide and facilitator. In a nutshell, pedagogy and its success is a real and difficult challenge to the teacher who is supposed to be responsible for so many things in the classroom. For this reason, we hope that they take things seriously and try to be real teachers.

A number of problems is associated with group work and sharing drafts. Williams (2003) goes deeply in investigating the issue arguing that sharing drafts among students is not as easy as one might think. For him, there are two ways this can be done. The first option is that students photocopy their classmates' drafts and read them at their own pace for the sake of criticizing them. Another choice is via reading the drafts. The latter option is rather useless because the drafts will not be criticized in a sophisticated way. For this reason, it is preferable to exchange the drafts through photocopying them.

Peer review is not without its drawbacks. Harmer (2005) considers peer review with its own problems. First of all, students may not value their peers' comments with the result that the latter would be overlooked instead of taken into consideration. Moreover, students may not like working with one another. Storch (2005) states that when revising each other's writing, students focus on the final product rather than on the process of writing. In effect, studies (Lokhart, 1995; Nelson & Carson, 1998; Villamil & de Guerro, 1996; in Storch, 2005) demonstrate that errors at both sentence and word levels are the focus of peer reviewers.

Furthermore, Harmer (2005) argues that peer correction does not always work and he explains:

Student-to-student correction works well in classes where there is a genuinely cooperative atmosphere; the idea of the group helping all of its members is a powerful concept. Nevertheless it can go horribly wrong where the error-making individual feels belittled by the process, thinking that they are the only one who does not know the grammar or vocabulary. (p. 107)

Sometimes, it is in fact extremely difficult to train students to accept their peers' correction especially if the corrections are accompanied by sarcasm

Peer review has the benefits of:

- involving all the students in the correction process;
- making the learning more co-operative generally;
- reducing student dependence on the teacher;
- increasing the amount the students listen to each other;
- giving the better students something to do. (Gower, Phillips & Walters, 2005, p.167)

2.4.3. Direct and Indirect Feedback

A distinction is made between two types of feedback: direct and indirect. Bitchner, Young and Cameron (2005) define the former as “when the teacher identifies an error and provides the correct form”, whereas the latter “refer(s) to situations when the teacher indicates that an error has been made but does not provide a correction, thereby leaving the student to diagnose and correct it” (p.193). As for the effects of both types of feedback, a number of studies (Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Ferris, Cheyney, Komura, Roberts & Mc Kee, 2000; Komura, 1999; Rennie, 2000; Roberts, 1999; cited in Bitchner, Young & Cameron, 2005) claim that teachers as well as students prefer direct feedback. Other studies, however, (Ferris et al., 2000; Ferris & Helt, 2000; Frantzen, 1995; Lorlande, 1982; Lee, 1997; Robb et al., 1986; cited in Bitchner, Young & Cameron, 2005) came with the conclusion that implicit, indirect feedback leads to improvement in correctness of language. Moreover, pupils are

generally ashamed of making mistakes and especially in front of their peers. The situation can be even worse if pupils are blamed for their errors and openly corrected. Of course, the mistakes have to be corrected in all cases; however, the way this is done is very important. It is partly for this reason that peer review is preferred to feedback.

2.4.4. Types and Causes of Errors

A mistake can be defined as “a slip of the tongue or the pen. The student is able to correct it himself or herself, either completely unprompted or with the guidance of the teacher or other students” (Gower, Phillips & Walters, 2005, p.164). All students make mistakes whether they are learning their first language or an FL. Error analysis studies these mistakes long with their sources and causes. According to Harmer (2005), “feedback encompasses not only correcting students, but also offering them an assessment of how well they have done” (p.99). This indicates that feedback and assessment are intertwined and cannot be separated from each other. In other words, when we give feedback to students, we are assessing them, and during assessment, they can know their own mistakes. Of course, mistakes are not all the same. That is to say, they vary in degree of severity and way of correction.

Some students’ errors are developmental errors and others are caused by L1 interference. The latter cause deals with the effect of the native language on learning a new one; that is, learners sometimes transfer rules from their language and mistakenly apply them to FL which would result in some errors. This deep knowledge of that language cannot be put aside when learning a new one. Rather, it interferes and causes some problems in the learning process. By developmental errors, it is meant that when students learn some rules, they apply them to various contexts even where they do not work. This phenomenon of over-generalization has long caused trouble to both learners and teachers. This is just a glimpse of what can cause some of students’ errors. As this interlanguage is changing towards full

mastery of the language, it is the teacher's job to correct mistakes and help students reshape this interlanguage.

2.4.5. Implementation of Feedback

Though correction is necessary and it almost leads to improving students' performance, it should not be at every moment and on every mistake because it can make students bored and unmotivated. Any good teacher should consider the following points about feedback implementation:

- Conduct feedback in privacy and comfort.
- Leave yourself enough time. A rushed feedback session can be a waste of time.
- Consider the best time to conduct feedback. Usually feedback takes place immediately after teaching, before anything is forgotten. (Gower, Phillips & Walters, 2005, p.199)

Some teachers tend to correct their students' mistakes without referring to them or even drawing their attention to the fact that they made a particular mistake. Harmer (2005) insists on this point and suggests two stages for feedback. The first one is showing incorrectness, and here, he equally proposes various ways of doing it. The second stage is correcting the mistake. At this stage, correction can come from the student himself, his/her peers or the teacher. The latter should try to make the student recognize his/her mistake and correct it, but if he/she fails, the teacher tries with the other students and as a final solution the correction comes from the teacher.

In his explanation of feedback and its implementation in the classroom, Harmer (2005) makes a distinction between two aspects of language: accuracy and fluency. The former is concerned with correctness of language including: grammar and vocabulary, where as the latter focuses on the flow of speech and the way it is used by the learner. He, in fact, seems to

give importance to both form and meaning. As for feedback during work, Harmer (2005) states that “the way in which [teachers] respond to students when they speak in a fluency activity will have a significant bearing not only on how well they perform at the time but also on how they behave in fluency activities in the future” (p.107). He suggests three ways for responding during these activities. First, he mentions what he calls “gentle correction”. Here, the teacher is not supposed to intervene every moment but only when necessary and when he feels that the students really need help. Second, he moves on to another technique “recording mistakes”. The latter requires the teacher to observe his students, record their mistakes and hereafter giving them feedback. He further suggests that if teachers are afraid to forget what their students have exactly said, for this mostly happens, they might take notes of what they want to come back to later. As a final step, the teacher may find it necessary to recapitulate what has been focused on during the activity.

In fact, there is a big number of techniques that teachers can use to give feedback on a given activity in a appropriate way. And researchers are always trying to find new and more sophisticated ways that would enable both teachers and learners to be successful in their tasks. So, it all depends on the teacher and his readiness to know what is new in order to exploit it and pick up its fruits. Teachers are advised to follow research and benefit from it.

Some teachers believe that it is easy to give feedback and that the same type of feedback is administered in all activities and tasks. Things; however, are not that simple. Harmer (2005) explains the techniques that teachers may use when giving feedback on written work , for instance, stating that “the way [teachers] give feedback on writing will depend on the kind of writing task the students have undertaken, and the effect we wish to create” (p.109). Indeed, giving feedback requires serious efforts from the teacher in order to be successful in his job, and enable students to learn from the mistakes committed in a given writing task. According to Harmer (2005) assessing an exercise is quite different from

assessing a more communicative writing like a report, for instance. According to him, two techniques are used to give feedback:

- ❖ *Responding* is the first technique Harmer discusses, and he defines it saying that “When we respond, we say how the text appears to us and how successful we think it has been and, sometimes, how it could be improved” (p.110). Reacting this way to students’ writing work would have good effect on the student; thus, heartily accept the teacher’s comments and try to improve their written production. In a nutshell, Harmer (2005) suggests two ways for responding. The first one is to give comments on each version the student writes and he each time revises the comments. The second way is reformulation. That is, the teacher writes a new version of the student’s paragraph, for instance, and the student tries to read it, recognize his/her mistakes, and then rewrites a new one avoiding his/her mistakes. This way, students would be able to learn from their mistakes after discovering them and without any kind of embarrassment.
- ❖ Another technique that can be used to give feedback on written production is *coding*. It mainly consists of using codes and can be put “...either in the body of the writing itself, or in a corresponding margin” (Harmer, 2005, p.111). These codes can be symbols, letters, etc. but it is important that students understand the meaning of every code.

2.4.6. Benefits and Drawbacks of Feedback

The issue of the effects of feedback is controversial. Results of research in this area are many and varied. Truscott (1996; as cited in Warden, 2000) claims that error correction has negative effects on learners. Similarly, other researchers (Kepner, 1991; Semke, 1984; Sheppard, 1992; in as cited in Warden, 2000) confirm the harmfulness of grammar correction. In contrast, other researchers (Liou, 1993; Warden, 1995; as cited in Warden, 2000) found that error correction is beneficial. Gower, Phillips and Walters (2005) assume that “giving

feedback is one of the most important responsibilities of a teacher. By providing ongoing feedback you can help your students evaluate their success and progress” (p.163). In fact, what can be drawn from these findings is that feedback can have various effects. As an answer to Truscott’s claims about the uselessness of feedback, Bitchner, Young and Cameron (2005) report a number of studies that proved the effectiveness of feedback and its role in improving accuracy (Kepner, 1991; Polio, Fleck & Leder, 1998; Robb, Ross & Shortreed, 1986; Semke, 1984; Sheppard, 1992).

According to Littlewood (2003), “feedback provides learners with knowledge of how successful their performance has been” (p.90). In other words, they would be able to recognize their mistakes and get them corrected, and discover where they do well in a given activity. He names two criteria for measuring success: structural criteria which are concerned with correctness of language and how it is conveyed, and communicative criteria which he associates with the message itself that the activity tends to convey. Littlewood (2003) concludes his explanation by saying that “success will be measured according to both structural and communicative criteria” (p.90). He further adds that “...an utterance may be successful according to communicative criteria even though it is formally incorrect. Likewise, an utterance may be formally correct but fail to convey the intended meaning” (p.90). This, in fact, widens the horizons of feedback and encourages more attentive techniques for giving it. Littlewood (2003) insists on this and claims that teachers should be very clear when they give feedback. This leads him to divide classroom activities into two types: pre-communicative activities in which the teacher is supposed to focus on form, and communicative activities in which the teacher’s focus should be on meaning. However, there should be moderation in correcting both form and meaning so that learners do not neglect one aspect on behalf of the another.

Feedback has always been an issue of investigation for the sake of fostering the learning process. Research never stops and every day new questions are asked: what we correct, how and what aspects of language should be more emphasized than others? Truscott (1996; as cited in Bitchner, Young & Cameron, 2005) argues that error correction does not automatically result in improving students' level in accuracy, and that no research practically proved that. He further adds that "error correction is harmful because it diverts time and energy away from the more productive aspects of a writing programme" (p.192). Truscott's claims are strange and non-convincing. If feedback with all its forms and techniques does not help in drawing students' attention to their mistakes and therefore, correcting them, why it was and is still a vital issue in FL learning research. Moreover, teachers should be trained on its use and they themselves should equally train their students on how to give feedback to themselves and their peers. Ferris (1999; as cited in Bitchner, Young & Cameron, 2005) stands against Truscott's claims and describes them as "premature". Equally, Chandler (2003) claims that Truscott did not take into account everything about feedback.

Of course, students may or may not like feedback. Some of them want to be corrected in order to avoid their mistakes and improve the language they are learning. In this vein, Harmer (2005) clearly says that "most students want and expect us to give them feedback on their performance" (p.104). Others, however, hate to be corrected by their teachers for they feel embarrassed and that their peers laugh at them. Harmer (2005) makes a distinction between "communicative" and "non-communicative" activities and asserts that giving feedback on students' performance should vary from one activity to another. He further argues that in the first type of activities, teachers "should not interrupt students in mid-flow to point out a grammatical, lexical, or pronunciation error" (p.109). However, in "non-communicative" activities, teachers are expected to give feedback on every mistake on the basis that what is sought here is accuracy; that is, correctness. As for the former situation, he

argues that “teacher intervention in such circumstances can raise stress levels and stop the acquisition process in its tracks” (p.105). The methodologist Tony Lynch shares this view and states that “...the best answer to the question of when to intervene in learner talk is: as late as possible” (Lynch, 1997; cited in Harmer, 2005, p.105). These justifications and arguments are not of course completely true. It is sometimes necessary for teachers to intervene even during a fluency activity; otherwise, students may develop seriously-wrong concepts of particular aspects of language and store them in their minds. Furthermore, too much correction of accuracy is equally undesirable because students may feel bored and lose the desire for learning. In brief, teachers should be moderate in their correction and wise in their interventions.

2.5. Evaluation

The notion of evaluation is in fact very broad and comprehensive. It applies to “teaching, teaching materials, and even tests; as well as learning” (Davies & Pearse, 2000, p. 170). According to Waring (2004) “evaluating the learning of the pupils and the trainee in each lesson is an essential element in what should be a holistic process of teaching, if the learning of both is to be progressive” (p. 86). Naturally, some students fear their teachers’ evaluation. This category of students is characterized by high levels of anxiety. The latter is defined as “an uncomfortable emotional state in which one perceives danger, feels powerless, and experiences tension in the face of an expected danger” (Aydin, n.d., p.20).

2.5.1. Assessment

Assessment is an essential aspect of any learning task. Pinter (2006) defines it as:

The process of data analysis that teachers use to get evidence about their learners’ performance and progress in English. In terms of purpose, assessment is carried out because head teachers, school authorities, and parents require

evidence of learning but it is also the right of the children to know how they are doing. (p.104)

In fact, it appreciates its failure or success and brightens the way in front of the learner.

The following figure clearly shows the place of assessment in the whole process of teaching and learning:

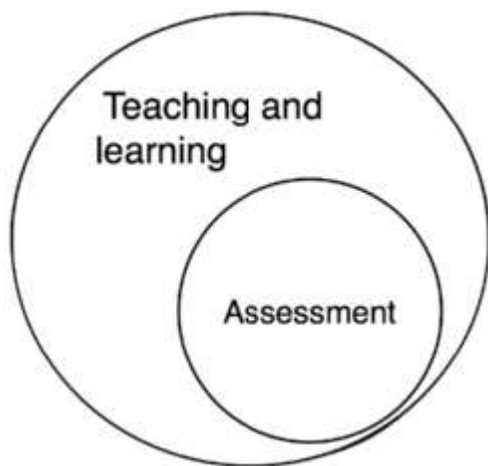


Figure 8: Assessment within Teaching and Learning (Fautley & Savage, 2008, p.56)

Urquhart and McIver (2005) report Miller's view of the position of assessment in relation to measurement which is "composed of two separate and distinct components: assessment and evaluation.... Assessment [is] gathering information to meet the particular needs of a student, and evaluation [is] judging the information that results" (p. 27). Similarly, Black and William (1998) maintain that the term "assessment" refers to "all those activities undertaken by teachers, and by their students in assessing themselves, which provide information to be used as feedback to modify the teaching and learning activities in which they are engaged" (cited in Boulton, 2011, p.145). Research has specifically focused on assessment for the sake of enlightening teachers with new and more effective resorts when it comes to filtering learners' products. Moreover, "*assessment for learning* provides teachers with detailed information on pupil progress so that teaching can be developed and enhanced to meet the needs of the pupil's learning" (Headington, 2004, p. 117).

In CLT, the reform equally touched assessment resulting in more appropriate forms of assessing students. Urquhart and McIver (2005) report that “[the National Writing Project and Nagin (2003)] state that assessment should identify and diagnose a specific problem or provide information so that a teacher can adjust a lesson to meet students’ future needs” (p. 29). Brown (2004) argues that every teacher should hold a given philosophy of assessment and grading that conforms to his/her teaching approach on the basis that “preparing students for an examination is a special responsibility” (Burgess & Head, 2005, p. 1). In fact, the notion of assessment has been recently reexamined especially with the increasing number of theories in language learning which emphasize the central role of the learner in the learning process.

Assessment has many purposes. Some are related to the learners and others serve the teacher himself. Taylor (2004) maintains that it “has a two-fold purpose. It tells you (a) what individual (and groups of) pupils have learnt, but it also tells you about (b) yourself as a teacher” (p.107). In other words, assessment is considered as a ‘mirror’ that is supposed to reflect the real image of both the amount of learning intake and the degree of task fulfillment along with the present negative points and if possible the ways of leaving them behind. The following table by Macintosh and Hale (1976, taken from Boulton, 2011, p.147) explains other purposes of assessment:

Diagnosis	To monitor progress and to find out how the student is assimilating what is being taught. Specific action may be instituted as a result of diagnostic assessment
Evaluation	To evaluate the effectiveness of the teaching which can lead to specific action
Guidance	To assist students in making decisions about the future, whether it concerns choice of a subject or a course, or whether it is to help in choosing a suitable career
Prediction	To discover potential abilities and aptitudes and to predict probable future successes whether in school or outside
Selection	To determine which are the most suitable candidates for a course, a class or a university
Grading	To assign students to a particular group, to discriminate between the individuals in a group

Table 4: Purposes of Assessment

According to Harmer (2005), assessment can be either negative or positive. The former takes the form of blames and criticism, whereas the latter can be apparent when students are praised and well-appreciated for their performance. As for the former case, “assessment practices could potentially have a negative impact on young learners unless they are carried out with extreme care” (Mckay, 2006, p.91). It is a matter of fact that students receive feedback and assessment from: the teacher, their peers and themselves. Each of these three sources has a given way to assess the learner. As has already been mentioned, Brown (2004) does not seem to support self- and peer assessment for learners may lack subtlety to do that. From the same angle, Harmer (2005) discusses the drawbacks of mishandling assessment stating that “indiscriminate praise or blame will have little positive effect... but measured approval and disapproval which demonstrates a teacher’s interest in and attention to a student’s work may well result in continuing or even increased motivation” (p.101). Assessing students in the appropriate, fruitful way is not a matter of chance nor is it random. On the contrary, having sufficient knowledge on how to put it into practice can greatly pave the way for successful assessment. Harmer (ibid.) suggests three ways in which teachers can assess their students:

- ❖ Comments: from time to time teachers comment on their students’ performance for the sake of encouraging them when they do well or drawing attention to their mistakes in case of bad performance. Comments are unavoidable but they can have good or bad effects on students. Indeed, it is extremely important to know what to say and when and how to say it.
- ❖ Marks and grades: like Brown, Harmer (2005) poses the issue that concerns the basis for giving grades.

Harmer (2005) emphasizes the extreme importance of convincing, at least, demonstrating the basis on which the marks are given. The point raised by Harmer plays a major role in the student himself. More clearly, convincing the student that he took the grade or mark he

deserves can lead him/her to make confidence in all that the teacher says or does; therefore, the level of learning would be enhanced.

- ❖ Another way of assessment is reports. Harmer (2005) states that “at the end of a term or year some teachers write reports on, their students’ performance either for the student, the school or the parents of that student” (p.102). These reports would be so helpful in guiding students and their parents towards keeping the same pace of learning or make more effort.

2.5.1.1. Self and Peer Assessment

Self-assessment is another alternative way that can be a good option for teachers. It is “an integral part of a learner-centered approach” (Pinter, 2006, p.136). As far as peer-assessment is concerned, it is derived from the principles of cooperative learning (Brown 2004). The latter mainly consists of peers working together (pairs or groups) and trying to help and receive help from each other.

Self-assessment starts to work when we involve learners in every activity and ask them to give their opinions about their peers’ responses as well as their own. In fact, you cannot come one day and say to the student “assess yourself” or “give feedback on your peers’ production”. Learners first need to develop autonomy which is the main principle of self-assessment. Though it is somehow difficult to reach a stage at which students can perfectly and objectively assess themselves, training students would be greatly helpful to them for future progress.

This way of learning has been proved to be successful with both linguistic and psychological advantages on the learner. Researchers (Brown & Hudson, 1998; in Brown, 2004) agree on some benefits of self- and peer-assessment such as “direct involvement of students in their own destiny, the encouragement of autonomy, and increased motivation because of their self-involvement” (p.270). Most of these advantages are rather psychological.

Put it another way, learners need to be psychologically stable and at ease before they would be able to develop any linguistic ability. Brown (2004) criticizes this kind of assessment and insists that the resulting “subjectivity” should be taken into account. He equally wonders “how could learners who are still in the process of acquisition, especially the early processes, be capable of rendering an accurate assessment of their own performance? ... [Students may be] too harsh on themselves or too self-flattering, or they may not have the necessary tools to make an accurate assessment” (p. 270). In a nutshell, in order for students to be able to assess themselves and their peers, they basically need some training and also control over their behavior. Certainly, it is not as easy as that but at least this is where we start.

Headington (2004, p.118) classifies assessment into four types:

1. *Formative* assessment is to promote effective further learning by pupils. This type can equally improve learning (Marzano, 2007). Pinter (2006) assumes that informing and improving teaching is what formative assessment aim at.
2. *Summative assessment* provides a summary of a pupil’s attainment and progress at a given point. It is normally carried out at the end of a period of teaching or instruction.
3. *Diagnostic assessment* takes place when teachers diagnose a pupil’s work to ascertain the cause of a difficulty.
4. *Evaluative assessment* draws upon the results of individual pupil assessments.

In this regard, Fautley and Savage (2008) demonstrate the interrelatedness of the first two types of assessment in the following figure:

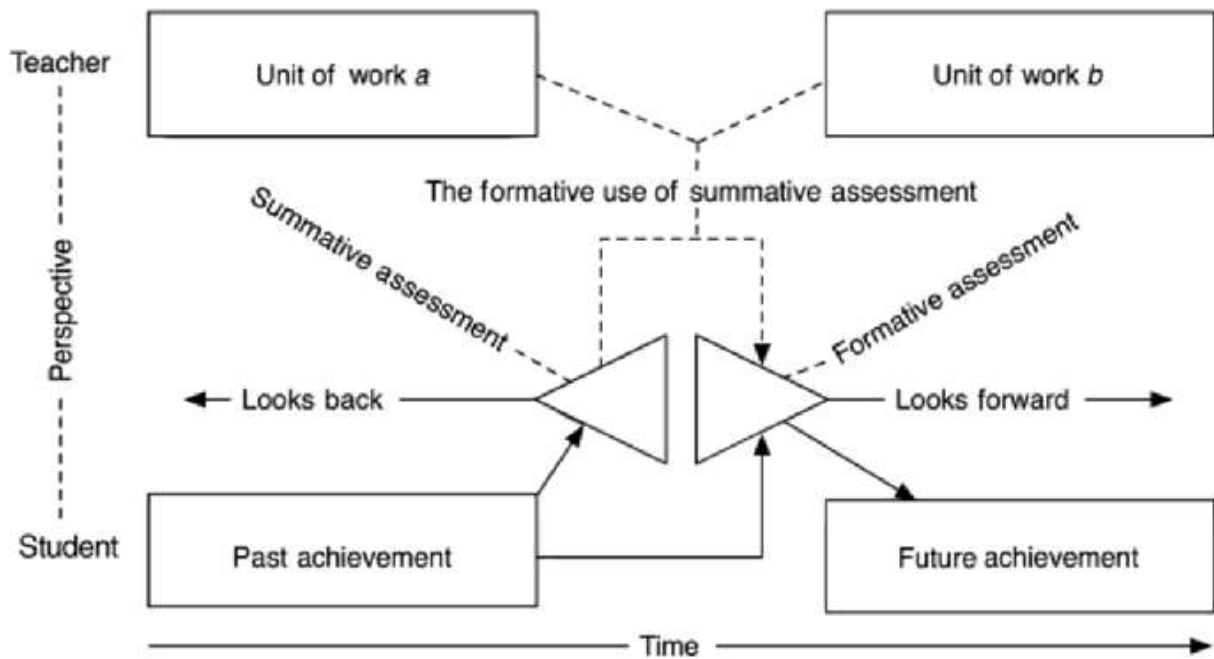


Figure 9: Assessment Modalities Revisited (p. 68)

Assessment may not be an enjoyable task to implement. Otte and Mlynarczyk (2010) report Richard Lloyd-Jones' view (1986) in this regard who states that:

The assessment of writing abilities is essentially a managerial task. It represents an effort to record quantitatively the quality of the writing or writing skills of a group of people so that administrators can make policies about educational programs. Tests are given and scores are assigned to individual performances of people as parts of large groups. As a rule the scores then are used in the aggregate. (p. 20)

Assessing students can have various and different purposes:

- to provide evidence of students' knowledge and understanding of a particular course of study
- to provide evidence of students' acquisition of subject-specific skills, or the ability to apply knowledge and understanding (e.g. students' ability to carry out certain forms of analysis)
- to indicate how effectively students can express their knowledge and understanding in writing
- to help students learn, or consolidate their learning (both of subject

knowledge/skills and of academic writing conventions)

- to provide feedback to students on their work
- to motivate students to carry out certain activities
- to provide a diagnostic assessment of a student's writing (before providing writing support for the student)
- to help you evaluate your own teaching
- to help students evaluate their own learning. (Coffin et al., 2003,p. 75)

2.5.2. Testing

Heaton (1990) explains the status of testing in relation to both teaching and learning saying:

Both testing and teaching are so closely interrelated that it is virtually impossible to work in either field without being constantly concerned with the other. Tests may be constructed primarily as devices to reinforce learning and to motivate the student or primarily as a means of assessing the student's performance in the language. (p.5)

Testing is considered as one possible way for implementing evaluation. It is defined as “an activity whose main purpose is to convey (usually to the tester) how well the testee knows or can do something” (Ur, 1991, p. 33). Likewise, Davies and Pearse (2000) state that “a test normally consists of one or more exercises or tasks, each with clear objectives” (p.171). In the same vein, Westwood (2008a) explains that for tests to be very effective, they should be able to tell about the students' real capacities in relation to the content of the whole course.

Two major types of tests are discussed in the literature: Achievement tests and proficiency tests. McNamara (2000) explains the difference between them stating that the former type deals with the various results of teaching including the degree of students' learning where as the proficiency tests are concerned with “the future situation of language use” (p.7). Another classification of tests is made by Gower, Phillips and Walters (2005):

placement test to assist the formation of groups of students at the same level, or a *diagnostic test* which is designed to tell you and the students what they do and don't know at the beginning of a course. Teachers often give a weekly *progress test* on the work covered. This can be in the form of a formal written test or a more informal group activity, even a game-as long as it gives information to both you and the students as to how they are doing...If the students are following a course leading to an external examination they are usually eager to do *practice tests* to get some idea of how close that are to the required standard. (p.171)

According to Hughes (2003), “given the decision to test writing ability directly, we are in a position to state the testing problem, in a general form, for writing. This has three parts:

1. We have to set writing tasks that re probably representative of the population of tasks that we should expect the students to be able to perform.
2. The tasks should elicit valid samples of writing (i.e. which truly represent the students' ability).
3. It is essential that the samples of writing can and will be scored validly and reliably. (p.83)

2.5.3. Grading

Grades rather play a major role in students' academic life because they define the learner. Brown (2004) states clearly that “educational systems define honor students, marginal students, college-bound students..., failing students, and average students not so much by the quality of their performance(s) and not necessarily by demonstrated skills that have been observed, but rather by grades” (p. 282). For this reason, every teacher should have some knowledge on how to give students the grades they really deserve.

One might wonder as to the factors that should be considered in assigning the final grade to the student. Frankly speaking, the issue is somehow interwoven that one might not find it easy to evaluate a student. Gronlund (1998; as in Brown, 2004) states that grades should be based on “student achievement, and achievement only. Grades should represent the extent to which the intended learning outcomes were achieved, by students. They should *not*

be contaminated by student effort, tardiness, misbehavior, and other extraneous factors...” (p. 284). According to Gronlund (1998), then, only performance should be evaluated, where as extra factors which are indirectly related to performance are of little or no importance at all. Though Gronlund’s point of view can be considered as a reference to grading, other researchers do not agree with his philosophy including (Progosh, 1998; Grove, 1998 & Power, 1998; cited in Brown, 2004). Brown (2004) similarly does not agree with Gronlund and argues that “we may not be able to capture the totality of students’ competence through formal tests; other observations are also significant indicators of ability. Nor should we discount most teachers’ intuition, which enables them to form impressions of students that cannot easily be verified empirically” (p. 284). Brown’s arguments are rather convincing for he does not seem to prioritize one factor over another. However, his final argument is not so much reliable unless teachers define specific criteria based on scientifically-proved techniques.

Brown (2004) classifies the factors that should be included in the grading scheme into two: non-achievement and measurable factors. He advises teachers saying: “challenge yourself to create checklists, charts, and note-taking systems that allow you to convey to the students the basis for your conclusions” (p.285). In reality, many teachers avoid grading their students by incorporating factors such as: motivation, effort, etc. One justification is that they think that these factors lack objectivity. This gain takes us back to the coming core of this chapter and we can say that they lack knowledge on how to avoid subjectivity and turn these factors into essential elements in grading. Measurable factors are by all means more weighty than others. However, allocating small percentage to them would not exclude the achievement factor nor would it deny their reliability. Brown (2004) greatly emphasizes the notion of “grading philosophy” that each school should hold stating that “being cognizant of an institutional philosophy of grading is an important step toward a consistent and fair evaluation

of your students” (p. 292). The notion of “fair evaluation” is in fact hard to fulfill on the basis that every teacher tries to put his own evaluation criteria.

Conclusion

Teaching writing is a rather complex process that requires the collaboration of all sides: the teacher, the learner and the researcher in addition to the synthesis of major efforts. The role of the latter is undeniable and has to be highly and positively appreciated by teachers. The success of the whole process is a challenge that has to be won given the importance of the skill for language learning as a whole. All teachers are, then, appealed to engage into this hard task and implement it as successfully as possible.

Compared to the other basic language skills, writing then appears to be the most intricate on the basis that its teaching and learning require a deep knowledge of a long list of rules and aspects without which no effective teaching and learning would take place. Accordingly, it has to be granted unique importance by teachers. As far as the learner’s role is concerned, it seems to be a big challenge to him. This is because mastering the writing skill compels him to be equipped with a variety of linguistic sub-skills and a wide range of knowledge. Because the present study revolves around teachers’ perceptions, beliefs and practices in relation to the writing skill, it is of paramount importance to devote the following chapter to defining and clarifying the constructs under study.



CHAPTER THREE: TEACHERS' PEDAGOGICAL KNOWLEDGE, PERCEPTIONS, BELIEFS AND PRACTICES IN TEACHING WRITING

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CHAPTER THREE: TEACHERS' PEDAGOGICAL KNOWLEDGE, PERCEPTIONS, BELIEFS AND PRACTICES IN TEACHING WRITING

Introduction

The reasons behind this research are strong and urgent. This is particularly because of what has been observed. Our experience at university, though short and young pushed us to wonder at what is going on with our students when they write in English. In the previous chapter, some reasons, which are deemed to be related to their weaknesses, have been relatively explained. Nevertheless, a broad scope of these causes would be provided in this chapter. But before we do that, it is of paramount importance to shed light on the teacher; his pedagogical knowledge and its source(s), and his general beliefs and practices.

New teaching and learning strategies and techniques have been lately designed for the sake of coping with the changing nature of the pedagogical process which is rapidly moving towards the incorporation of technology though what is new is not necessarily effective and fruitful.

1. Teachers' Pedagogical Knowledge

According to Rahimi (n.d.), important issues have to be highlighted and put under the spot like: "student teachers' language competence, pedagogical knowledge, and teaching competency" (p.1). It is of paramount importance to draw attention to the issue that teachers' pedagogical knowledge has been the focus of many studies during the last few decades. This is basically because PK is a key component in what actually makes the teacher and that there should be "a shift from learning about teaching to learning how to teach and from 'knowledge for teachers' to 'knowledge of teachers'" (Rahimi, n.d., p. 3).

1.1. Definition

Pedagogical knowledge is what teachers know about teaching. Gatbonton (1999) defines pedagogical knowledge (PK) as “the teacher’s accumulated knowledge about the teaching act...that serves as the basis for his or her classroom behavior activities” (p.35). This knowledge can be just a set of information or coupled with a number of skills. In other words, it is knowing how to teach and what to give to learners. In the same vein Rahimi (n.d.) claims that PK is “what teachers should know to be qualified to teach a subject and *how* they actually learn to teach it” (p.1). Of course, students or pupils by nature expect a lot from their teachers and believe that they know everything and have answers to all their questions whatsoever. To some extent, they are right i.e. teachers should take in as much knowledge and information as they can and be ready for any questions. That is to say, it is not only important what to teach but how to transfer this knowledge to the learners. Moreover, knowledge transfer can happen but with no learning taking place.

What is observed here is that each time we discuss something, the conclusion turns around TLP. This means that whatever we do, all that actually concerns us and is of real importance to us is learning. The problem is that not all teachers are aware of this, and not all of them care about learning and whether it takes place or not. This again proves that motivation and teachers’ determination are essential in the success of both teaching and learning. We have already raised the issue of motivation and some of its advantages have been mentioned. We have equally claimed that motivated teachers will themselves motivate their learners. This is on the one hand. On the other hand, sometimes even if learners are motivated, they might lose their motivation if teachers show no real desire for teaching. This is not randomly said. Research proves the huge part teachers can play on their learners.

1.2. Kinds of Knowledge

The classification of knowledge into types is a debatable issue, and scholars have various perceptions of the criteria for the categorization. For instance, MacDonald, Badger and White (2001) state that “declarative knowledge is knowledge *about* teaching- knowledge of subject areas and the ‘theory’ of education; procedural knowledge is knowledge of *how* to teach- knowledge of instructional routines to be used in the classroom” (cited in Rahimi, p. 2). Another classification of teachers’ PK is what Borg (2003) calls “practical knowledge”. Teachers’ practical knowledge is considered as teachers’ general knowledge, beliefs and thinking (Arioğul, 2007). The latter equally reported “six background sources that were assumed to affect the content of language teachers’ practical knowledge: personal characteristics, frequency and nature of reflection, prior education, years of experience (in teaching), the language taught, and the school context” (p.171).

Hawthorn (2011) classifies knowledge into four types:

- *Strategic knowledge*: it consists of knowing how to use the various strategies that lead to successful learning.
- *Genre’ knowledge*: this is the kind of knowledge that students need for their successful life.
- *Linguistic knowledge*: it involves knowledge about “complex vocabulary, language resources, literary devices, sentence constructions and grammatical control”(p.15)
- *Content knowledge*: it is knowledge of subject matter i.e. having enough ideas for writing.

In addition to what has been stated, let’s consider the following classification:

- *Meta-cognitive knowledge*: It comprises what “individuals understand about themselves as learners and thinkers, including their goals and needs” (Bernat & Gvozdenko, 2005, p.2). Meta-cognitive knowledge has been highly emphasized for it includes beliefs about

language learning. This means that it is of paramount importance to clarify the nature of this knowledge. It is called ‘person knowledge’ and is defined as “knowledge learners have acquired about how cognitive and affective factors such as learner aptitude, personality, and motivation may influence learning” (ibid.). As opposed to this view, Wenden (1999) claims that beliefs are not part of meta-cognitive knowledge on the basis that they are “value-related and tend to be held more tenaciously” (cited in Bernat & Gvozdenko, 2005, pp.2-3).

Bernat and Gvozdenko (2005) reports Wenden’s view about meta-cognitive knowledge which is referred to as “information, which learners acquire about learning” (p.3). Research (Bandura & Schunk, 1981; Como, 1986; Cotterall, 1995; Mccombs, 1984; cited in Bernat & Gvozdenko, 2005) reveals that “attitudes towards learning, and the perceptions and beliefs that determine them, may have a profound influence on learning behaviour” (p.4). It is of paramount importance that learners hold deep understanding of perceptions about language learning and how to be able to use strategies effectively (Anstey, 1988; Biggs, 1987; Ehrman & Oxford, 1989, 1991; Oxford, 1990; Zimmerman & Martinez-pons, 1986; in Bernat & Gvozdenko, 2005). More investigation about beliefs would provide more clues for understanding the learner and the learning process.

Goh (1997) conducted a study about Meta-cognitive knowledge and came to the conclusion that “learners become aware of their learning styles, strategies and beliefs that could lead them to improve their own learning processes in other contexts” (Bernat & Gvozdenko, 2005, p.6). It means that meta-cognitive knowledge plays an important role in language learning. For this reason and others, it is worth investigation. This is what is called “The Meta-cognitive Approach”.

- **Experiential Knowledge:** It is a matter of fact that teachers should have some ‘professional knowledge’ in order to do their jobs. Schön (cited in Wallace, 1991) states

that there are two kinds of knowledge. In Wallace's words, "the first kind consists of facts, data and theories, often related to some kind of research" (p.12). Although it is extremely difficult to specify the content of each of these terms, Wallace mentions: linguistics, assessment, etc. This is the kind of knowledge teachers receive in college. In other words, this is the minimum level of knowledge every teacher should have. Wallace (1991) tries to call it 'research-based' arguing that " (a) the trainee has 'received' it rather than 'experienced' it in professional action, and (b) it is a deliberate echo of the phrase 'received wisdom'(meaning what is commonly accepted without proof or question), which it resembles in certain ways" (p.12).

The second kind of knowledge is called 'experienced knowledge'; its definition is not as simple as the previous kind. Wallace (1991) defines 'experiential knowledge' "as deriving from two phenomena described by Schön: 'knowing-in-action' and 'reflection'" (p.13). He claims that not all that is demonstrated in the classroom is necessarily dealt with or investigated in research or even taught in college. McLeod and McIntyre (1977; cited in Wallace, 1991) make a comment on the classroom saying that "one striking feature of classrooms is the sheer complexity, quantity and rapidity of classroom interaction" (p.13).

The other part of 'experiential knowledge' is reflection. The latter consists of reflecting on professional's behaviors and performances. In other words, they should continuously check and revise what they say and do.

1.3. Construction of Teachers' Pedagogical Knowledge

According to Levine (2003), most teachers have constituted individualized approaches to LT, and each approach "can be influenced by pedagogical training, knowledge of the second language acquisition (SLA) literature, official policy, and classroom experience"(p. 343). In the first place, teachers are required to know that "the knowledge base of effective

language teachers includes not only linguistic and pedagogical theory, but also the wealth of their individual” (Knezevic & Scholl, 2002, p. 79). Moreover, teachers should try to construct their knowledge “assuring a blend of theoretical knowledge and practical applications of that knowledge in various phases of the teaching/learning process” (Rydell, 1985, p.52). Talking about the construction of teachers’ PK is in my opinion a matter of two factors: time and willingness. Concerning the first factor, it is obvious that in order to gather some knowledge that is going to be useful for one’s career, one needs a certain amount of time, so this is very natural because of the long process of gathering information and studying. The second step does not, in fact, apply to all teachers, for some believe that after graduation and getting a job, nothing else is necessary even if it is related to the career itself. Here also, we equally raise the issue of motivation and its effects on teaching. We would say that motivated teachers are continuously searching and trying to add to their background knowledge for the sake of improving and fostering learning as well as helping students to tackle some issues which can directly or indirectly boost learning. Another category of teachers rely, instead, on some training that they receive from time to time and which is under the supervision of inspectors and think that this is all they need for teaching. The last category of teachers; however, do not even give importance to this kind of training and teach the way that suits them. Here also, we shed light on the issue of willingness but this time in relation to knowledge construct. The latter is not something that happens by itself. Unless teachers are willing to widen their knowledge by reading and asking more experienced teachers, they would stay what they are forever.

The worst thing is that teachers might not give importance to PK and its contribution to TLP. PK is absolutely another factor in this process and it greatly contributes to its success. For this reason, it is of paramount importance to take care about it and teachers should continuously innovate it and add to it as much as they can. In reality, PK is useful for both

teachers and learners and if adequately gathered and exploited, it would result in good outcomes. When talking about the good teacher, the first thing that has to be highlighted is PK and it is the latter that leads to other things. In conclusion, PK is a strong component TLP; it defines the teacher and is useful for learning.

1.4. Sources of Teachers' Pedagogical Knowledge

Like other professions, teaching is a job that requires continuous reading and research in the field. In other words, teachers should not rely only on what they have learnt at university or college. Research is frequently devising new techniques of teaching and confirming or denying different hypotheses about teaching. For this reason, teachers should at least try to be up to date so far as TLP is concerned. This can be achieved either individually i.e. the teacher himself does the job or by reading and asking about what is new, or through the seminars and conferences which are occasionally held by experts. Their role is to give lectures for the sake of enlightening teachers about what is new in the field. In fact, we have such a thing in Algeria but in my opinion the goals are not always reached.

Rahimi (n.d.) assumes that teachers' PK should incorporate three basic components:

- knowledge of language: content knowledge, knowledge of the subject matter, English language
- knowledge of science of teaching and pedagogy: pedagogical knowledge, knowledge of generic teaching strategies, beliefs, and practices; along with support knowledge, the knowledge of the various disciplines that would enrich teachers' approach to the teaching and learning of English
- knowledge/competency of teaching in reality: pedagogical content knowledge, the specialized knowledge of how to represent content knowledge in the classroom and how students come to understand the subject matter in the context of real teaching; the

students' problems and ways to overcome those problems by considering all variables related to their learning (teaching materials, assessment procedures, parents, etc.). (p.4)

1.4.1. Training

The university diploma is logically one of the other things that decide about one's future career. As far as teaching is concerned, there are many degrees that enable graduates to teach at different levels (B.A., M.A., etc). The other thing that actually deserves questioning is training. After all, teachers' "chief expectation is to learn how to teach" (Hedgcock, 2002, p. 300). In reality, so many teachers are confronted with various problems during the first years of their career due to the lack or absence of initial training, and some of them stop teaching and look for other jobs. It means that the obtained degree and training are basic elements for the success of TLP.

The issue of the teachers' PK is deep and vast. This leads us to speak about their studies at university or college. Those who graduate from the teacher training schools are taught and trained to become teachers. It means that everything is carried out on this basis. The syllabuses of various modules, the media, and the materials are all devised to teach future teachers. The latter are also trained in schools i.e. real contexts of teaching. Thus, we can claim that all what they need for their future career starts here. This category of teachers is more or less ready and equipped with all teaching necessities. With the other category of teachers; however, things are very much different. In the first place, they are not specifically trained to become teachers; they just have a degree in the English language. That is to say, they might lack many things that can contribute to the success of the teaching process including the teaching methods and the way of dealing with pupils. These things can be acquired throughout time; however, it might be too long before the teacher acquires what is necessary for teaching. All this leads us to put into consideration two important factors in

TLP: the teacher's degree and experience. In fact, the two factors play significant roles and each has specific impacts on the career.

1.4.2. Reading

Reading is a receptive skill which has many advantages for enhancing the other skills and especially writing. In the first place, it is worth mentioning that reading is “a complex skill, that is to say, that it involves a whole series of lesser skills” (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill & Pincas 1980, p.89). Moreover, it is “a unitary process which cannot be subdivided into subsequent skills. Strategies involve ways of processing text which will vary with the nature of the text, the reader's purpose, and the context of situation” (Wallace, 1992, p.57). Davies and Pearse (2000) emphasize its importance stating that “nobody learns a language without a lot of *input* through listening, and sometimes through reading” (p.104). Here, we would mention some of its benefits. In the first place, it teaches concentration and patience; two essential things for better learning of any language. Second, it teaches vocabulary. The latter is what the learner basically needs to write simple or more complex sentences. If he has no or weak vocabulary, he would produce very poor materials and no improvement would take place. In fact, vocabulary should be taught as a separate module because it is part of what makes the language. For this reason, its mastery leads to acquiring the language that is being learned and reading is a strong source of vocabulary. Third, reading enables the learner to discover new structures and expressions and idioms that he can use in his own writing. In addition to what has been said, the learner might be influenced by the writer and his style and might become fond of writing because of that. Finally, reading is pleasurable, and it is a good thing to do during one's spare time. The problem is that recently, learners are no longer willing to read, and their free time is spent in the arms of technology.

Regarding the great benefits of reading for teachers and teaching, it is of high importance to try to draw their attention to that. Normally, teachers have already developed this good habit when they were students. But, it is possible that some of them did not read any books at university. Research proves that there exists a strong link between reading and other essential skills. According to Anderson (2003), “reading is an essential skill for learners of English. For most of learners it is the most important skill to master in order to ensure success in learning” (p. 2). Moreover, “reading serves the wider role of extending our general knowledge of the world” (Wallace, 1992, p. 7). This is the reason why, teachers often insist on their students to read anything, in any language, at any time. Here, we are talking about the advantages of reading for teachers. In reality, not all teachers read about their specialization and try to develop their ideas or add to their knowledge in order to improve their level of teaching. In fact, reading is great and it can immensely help teachers in their career via drawing their attention to new techniques and ways of teaching that can be more appropriate and effective than the old ones, gives them more ideas, strategies and information that can answer some or all of the learners’ questions. The question that poses itself is: why does not a good percentage of teachers read? In fact, this question has many possible answers. First, it is possible that some teachers think that their knowledge is sufficient for teaching, and that they do not need any other information. Others; however, are simply not fond of reading though they are highly convinced that reading can enrich their PK. It is also possible that a good part of teachers do not know what to read or do not find what they want to read.

1.4.3. Experience

As far as experience is concerned, things are a little bit different. It is acquired throughout time and it has huge effects on teachers’ PK and how to use it. Berry (2008, p.10) claims that “the development of knowledge through experience” is a worthy matter. Most

people believe that experienced teachers know more than novice teachers, and that they can teach better than them. This; however, is not always the case though the factor of ‘age’ can be considerable sometimes.

Teachers’ PK is built throughout time and from a variety of sources. For this reason, most scholars believe that the more experienced teachers are, the wider knowledge they have. Others; however, argue that experience does not have great effects on this kind of knowledge, and claim that the latter can be acquired via reading books, and the results of research. A good teacher is the one who does not just rely on what he has been taught at university or college; rather, he should try to build his knowledge by himself. Moreover, he should try to understand TLP and be ready to deal with any issue while teaching. Woods (1996) came to the conclusion that “BAK evolves through experience and through the gradual resolution of conflicts arising from novel situations” (p.213). The more experience teachers have, the different their beliefs and assumptions about teaching will be. In other words, our knowledge about teaching and learning is not perfect, that is why it is growing.

Other studies, however, (Calderhead, 1991; Morine-Dersheimer, 1989, Almarza, 1996; cited in Gatbonton, 1999) show that other sources are possible. One important source these studies emphasize is the teacher’s own teachers. That is to say, teachers try to imitate much of their teachers’ behavior in teaching. We all were pupils and later on students and used to comment on our teachers’ ways of teaching. It is quite natural that this would at a later time have some effects on our lives and more specifically if we choose to become teachers. Williams (2003) reports that “it is often said that teachers teach the way they were taught” (p.141). Likewise, Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill and Pincas (1980) report that “teachers tend to teach by the methods which were used by the teachers who taught them” (p.89). In the same way, Woullard (2007) assumes that “it is an often-made observation that teachers teach the way they learn” (p.9). Of course, a good teacher tries to take only what he/she sees

as good and leaves behind bad practices. This, in fact, can be due to many reasons. First, it can just be a matter of imitation; when we admire someone, we tend to imitate him. Second, some teachers may sometimes find themselves unable to explain something to their pupils no matter what they do. In their attempt to find solutions to these problems, it can occur to them sometimes to follow the same techniques their teachers used to use. This is very common and it can really work if taken seriously.

1.5. Putting Knowledge into Practice

The teaching process is double-edged. The first edge consists of knowing i.e. having some ideas, principles and general knowledge about the particular field that you are concerned with. Of course, one cannot teach if he does not know what to teach. Knowledge; however, is not the only essential element in this process. An equally important element that has to be present is knowing how to transfer this knowledge i.e. how one should inform students of what he knows. In fact, no component is more important than the other. These are two essential and complementary elements in TLP. As time goes on, teachers acquire new ideas and perceptions that they try to test in the teaching process. This issue is rather complicated for many things can interfere to form the teacher pedagogically. First of all, we can talk about that person's personality. The latter can significantly affect his choice to be a teacher. Shyness, for instance, can hinder the teacher's job. The second thing is training. It is absolutely logical that before we start to do something, it is important to get some training on it. In Algeria, graduates of teacher training schools (ENS) are given jobs as teachers in middle and secondary schools. These ex-students have already been trained to become teachers: consequently, no serious problems are posed so far as how to teach is concerned. Still, every teacher has his own way of putting what they know into practice. A good percentage of secondary and middle school teachers have "licence classique" in the English language. This is an old system in higher education. It consists of a four-year formation in English with no

real training of how to teach this language. This system is gradually disappearing from Algerian universities, and it has been replaced by the LMD system. The latter, as everyone knows, offers a formation of three years followed by another couple of years to get the Master's Degree. The graduates can get a job as a teacher of English in middle or secondary schools. Again, not all the specializations within the branch of 'English' contain some training on how to teach with the result that some novice teachers do not actually know where and how to start as far as teaching is concerned. In fact, a distinction is made between knowledge and practice and the good teacher should have the two together.

Being informed about what is new in the field of research is not everything. It is just the first step. The following step is to use what has been learnt. Again, it is no easy thing to do. Sometimes, teachers may give no real excuses. For instance, they would say that they are obliged to stick to the instructions in the textbooks and any change may result in severe punishment by the inspector. Here, it is of great importance to raise their attention to the distinction between what to teach and how to teach. Two teachers may teach the same thing differently. Moreover, the textbooks focus more on the content than on the methods of teaching that material.

Another problem concerning PK comes from aged teachers who generally stick to the old methods and show no readiness for any change whatsoever. They pretend that they know more than the others (those who are new in the profession) and believe that what is old is necessarily good as if it is the case of pieces of antiques; the older they are, the more precious they become. Not coping with the new findings of research in the field of language teaching can deprive pupils/students of the beneficial fruits of research which can result in the failure of language learning. The following figure explains the whole process of teaching:

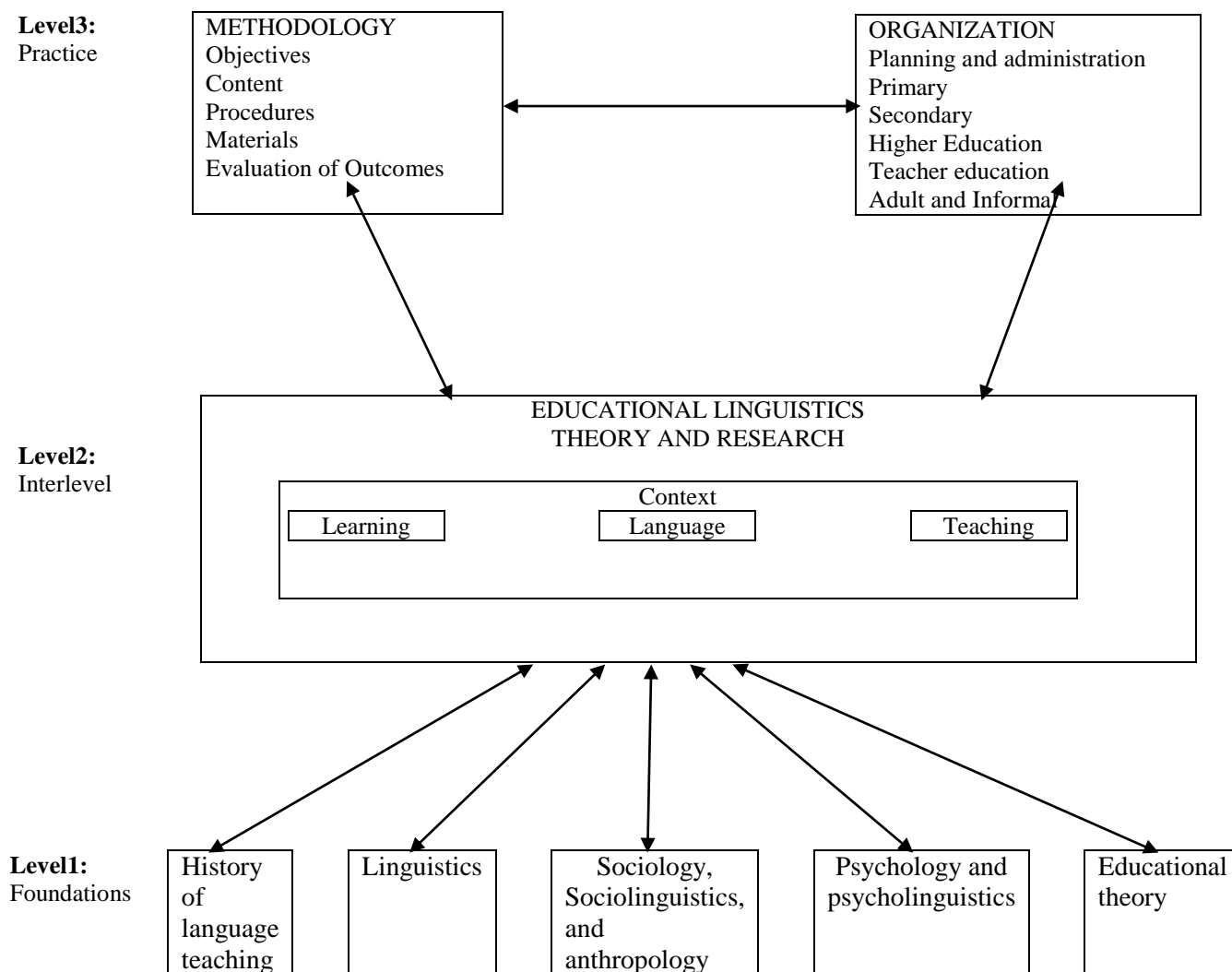


Figure 10: General Model for Second Language Teaching (Stern, 1983, p. 44)

2. Teachers' Beliefs and Perceptions about Teaching

In order to study TLP rigorously and seriously attempt to improve it, one important aspect has to be highlighted and spotlighted: the teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning which are, in turn, shaped by many factors. In fact, no separation should be made between teaching and learning for the former should lead to the latter and the latter should be the automatic result of the former. Despite the wide support of the learner-based approach which gives more focus and importance to the learner, the teacher remains an essential element in the process of teaching. His beliefs have tremendous effects on learning and how it takes place. So, we would insist here not only on the nature of the teacher's role and beliefs that can

affect learning, but also the learner's beliefs. The latter can equally influence learning along with his LS and LLS. In fact, not all of teachers and learners' beliefs are put into practice. For this reason, we cannot know about all their beliefs unless they are asked about that.

Another thing is that teachers do not form beliefs and perceptions for just having them and keeping them in mind. Rather, they influence their decisions and actions in the classroom. According to Woods (1996, p.231), they can affect "teachers' interpretation of various types of teaching events: (i) classroom events (including such structures as exchanges and utterances in the classroom), (ii) the curriculum (including higher level teaching structures, such as institutionally-imposed". Similarly, Inceçay (2011) holds this view and asserts that "beliefs govern people's behaviors" (p.128).

2.1. Definition of Perception

The way we understand and interpret various world phenomena would be largely affected by many factors including our senses, past experiences, motivation, personalities, etc. in other words, our perception of what surrounds us considerably varies from one individual to another and from one context to another. According to Ward, Grinstein and Keim (2015), perception is "the process of recognizing (being aware of), organizing (gathering and storing), and interpreting (binding to knowledge) sensory information. Perception deals with the human senses that generate signals from the environment through sight, hearing, touch, smell and taste" (p.73). Similarly, Tatham and Morton (2011) state that "*Perception* is a central process which is mostly active, in the sense that thinking, or cognitive processing, dominates in the process rather than anything physical" (p.126).

Perception is a highly complex cognitive process. Ward, Grinstein and Keim (2015) explains:

"perception is the process by which we interpret the world around us, forming a mental representation of the environment. This representation is not

isomorphic to the world, but it's subject to many correspondence differences and errors. The brain makes assumptions about the world to overcome the inherent ambiguity in all sensory data, and in response to the task at hand". (p.74)

2.2. Definition of Beliefs

Beliefs have been defined in a variety of ways; a belief is:

- “any simple proposition, conscious or unconscious, inferred from what a person says or does, capable of being preceded by the phrase ‘I believe that...’”(Rokeach, 1971; cited in Bailey, 2006, p. 40).
- “a central construct in every discipline that deals with human behaviour and learning” (Bernat & Gvozdenko, 2005, p.1).
- “ a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held, is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual, and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment; further, it serves as a guide to thought and behaviour” (Borg , 2001, p. 186).
- “stable, storable, although sometimes incorrect knowledge that learners acquired about language learning and the language learning process” (Wenden, 2001; cited in Bernat & Gvozdenko, 2005, p.5).

Breen (2001; cited in Bernat & Gvozdenko, 2005) claims that students’ beliefs and perceptions about the language they are learning can greatly determine their success or failure. In other words, if they believe that TL is complex and is difficult to learn, the ultimate result is failure and vice versa. In fact, it is not a direct cause/effect relationship. That is to say, their attitudes and perceptions about the foreign language are not the only factor that interferes in deciding about the results. In line with these claims, Bernat and Gvozdenko (2005) states that “identification of these beliefs and reflection on their potential impact on language learning and teaching in general, as well as in more specific areas such as the learners’ expectations and

strategies used, can inform future syllabus design and teacher practice in the course”(p.2). In a nutshell, the beliefs that learners hold have multi-dimensional effects. This, in turn, tells us that they are of significant importance.

Bernat and Gvozdenko (2005, p.10) made a list of some factors that can influence learners’ beliefs. These include:

1. Family and home background (Dias, 2000; Schommer, 1990, 1994);
2. Cultural background (Alexander & Dochy, 1995);
3. Classroom/social peers (Arnold, 1999);
4. Interpretations of prior repetitive experiences (Little, Singleton & Slivius, 1984; Gaoyin & Alvermann, 1995; Kern, 1995; Roberts, 1992), and
5. Individual differences such as gender (Siebert, 2003) and personality (Furnham, Johnston & Rawles, 1985; Langston & Sykes, 1997).

2.3. Effects of Experience on Teachers’ Beliefs and Perceptions

Woods (1996) claims that “BAK develop through a teacher’s experience as a learner and a teacher, evolving in the face of conflicts and inconsistencies, and gaining depth and breadth as varied events are interpreted and reflected upon” (p.212). Put it another way, a teacher is not merely what he is, but also what he was and what experience he had. Wood’s results do not absolutely represent what a teacher is for old experience may not have enormous influence on the present teacher. A teacher may start building his /her own career from a given point and none of his/her own past become part of his/her experience as a teacher.

2.4. Effects of Beliefs on Teachers’ Practices

An extremely significant question that always poses itself is: to what extent do teachers use what they know and what they believe to teach? Put it another way, do teachers

really benefit from what they know to find solutions to pedagogical problems? Or, what they know is something and their practices in class is just another thing? Dunkin (2002), summarizes what can be part of teachers' knowledge stating that "[their] concepts and beliefs concerning teaching include, among other things, their judgments about the effectiveness of teaching as an intervention, their estimates of personal influence of student learning, their beliefs about the extent to which they possess teaching competencies, as well as the criteria by which they evaluate their own teaching and themselves as teachers" (p. 42). Sometimes, teachers actually want to introduce new ways and techniques, but they find obstacles. The latter can be either internal or external. Fear of introducing what is new, though proved by research to be effective is a real monster that frightens teachers who should be obsessed with progression and improvement of learning. External obstacles can be administrative. Generally speaking, inspectors continuously control teachers and demand from them to stick to the textbooks with their content. Another thing is pupils' readiness for such new techniques and methods. If they are acquainted with particular methods of teaching the English language, then it would be quite difficult for them to accept and become familiar with what is new. Of course, good teachers should not submit to that. Rather, they should try again and again till they reach their goals. This can be considered as a real defy to them but after all, change, if necessary, should take place.

Conclusion

It is essential for teachers to grasp the full meaning of each term: beliefs and perceptions and try to compare it to what he/she already has in mind. In this chapter, an attempt was made to unveil how teachers' beliefs are formed and how they evolve over time. Equally important, light was shed on the impact of the teachers' beliefs on the implementation of the teaching process. Sources of teachers' PK are supposed to be part of the teachers'

beliefs about teaching and learning. For this reason, various sources of this knowledge were explored and most of all their application into practice.

The teacher then is faced with a real challenge so far as his profession is concerned. It is by no means easy to perform the task unless some conditions are available. For this reason and others, we can say that the teacher, his beliefs and perceptions should match the learners' needs and expectations. This can be seen in their practices in class. Moreover, teachers are most of the time blamed for any learning failure. It is basically because of this that teachers should try to put their knowledge into practice and match the learners' goals.

Teachers' construction of their PK seems to be a long and enduring process that requires a variety of sources in order to be widened and augmented. Those sources reflect teachers' perceptions and beliefs about teaching vis-à-vis the importance given to PK as well as their awareness towards its significant impact on teaching EFL writing. Moreover, experience actually interferes in changing teachers' perceptions and beliefs about teaching EFL writing. Finally, teachers' practices in class are influenced by what teachers believe about language teaching of EFL writing and the way they perceive it.

CHAPTER FOUR: DESCRIPTION OF TEACHING EFL WRITING UNDER THE COMPTENCY-BASED APPROACH

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CHAPTER FOUR: DESCRIPTION OF TEACHING EFL WRITING

UNDER THE COMPETENCY-BASED APPROACH

Introduction

The Algerian school has always responded to the changing situation in the field of academic research. Educational syllabi and curricula have been subject to change whenever needed in the form of new text-books and other pedagogical issues. In fact, the Competency-based Approach (CBA) came with a number of advantages on the one hand and drawbacks on the other. The last time the text book of English of the secondary school (SS) was subject to change was in 2006. In this chapter, an attempt is made to clearly describe this text book: both content and methodology of teaching the writing skill for third-year classes in SS (Foreign Languages Stream).

Starting from the academic year 2003-2004 (in Middle schools), EFL in Algerian schools has been taught through and within the principles and criteria of CBA. The Ministry of National Education has put this approach into practice for the sake of meeting the needs of the learners who showed sheer failure in using what is learned in school in real-life situations. This is more or less the starting point of the introduction and implementation of such an approach in the Algerian educational context on the basis that the “objective of education is to develop a person as a good citizen...[who] has to achieve some special capabilities or competency” (Dhaka Ahsania Mission, n.d., p. 18).

1. Teaching EFL in Algerian Schools

Algeria has always been a multilingual nation. From the Phoenician presence in North Africa (from the 9th century BC to the 2nd century BC) to the French colonization (1830-1962), Algeria witnessed throughout its unique history a sort of linguistic invasion hand in

hand with the long series of various occupations and attacks from both the West and the East.

This, in fact, gave the impetus to the rise of multilingualism. According to Benrabah (2005):

The Algerian child grows up in a multilingual environment. If she/he follows the nine-year long compulsory school curriculum, and depending on whether her / his first language is Algerian Arabic or Tamazight, she/he will acquire one of the two following combinations of languages presented in the order of acquisition / learning ..: Type 1: L1: Algerian Arabic, (L2: Tamazight), L3: Literary Arabic, L4: French, L5: English. Type 2: L1: Tamazight, L2: Algerian Arabic, L3: Literary Arabic, L4: French, L5: English. (p.408)

Our main concern, here, is not to trace back Algeria' linguistic history, though this is basically significant for up to 1962, we can count up to eight or more different languages which were once and some are still spoken in the country. This exceptional linguistic richness can only pave the way for the establishment of a strong tradition in favour of foreign language learning; something that was doomed to face fierce resistance later in post-colonial Algerian history with the advent of national movements like 'arabisation' (Benrabah, 2005).

In order to trace back the history of teaching EFL in Algeria, it is quite practical to relate the issue to the various schooling systems that the country witnessed:

- During the years following independence and until the 1970s, there were three cycles constituting the Algerian educational system. These were: the primary school: 05 years, the middle school: 04 years and the secondary school: 03 years (Benrabah, 1999).
- Starting from the year 1976, the Basic school came as a new educational system comprising a total of 9 years in which English was taught at Grade 8 i.e. at the age of 13 (Rezig, 2011).
- In 2002, EFL was reintroduced in the sixth grade in the middle school with the national educational reform of the aforementioned year (Lakhal-Ayat, 2008).

So far, the main focus was on teaching EFL in the Middle school and beyond (i.e. SS).

English was equally introduced in the primary school, but in a different way. To clarify, in 1993, “school-children who accessed Grade Four had to choose between French and English as the first mandatory foreign language” (Bennoune, 2000; cited in Benrabah, 2007). As a result, the first FL in Algeria could have been English. However, “a small number of schoolchildren were taught English as the first obligatory foreign language, starting from the Fourth grade” (Benrabah, 2005, p. 408). This took place between the years 1993 and 2003.

2. Teaching under the Competency-based Approach

With the aim of improving the general outcomes of teaching and learning in Algeria, the Ministry of National Education chose to adopt CBA. Focusing more on outputs in terms of learners’ use of the language being learnt, CBA, which shares with CLT many of its principles and classroom practices, seems to offer a wide range of opportunities for practicing the language and bridging the gap between what is learnt in school and real-life contexts and situations.

2.1. Competency-based Approach

Education is, among other things, a vital and sensitive field in all societies. This is the reason why, careful attention and wise planning have to be associated with in order to push the nation towards development and prosperity in the various domains and along its history. This can be attained via updating the whole mechanism of education (both content and methodology) in a way that goes in sheer harmony with the characteristics of the changing world.

The primary focus of CBA is the learner. The latter is mainly targeted for the sake of developing pedagogical competencies that would, in turn, be of great benefit for him in real-life settings. Put it differently, this kind of education revolves around what the learners know

and what they are able to do with knowledge rather than on how the latter was acquired or/and how it accumulates throughout time. Students are required to be active learners who shape and reflect about their own learning with the aim of establishing the predetermined competencies. CBA offers a range of principles and ideas within which learners transfer their knowledge to other non-academic contexts. This is the reason why, “implementation of the competency-based approach suggests the use of active and interactive forms of classes in the academic process” (Korytova, Zandanova, Chukreeva, Radnaeva & Yabzhanova, 2015, p.273). In the same vein, Anane (2013) discusses a number of the characteristics (taken from Foyster, 1990; Delker, 1990 and Norton, 1987) of competency-based programmes:

- a) Competencies are carefully selected,
- b) Supporting theory is integrated with skill practice. Essential knowledge is learned to support the performance of skills,
- c) Detailed training materials are keyed to the competencies to be achieved and are designed to support the acquisition of knowledge and skills,
- d) Methods of instruction involve mastery learning, the premise that all participants can master the required knowledge or skill, provided sufficient time and appropriate training methods are used,
- e) Participants’ knowledge and skills are assessed as they enter the program and those with satisfactory knowledge and skills may bypass education and training or competencies already attained,
- f) Learning should be self-paced,
- g) Flexible training approaches including large group methods, small group activities and individual study are essential components,
- h) A variety of support materials including print, audiovisual and simulations (models) keyed to the skills being mastered is used, and
- i) Satisfactory completion of education and training is based on achievement of all specified competencies. (p.119)

Hodge (2007) argues that the real factors that led to the appearance of Competency-based Education (CBE) are differently reported. He exemplifies his claims by reporting the viewpoints of one advocate and one critic of CBE. On the one hand, Broudy (1972; in Hodge, 2007) believed that social conditions and pressures gave the impetus for the emergence of such a kind of education. Tuxworth (2005) clearly shares this view stating that “the genesis of CBET, as a distinct response to societal changes, was fuelled by the US Office of Education in 1968 when it gave ten grants to colleges and universities to develop model training programmes for the preparation of elementary school teachers” (p.10). On the other

hand, Houston (1974; cited in Hodge, 2007, p.182) claimed that CBE rather belonged to a ‘culturally based movement’ at that time.

2.1.1. Theoretical Foundations and Related Theories of Learning

According to Ertmer and Newby (1993), “learning theories are a source of verified instructional strategies, tactics and techniques” (p.51). Unexceptionally, CBE is one example of instructional models which draw ideas from different learning theories. It is reported to have key characteristics having roots in some educational and psychological learning movements and theories of the 20th century: Behaviourism, Bloom’s taxonomy and Constructivism.

2.1.1.1. Behaviorism

Ertmer and Newby (1993) describe the general learning climate during the 1950s in terms of behaviorist dominance which coincided with the appearance of “the instructional design” which was highly influenced by a considerable number of its principles. In the following quotation, Prichard and Woollard (2010) name the main scholars whose works contributed to the establishment and development of this approach:

The notable scientists who developed this school of learning theory are: Pavlov (1849–1936) for the development of classical conditioning at the beginning of the twentieth century; Watson (1878–1958) for setting out the initial principles of behaviourism; and Skinner (1904–1990) for his pioneering work on the importance of reinforcement. Behaviourism has been largely set aside as theory of learning with importance for schools and other formal contexts. (p.4)

This theory “is an early description of the ways in which learning takes place and it can be useful to apply behaviourist strategies in the management of children’s behaviour and learning in classrooms” (Pritchard & Woollard, 2010, p.8). Briefly speaking, “Behaviorism equates learning with changes in either the form or frequency of observable performance” (Ertmer & Newby ,1993, p.55). Therefore, “instruction is structured around the presentation

of the target stimulus and the provision of opportunities for the learner to practice making the proper response” (Ertmer & Newby, 1993, p.57). As reported in the literature, behaviorism and its principles and characteristics constituted the basis for the design of a number of teaching methods which dominated the period in question like “the early audio-visual materials and ... Skinner’s teaching machines and programmed texts” (Ertmer & Newby, 1993, p.56). As far as CBLT is concerned, Richards and Rodgers (2001), maintain that “[CBLT] also shares with the behaviourist views of learning the notion that language form can be inferred from language function; that is, certain life encounters call for certain kinds of language” (p.143).

2.1.1.2. Bloom’s Taxonomy

Because it is cognitive in nature, CBA derives many of its principles from Bloom’s taxonomy of educational objectives. In brief, the latter are classified into three types: cognitive, affective and psychomotor. Each of the three domains of Bloom’s taxonomy are well and clearly demonstrated in CBA models of teaching, and competency development in learners which is the primary focus of the approach in question. Blakemore (2008) states that Bloom’s taxonomy is an extremely helpful model for defining one’s competencies and assessing them. According to Krathwohl, (2002) “THE TAXONOMY OF EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES is a framework for classifying statements of what we expect or intend students to learn as a result of instruction” (p.212). Bloom’s Taxonomy has six levels as shown in the following figure:

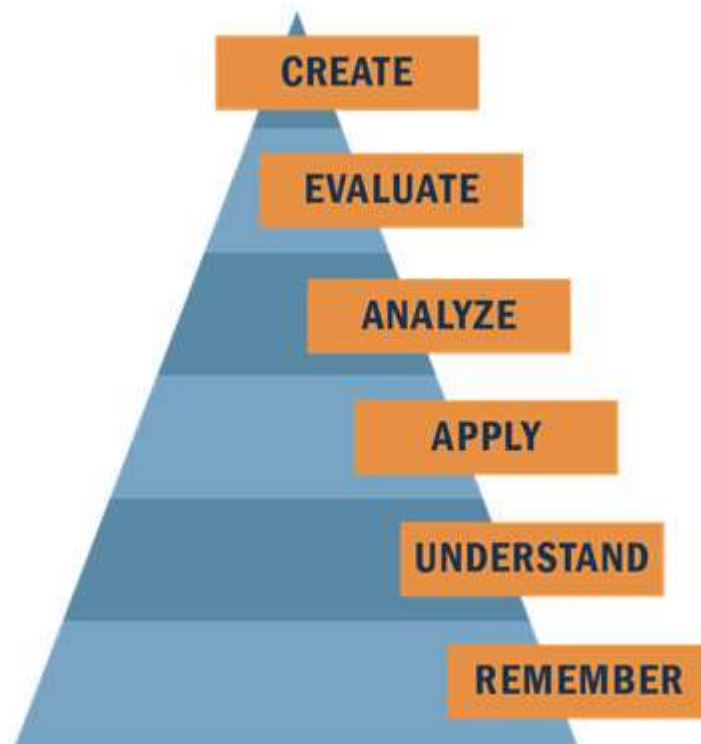


Figure 11: Bloom's Taxonomy (From Ford & Meyer, 2015, p.1476)

Blakemore (2008) explains the levels and their underlying basis for classroom implementation. The following excerpt exemplifies:

For each level, there are words that help us to design the means of assessment. For example, if you need to know that the learner can apply theory to practice, ask them to *demonstrate, operate, illustrate, etc.* Analysis is about breaking down knowledge into parts and you may require the learner to, for example, *distinguish, test* or *differentiate* to know that they are competent. (p.6)

2.1.1.3. Constructivism

Educational psychologists like Jean Piaget developed cognitive models of learning which stood in opposition to behaviourism arguing that mental/cognitive structures are essentially referred to during the whole process of knowledge acquisition. The latter is then viewed as actively constructed basing on a number of factors which are related to the learner's mental, social, cultural characteristics, etc. Cognitivism holds an intrinsic view of motivation in the sense that the learner has to invest mentally in order to succeed in his/her learning

(Perry, 1999). This, however, can only be achieved if the learner is internally driven or self-motivated. According to Piaget (1968), learning is an active construction of knowledge and it consists of ‘successive stages’ that the learner goes through in his endeavour to assimilate new material to what he/she already knows. His theory is based on the processes of: assimilation, accommodation and adaptation. That is to say, the new information is to be assimilated to the existing cognitive structures and for the sake of accommodation, new cognitive structures are to be formed. The subsequent result is learners’ adaptation and further development.

Despite the fact that the term ‘constructivism’ is recently (2nd half of the 20th century) referring to as an approach of learning, its basic ideas and principles date back to many centuries ago. Ertmer and Newby (1993), for instance, maintain that “like with the rationalists of Plato’ time, the mind is believed to be the source of all meaning, yet like the empiricists, individual, direct experiences with the environment are considered critical” (p.62). As suggested by its name, this theory “draws a picture of knowledge and understanding being slowly constructed” (Pritchard & Woollard, 2010, p.5). It is historically known that cognitive constructivism came as a reaction to behaviourism whose main focus was the observable behaviour that is the ultimate result of a given stimulus. According to Guey, Cheng and Shibata (2010):

Cognitivism (or constructivism) mainly deals with the cognitive processes involved in learning, inclusive of induction, deduction, rule finding, law discovering, and pattern recognition among others. Unlike behaviorism, cognitive perspective has to do with schemata development (rather than knowledge accumulation or collection), and gaining understanding is of prime importance in the course of discovery, which is what Bruner’s (1966) *discovery learning* model suggests. Bruner contends that students may achieve discovery on the basis of understanding if what is learned (or learning materials) can be presented by following the principles of *organization, motivation, ordering, and reinforcement*. (p.107)

Relying in the first place on information processing, asking questions and reflecting on our own previous and present experiences, we can construct our own insightful knowledge of what is surrounding us to make sense of the new knowledge via testing and confronting it to

what we already know and experience. In this respect, Ertmer and Newby (1993) maintain that “learners do not transfer knowledge from the external world into their memories; rather they build personal interpretations of the world based on individual experiences and interactions” (p.63). In fact, the importance and significance of the constructivist theory of learning lies in its revolutionary principles and attitudes towards learning which is then redefined as an active process in which people are engaged to create and obtain knowledge rather than passively receive it. According to Ertmer and Newby (1993), “cognitive theories emphasize making knowledge meaningful and helping learners organize and relate new information to existing knowledge in memory” (p.57). In the same vein, Pritchard and Woollard (2010) argue that some key elements are essential for the successful implementation of constructivist learning, these include: “critical thinking, motivation, learner independence, feedback, dialogue, language, explanation, questioning, learning through teaching, contextualisation, experiments and/or real-world problem solving” (p.45).

The other aspect of this theory is called ‘social constructivism’. The latter holds a particular view of knowledge acquisition in support of social and cultural interaction. According to Oldfather, West, White and Wilmarth (n.d.):

Learning is constructed through interactions with others, which take place within a specific socio-cultural context. A social constructivist perspective focuses on learning as sense-making rather than on the acquisition of role knowledge that “exists” somewhere outside the learner. (pp.8-9)

2.1.2. Skill and Competency

In the core of the CBA talk, some key terms come to the front with meanings that might overlap. Since CBA is primarily concerned with learners’ competencies and the way of putting them into exercise, it is of paramount importance to investigate the nature and ‘layout’ of a competency along with other similar concepts like competence and skill. In the attempt to review the literature for the sake of exploring the notion of competency (pl. competencies), it is found that most of the definitions of the latter incorporate another sub-concept: skill. This is

the reason why, the focus is given to the distinction and relationship between these two notions. Put it differently, the investigation revolves around the position of one concept in relation to the other as well as the role of one in achieving the other. According to Chelli (2010), teachers in CBA base their teaching on concepts whose notions are expected to get more clarified and enhanced. In a nutshell, CBE revolves around a key concept: competency. The latter consists of a set of skills, capacities as well as knowledge. Once achieved by the learners in academic contexts, competencies are expected to be used when necessary in other non-academic situations independently and in a personal way that certainly goes with the learner's unique and distinctive manner of putting what he knows into practice. Besides, one of the key features of CBE is its insistence on doing rather than knowing. To illustrate, the learning outcomes are, among other things, the target of this approach. According to the National Postsecondary Education Cooperative (2002), "competencies are the result of integrative learning experiences in which skills, abilities, and knowledge interact to form bundles that have currency in relation to the task for which they are assembled" (p.7). Similarly, Richards and Rodgers (2001) state that competencies "consist of a description of the essential skills, knowledge, attitudes and behaviours required for effective performance of a real-world task or activity" (p.144). In the same vein, Dhaka Ahsania Mission (n.d.), report that "skill is such capability or capacity of a person, which helps him achieve competency" (p.19). Moreover, Richards and Rodgers (2001) assert that "competencies differ from other student goals and objectives in that they describe the student's ability to apply basic and other skills in situations that are commonly encountered in everyday life" (p.141). What can be drawn from the four aforementioned quotes is that the word 'skill' is present in all of them which indicates that researchers consider it as a sub-skill of 'competency'. That is to say, a skill is, among other things, a constituent part of the complex concept. The position, then, of 'skill' in relation to 'competency' has been considered.

Nonetheless, our aim is not yet reached and a further investigation on the nature of both terms is sought. In what follows, a number of definitions of both concepts are provided in an attempt to fully grasp the notions and their uses:

- National Volunteer Skills Centre (2003) provides this definition: “competency (Also competence) [is] the ability to perform tasks and duties to the standard expected in employment” (p. 62).
- *“a competency is defined in terms of what a person is required to do (performance), under what conditions it is to be done (conditions) and how well it is to be done (standards)”* (ibid., p.8)
- Blakemore (2008) from his part coined the term of competency as follow: “a competency is a skill performed to a specific standard under particular conditions. Competencies result from breaking down a job or role into the specific and observable skills that are needed to do it well” (p. 2).
- “competency means special capabilities of human being... Competency is something, which has to be acquired. So to acquire competency-efforts, practice and perseverance are very much needed” (Dhaka Ahsania Mission, n.d., p.18). However, a skill is “capability or expertise in doing some work. For example the skill of riding bicycle. Skills can be achieved through practical exercise” (Dhaka Ahsania Mission, n.d., p.19).

2.1.2.1. Difference between Skill and Competency

In order to avoid further confusion between the concepts in question, the following comparison is provided by Dhaka Ahsania Mission (n.d.):

- Competency is some capabilities of a person, which are achieved through many skills.
- Achieving competency is time consuming; on the other hand, everyday every moment man can learn new skills.

- Competency is a totality but skill can be earned partially.
- Competency is planned for mental development whereas skills are work based.
- If someone loses his skills he will also lose his competency (ability of doing) on that particular area (pp.19-20)

Therefore, we conclude that the very concepts of competence and skill are not exactly the same though the latter leads to the achievement of the former. Stated differently, a skill is, among other things such as knowledge, a mobilized component and factor in the whole process of competency-building. The achieved competencies would essentially be of great use to the learner in problem-solving contexts in real-life situations. In CBA, both knowledge and skill are important but it is the ways these two components function and are intertwined that is really sought. In order to achieve a competency and perform competently, some knowledge, skill and attitudes are required.

2.1.3. Competency-based Education

In fact, it is necessary to draw the reader's attention to the issue that this teaching methodology is variously designated via a number of labels including: CBA, CBE, CBT, CBLT, etc. Starting from what has been found in the literature review, an attempt is made to explain and clarify two widely used terms: CBE and CBLT.

Focusing more on outputs rather than inputs (Richards & Rodgers, 2001), CBE is an instructional doctrine which appeared in the United States during the 1970s, and later on spread to other parts of the world. CBE seems to be at odds with many of the other teaching perspectives and philosophies whose main focus is how much knowledge and information has been learnt without taking into accounts what can be done with it, if it is managed to be put into practice at all. Korytova, Zandanova, Chukreeva, Radnaeva and Yabzhanova (2015) assert that "students' formed competencies alongside with the obtained knowledge, skills,

capability of independent activity will be a certain planned product of the educational process” (p.272). It was adopted for the aforementioned reasons questing for, among other things, a better quality of the students/pupils in the sense of becoming more brilliant in what to do with what is known. According to Auerbach (1986), CBE has a “task- or performance-centered orientation” in the sense that what is expected from learners is what they can do with the language rather than what they can say about the language. This situation requires a kind of reflection whose main target is “to untangle a problem or to make more sense of a puzzling situation; reflection involves working toward a better understanding of the problem and ways of solving it” (Loughran, 1996, p.13).

Within this approach, the learner is called upon making a reflection on his prior knowledge and experience and putting them into action in relation to what exists in the learning environment in order to construct new knowledge and develop new competencies. In fact, “CBE is improved when knowledge, skills, attitudes are integrated into the learning experience rather than delivered in compartmentalized instruction” (Ford & Meyer, 2015, p.1480). CBE, then, tremendously involves the learner in TLP and strongly emphasises and invests his personal, intellectual and social capacities for the sake of producing an individual who would face no difficulties in real social life. Moreover, CBE is not very different from CLT, and it ensures the learners’ capacity for putting what they know into practice and matching many of their needs in real-life. This, in fact, can serve as a motivational factor for learning the English language.

2.1.4. Competency-based Language Teaching

CBA has widely spread since the 1970s to English speaking countries such as Australia, New Zealand and elsewhere; its application in the particular field of language teaching is known as Competency-based Language Teaching (CBLT). According to Richards

and Rodgers (2001), “Competency-Based Language Teaching is an application of the principles of Competency-Based Education to language teaching” (p.141). This implies that the use of this labeling is restricted to the field of language teaching. As far as the nature of CBLT is concerned, Richards and Rodgers (2001) claim that “CBLT is also built around the notion of communicative competence and seeks to develop functional communication skills in learners” (p.143). Similarly, Docking (1994) describe CBLT as follows:

CBLT [Competency-Based Language Teaching] is designed not around the notion of subject knowledge but around the notion of competency. The focus moves from what students know about language to what they can do with it. The focus on competencies or learning outcomes underpins the curriculum framework and syllabus specification, teaching strategies and assessment. (p.16)

2.1.5. Teacher and Learner’s Roles

Within CBLT, Pedagogical work is organized in terms of tasks which, in turn, aim to develop particular competencies in the learners with the aid of a variety of teaching techniques and devices. The learner takes on a more active role where as that of the teacher is rather facilitative and less instructive in the sense that learners’ task is to be able to use the language. That is to say, the learners’ involvement in the learning process is highly considerable. This unique role of the learner would expectedly lead to the fostering of other sub-skills that are necessarily needed for their citizenship like problem-solving for instance.

As far as assessment is concerned, it “can be used to identify gaps in a learner’s knowledge or application of skills; in others it is used as a tool to determine what the learner knows and how this knowledge or skill can be applied in a variety of situations” (National Volunteer Skills Centre, 2003, p.18). In the same vein, Blakemore (2008) claims that “participants are not assessed on recall of information but on how they use this information to complete a task” (p. 6).

Conclusion

Regarding the principles and characteristics of CBLT, it seems to offer great opportunities for learners to match and bridge the gap between the classroom as a typical academic context and ordinary social real-life settings. The role of the teacher, though revised together with that of the learner, is undeniably big. This is the reason why, teacher training has to be taken into consideration in order not to vitiate the core of the approach in question via applying or trying to apply what is new with old perceptions of teaching writing. In addition, some obstacles like: the class size, the available materials and media, learners' expectations along with their learning styles and strategies and time limitations, can partially or completely put an end to a successful implementation of a typical CBA course in teaching EFL writing. Measuring learning outcomes (competencies: knowledge and skills) rather than the time they take is a key characteristic of CBE. Effective implementation can undoubtedly bring some learning contradictions to an end for it essentially prepares learners for social life in terms of the various competencies they are required to develop in relation to EFL writing. Since the core of competency-based learning revolves around the notion of competency, what should concern teachers and syllabus makers more is the development of the competency itself and not how much time it can take. A truly defined competency-based teaching is that which succeeds in identifying the pre-requisite competencies which, in turn, should be carefully defined by syllabus designers and text-books writers in Algeria.

Teaching EFL writing via CBA plays a gigantic role in forming and shaping teachers' perceptions and beliefs about EFL writing. In other words, the teachers' changing perceptions of EFL writing from a set of rules and certain classroom practices to the necessity of developing competencies in learners for successful use in real life situations seem to affect teachers' practices which should be in harmony with the principles of the approach in question (CBA).



CHAPTER FIVE: MEANS OF RESEARCH AND DATA ANALYSIS

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CHAPTER FIVE: MEANS OF RESEARCH AND DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

This chapter seeks to introduce and investigate both quantitatively and qualitatively the data to be collected by means of a questionnaire administered to SS teachers from different regions in the wilaya of Mila. These are: Mila city center, Ahmed Rachedi, Redjas, Zeghaya, Aras, Baynane, Raouached, Ferjioua, Tleghma, Latmania, Sidi Marouane, Grarem, and Sanaoua. The results of the obtained data are shown in simple graphs which are numbered, entitled and followed by the corresponding analysis. The use of the questionnaire and the interview as means for implementing this study would be more or less justified without leaving out the limitations of such research tools. In fact no means or method of research is totally free from shortcomings.

1. Means of Research

In this study, we are mainly concerned with the way teachers of English in SS teach the writing skill. In order to have access to related information, the use of both the questionnaire and the interview, two widely used tools in educational context, are called for. The participant teachers are expected to inform us both on their beliefs and perceptions about TLP, along with their practices in the classroom where learning is supposed to take place. Nunan (1992) confirms this view stating that “as language classrooms are specifically constituted to bring about learning, it is not unreasonable to collect data about what goes on there as a means of adding to our knowledge of language learning and use” (p.91).

1.1. Background for Using the Questionnaire

Writing activities can be taught the same way, but not the same degree of importance and emphasis is given to them. This situation does not apply only to writing but to all

activities and tasks of English. Before we ask teachers to prioritize one activity over another, we have first to draw their attention to this aspect concerning the linkage between secondary school and university because teachers may not be aware of this. All that we have been talking about can be fulfilled under two conditions: when teachers understand the core of the issue and when they are convinced that this would give better results. Secondary school teachers are of course far from university and have no idea about syllabuses of the various modules. So, one would ask about the way they would manage to do so if they have no syllabuses in front of them. Creating a link between pre-tertiary and tertiary education; difficult though it is, can extraordinarily improve learning. In reality, we can never know whether teaching writing in English is given importance or not unless we ask teachers either orally or by using questionnaires.

1.3. Choice of Sample

Swetnam (2007) defines sampling as “the obtaining of a manageable part of an object or population that supposedly possesses the same qualities as the whole” (p.42). In fact, it is an “indispensable technique of behavioral research” (Singh, 2006, p. 81). Moreover, “the research work cannot be undertaken without use of sampling” (Singh, 2006, p. 81). The population in this study is SS EFL teachers in the region of Mila, and the sample is 100 teachers. The attempt is made to investigate EFL teachers’ perceptions and belief about effective teaching of EFL writing, and the extent to which their beliefs and perceptions shape their classroom practices. After all, high school can be considered as a bridge between pre-tertiary and tertiary education.

2. Data Analysis

In order to carry out this study, we relied primarily on the questionnaire, and in addition to the latter, the interview was used for more information. Since no ready-made

questionnaire was found, an attempt was made to devise one. The teachers' questionnaire was administered to one hundred (100) randomly-selected teachers.

2.1. Description and Structure of the Questionnaire

The present questionnaire is divided into three sections. The first section is about teaching writing; it comprises (28Qs) on the basis that the main concern of this study is teaching EFL writing and the way teachers of English in SS perceive it and what beliefs they hold about it. Therefore, most of its aspects have been essentially targeted in the second chapter of the present study and revolve around the following categories: techniques and strategies of teaching EFL writing, motivation, feedback, peer review, and assessment. The second section is concerned with interaction with the learners (5Qs); interaction is, in fact, a key component of TLP and teaching EFL writing in particular. This is the reason why, the elements that are supposed to be an integral part of it were included in the first chapter. The third section deals with sources of teachers' PK (10Qs); the latter constitutes the core of what can lead to a good understanding of teachers' beliefs, perceptions and classroom pedagogical practices. Relying on what was explored in the third chapter, the ten questions seek to investigate teachers' PK including both its sources and construction.

Both open-ended and closed questions were used in this questionnaire. In fact, although open-ended questions can be difficult to answer and time-consuming, it was necessary to incorporate both types for the sake of collecting as much information as possible. Moreover, the respondents may draw our attention to some aspects or characteristics that have been unintentionally left out.

Finally, it should be noted that questions **12**, **13** and **16** were taken from the following sources:

12.Please Write two or more options for each of the following situations:

- A student says I don't want to do the exercise given by the teacher.
- You expected an activity to take five minutes. It has taken twenty so far and the students still seem to be very involved. There is something else you would like to do before the lesson ends in ten minutes.
- The next activity involves students working in groups of five. At the moment all the desks (which take two people) are facing forward in rows. They are movable, but it takes a few minutes of chaos to do it.
- The students are working in groups of three. Two groups have finished the task you set them and are now sitting looking bored. The other groups still seem to have a long way to go before they finish. (Scrivener, 1994, p.56)

13. Which of these strategies you use to deal with students' beliefs:

- Become aware of students' past classroom experiences and their assumptions about language learning;
- Build students' confidence;
- Begin where the students are and move slowly;
- Show them achievement;
- Allow for free choice as much as possible; and
- Become aware of the students' interests and concerns, their goals and objectives. (Bassano, 1986; as cited in Bernat & Gvozdenko, 2005, p.9)

16. What do you take into account in grading:

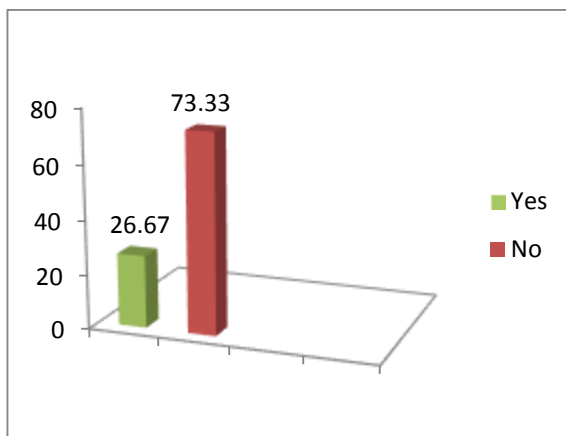
- Language performance of the student as formally demonstrated on tests, quizzes, and other explicitly scored procedure.
- Your intuitive, informal observation of the student's language performance.
- Oral participation in class.
- Improvement (over the entire course period).

- Behavior in class (“development”) –being cooperative, polite, disruptive, etc.
- Effort.
- Motivation.
- Punctuality and attendance. (Brown, 2004, p.283)

2.2. Analysis of Teachers’ Questionnaire

2.2.1. Section One: Teaching Writing

1. Do you think that the time allocated to writing is enough?



Graph 1: Teachers’ Attitudes toward the Sufficiency of Time Allocated to Writing

This question seeks to unveil teachers’ perceptions about the sufficiency of the time allocated to the writing skill as taught to third-year classes (Foreign Language Stream). The writing skill, being an intricate one, requires a large amount of time for its teaching. The various components of this skill including: vocabulary items, grammatical rules, and rules of cohesion and coherence makes the skill in question more complicated than the other ones. It seems that the respondents are aware of these characteristics of the writing skill. The majority of them (**73.33%**) answered *No*, that is, they believe that the amount of time given to writing is not enough. Their answer can be due to the fact that they are faced with some difficulties which are somehow related to time insufficiency. A small minority (**26.67%**) see that the time

allocated for this skill is enough. They undoubtedly report this because of some reasons that we would try to know in the coming answers. On the whole, we can say that the surveyed teachers have some difficulties with teaching writing because of time insufficiency.

2. Please, state and explain some difficulties of teaching writing.

Writing is by nature a complex activity and writing in a foreign language is even more complicated. Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill and Pincas (1980) demonstrate one aspect that renders writing rather complex by stating that “[writing] is an activity which is usually at the same time both private and public. It is private because the act of composition is by its nature solitary, but it is public in that most writing is intended for an audience, often one which is extremely difficult to define” (p. 116).

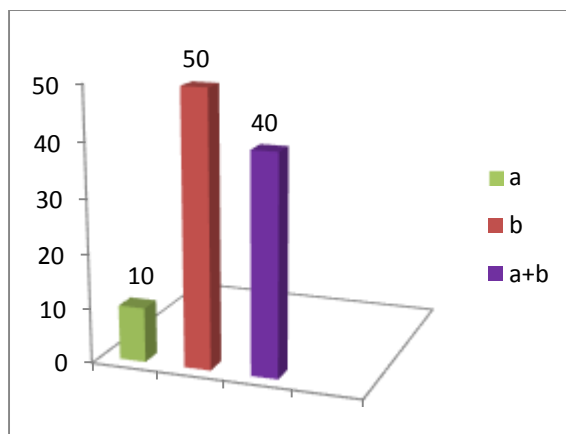
In this question item, teachers are asked to state and explain some difficulties which confront them when teaching this basic skill. In fact, most of the reported difficulties are directly related to pupils’ level in the English language. For clarification, an attempt is made to categorize them. To begin with, the first category is related to language form. Here, three difficulties are mentioned by all the respondents: problems with vocabulary, non-mastery of grammatical rules which can be due to lack of knowledge or/and inability to apply the rules, in case they are known, and produce correct sentences, and weak language background, i.e. no good mastery of the basics of the English language.

The second category of writing difficulties is basically concerned with ideas (content): an essential component of the writing skill. The participants assert that the most significant negative factors which lead to problems with generating ideas are: difficulty in understanding the topics presented, very poor general knowledge, if any; total absence of reading and inability to generate ideas in case they have some knowledge on the presented topic. Moreover, in their attempt to generate ideas, pupils tend to *think in Arabic*, and during the process of translating from Arabic into English, they are entrapped into negative transfer.

The third category of writing difficulties is rather psychological and is related to pupils' motivation and interest in the writing skill. Teachers report that their pupils perceive writing as a boring activity. Finally, other extra factors are equally highlighted. These are: overcrowded classes, which is in fact a big challenge both to teachers and to decision-makers. It greatly hinders the implementation of writing instruction either through whole class instruction or through the use of pair/group work. The second factor is the insufficiency of time allocated to writing, and the distribution of time over the various parts of the writing activity. Of course, this has been already raised in question1 and the results indicate that the majority believe that the time allocated for writing is not sufficient.

3. If you do not understand anything, do you:

- a. Ask your colleagues?
- b. Search for it yourself?
- c. Both of them



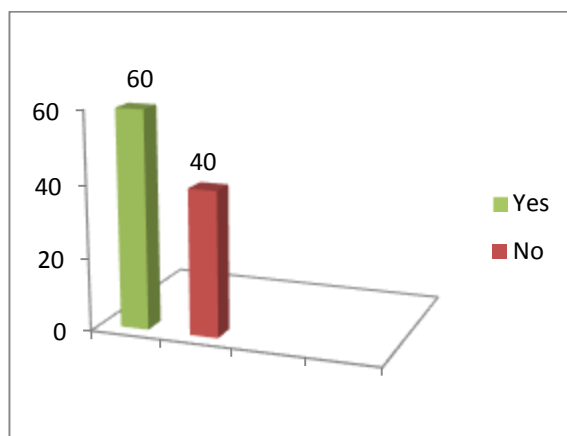
Graph 2: Possible Solutions to Ambiguous Issues

This question rather investigates teachers' attempts to solve their pedagogical problems especially those related to not understanding a given part, section or even item during the process of teaching. The results show that **50%** of the respondents ticked the

second item, only **10%** ask their colleagues, and the remaining part (**40%**) report that they both ask their colleagues and search for the information themselves sometimes.

In fact, the results are by no means surprising. The findings are very much intertwined with the teachers' personality and their strategies of learning and acquiring information. In addition, some teachers like cooperative learning and group work while others just do not. This can equally be influenced by the working conditions, the general climate and the colleagues themselves, whether they are understanding, selfish or open-minded. All these factors interfere in shaping and giving the final framework within which teaching is undertaken. One attractive remark here is that one teacher did not tick any item, but just wrote: "a teacher should be knowledgeable!!!" He probably means that a teacher should know everything. That is, he/she is not allowed to make mistakes. After all, the teacher is a human being and human beings are not perfect.

4. Have you ever thought about the linkage between the writing items that are taught at this level and writing for those who will be specialized in the English language at university?



Graph 3: Teachers' Consideration of the Link between Writing in SS and University

In fact, teaching and learning EFL writing is considered as an interrelated set of phases. This question is in fact a little bit different from the previous and the coming questions in the sense that it tries to investigate the nature of linkage between English as

taught to third-year classes (Foreign Languages Stream), and the effects of what is being taught at this level on English as taught at university for students of English (especially in the first-year). The clear-cut purpose of this question is to raise teachers' awareness towards this outstanding aspect of teaching English at this level.

The results show that more than half of the respondents (**60%**) answered 'yes'. It means that they are aware of the importance of trying to create a linking bridge between the last stage of pre-tertiary teaching of English and the first year of university study of English. The remaining teachers (**40%**) answered 'no'. Their response can be associated with two interpretations. First, they can't perceive the importance of creating such a connection between the afore-mentioned levels of English. Second, they may lack the subtlety to do so. This can be especially true for novice teachers; those who have not yet established a tradition in the field of language teaching.

5. Please, explain

When asked to explain their responses, the informants provided different arguments. Those who ticked the 'yes' box, report that the issue of the link between these two steps of language learning is a matter of two things. To begin with, pupils or future university students have first to be aware and have enough knowledge about the various 'university challenges' in one teacher's words. Here, it is meant preparing the pupils psychologically for the new experience that they might go through in the near future.

The second facet of this link is the linguistic side. The respondents insist on the necessity of ameliorating the pupils' level in the writing skill. Aspects like: accuracy, cohesion and coherence and other writing aspects must be fully mastered so that learners are able to produce proper sentences, paragraphs and even longer essays. The participants seem to be aware of the fact that this level constitutes a strong basis for tertiary level in the sense that

most of what is taught about writing will be taught at university, but with much more extension and emphasis.

So, a good part of teachers are fortunately not ignorant of the continuity and deep interconnection of the various steps of teaching and learning English as a foreign language. The remnant part of the informants seem to neglect and even underestimate the issue in question and give arguments for their position. In the first place, they report that their pupils are not sometimes interested in what they would study in higher education. This would itself refrain teachers' motivation and willingness to prepare them or even talk to them about university study. Moreover, teachers argue that the tertiary level is much more advanced than this one, and no matter what they teach and how to teach it, they won't be able to stretch what is taught now till it matches the university level. It is clear that this category of the respondents is not convinced with the importance of creating a bridge between the various stages of learning without even making an attempt to see whether this is going to be beneficial for the learners or not.

6. Please, state some techniques you use to teach writing.

The main purpose of this question is to see the extent to which teachers incorporate the main features of teaching writing in their lesson presentations. In fact, the results show that the overriding majority of the respondents use more or less the same steps and techniques. So far as the reported steps for a given writing activity (paragraph or essay), the following are usually involved:

- Discussing the topic through oral interaction;
- Brainstorming: This is in order to generate and jot down as many ideas as possible, and also the necessary vocabulary that the pupils will use in this task.
- Drafting: This consists of connecting the ideas together using diagrams, spider maps and network trees, and focusing on discourse connectors in order to build simple

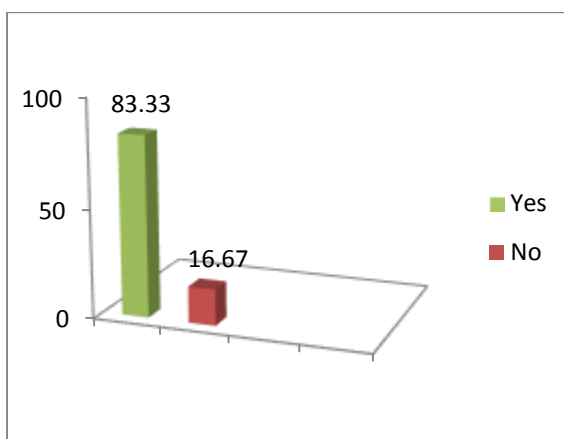
sentences and then link them to obtain paragraphs or essays. The number of drafts depend on the nature of the topic and the teacher's evaluation of the produced drafts

— Editing: writing the final draft;

Of course, in case the writing task consists of writing an essay, another step that is mentioned by the participants is planning, that is, distributing the various ideas in such a way as to obtain three blocks: introduction, body and conclusion.

7. Do you find teaching writing different from teaching other aspects of the language?

- Yes
- No



Graph 4: Teachers' Attitudes toward the Difference between Teaching Writing and Other Aspects of the English Language

The big issue with teaching and learning the writing skill is that the latter involves a number of sub-skills as well as language aspects. The big majority of the participants (83.33%) claim that teaching the writing skill is different from teaching other aspects of English. Indeed, writing is a unique skill in the sense that it requires much time and effort from the teacher and the learner alike. Its constituents are many and vary from the basic notions of capitalization and punctuation to the rather complex rules of free writing. Moreover, it is a very demanding activity and patience is by all means necessary for the utter

success of this task. The teachers' answer can be due to the thing that they are faced with a double job. On the one hand, they have to convince their pupils with the importance of writing and no complete mastery of English will take place if writing is not learned. On the other hand, they, of course, are asked to teach them the various aspects of the skill in question.

A small part of the respondents (**16.67%**) answered 'no'. That is, they find no differences between teaching writing and teaching other aspects of English. Probably, they perceive writing as one of the language components/skills with no special consideration associated with it.

8. If yes, explain

The overriding majority of the respondents believe that teaching writing is different from teaching other aspects of the language. Teachers' answers to this question item are really interesting because they provided miscellaneous arguments for it. For this reason, those responses are categorized and ordered in terms of their nature and importance. To start with, writing is a social act i.e. the way in which we respond to other people and through which our thoughts and emotions are revealed. This is the reason why its teaching requires not only teaching the language and its various aspects but also learners' capacity and readiness for communication, interaction and expression.

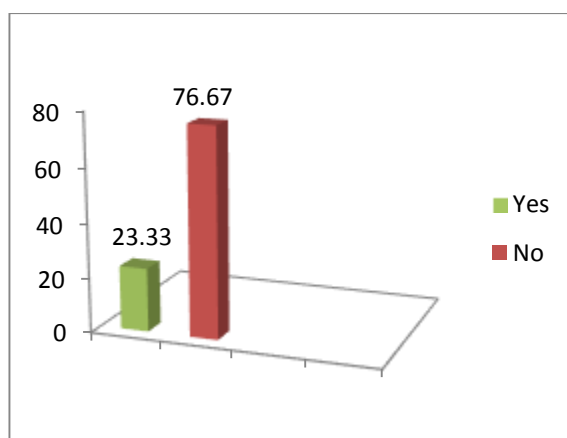
In this vein, most of the respondents report that writing is gradually becoming a teacher-centered activity in the sense that pupils do not interact; they merely follow the instructions and do the minimum of what is required of them. They also argue that it is most of the time difficult to convince pupils of the utility and importance of writing because they see writing as a hard and boring activity. In the same vein, we can add that writing is a skill that requires a lot of time and effort from both the teacher and the learner. The third reason that actually makes writing different from the other skills and aspects of the language is that it

is where teachers can touch the learners' true output; it reveals whether what was presented is fully grasped or not.

The participants assert that writing is the most difficult skill for the pupils because of the lack of vocabulary and non-mastery of grammatical rules. In fact, teaching writing goes through many steps and requires the mastery of the basics of the language: grammar (especially syntactic rules), spelling, punctuation, capitalization, cohesion, coherence, etc. The latter which is the logical flow of ideas leads us to move to the other core aspect of writing: generating ideas. Of course, good ideas do not come from nothing. Rather, some general culture is sometimes necessary for good writing; a condition which is by no means important for other aspects of the language. Finally, a good part of the teachers described writing as a very demanding act on the basis that it greatly depends not only on the capacity of understanding and learning, but also on the capacity of creating and organizing ideas in an acceptable form. In a nutshell, it is through the writing skill that teachers can really assess their pupils and what they learned.

9. Do you answer all pupils' questions?

- Yes
- No



Graph 5: Teachers' Attitudes toward Answering All Pupils' Questions

The answer to this question item will considerably rely on teachers' strategies in class and especially overcrowded classes. The main purpose of this question item is to see the extent to which teachers interact with their pupils through the question/answer procedure. It is a common form of interaction between them on the basis that teachers give oral feedback and hold discussions with their pupils for specific purposes.

The results in the diagram show that **(76.67%)** of the respondents claim to answer all their pupils' questions, whereas the remaining part **(23.33%)** answered 'no'. There are, of course, many factors that interfere within this matter and can largely contribute to its success or failure. In brief, we can say that the general climate of the classroom and the total number of pupils per group and also the time allocated for each activity are the main elements that decide about the questions to be answered during each session. Moreover, the teacher's teaching techniques together with his own personality characteristics can greatly shape the overall picture of any lesson. But despite what has been said, sometimes what is important is not the number of questions that are answered but the amount of interaction and the extent to which pupils are involved in each answer. However, it is sometimes great to assure pupils that the teacher is there and they would find him/her whenever they need him/her.

10. Please, explain.

The respondents who answered 'yes' to the previous question provided various arguments for their position. In the first place, they argue that answering all pupils' questions is a pedagogical obligation or duty because they are there to clarify and explain things, help pupils understand ambiguous issues, and send messages; something that they are paid for. This task is part of their responsibilities as teachers.

One attractive answer is that not answering some or all of the pupils' questions can mean to them two things: the teacher is either ignorant i.e. does not know the answer, or he

tends to ignore the questions in the sense that he/she does not care about the learners and their pre-occupations.

Another justification is that one of the teachers' roles is to encourage pupils and push them to participate and get involved in the lesson through asking questions to be answered. Another role of the teacher is that of guide and facilitator. In other words, he/she is thought to listen to pupils and give them the right and necessary tips for successful career as pupils. This of course, cannot be fulfilled without oral interaction between the teacher and the learner.

Concerning the participants who report that they do not answer all their pupils' questions, they say that not all the asked questions are important. For this reason, answering those questions can be a waste of time at a time when every minute should be well exploited. Other questions are just ridiculous and have nothing to do with the lesson and its objectives, and answering them can lead to total deviation from the major concerns of the lesson. Moreover, the problem sometimes is not related to the nature of the question itself but to time restrictions. Most important of all is the problem of the overcrowded classes which makes it impossible to answer all the questions. Basing on what has been discussed, we can conclude that many factors share the responsibility concerning the general management of a typical lesson presentation with all its aspect.

11. To what extent are you ready to answer and repeat your answers to the pupils' questions?

Asking and answering questions is an unavoidable part of teacher-learner classroom interaction. Communication is considered as being "at the core of teachers' effective execution of their plans, whether those plans are aimed at academic progress, classroom management, or classroom efficiency" (Farr, 2010, p.15). All the participants' responses turn around more or less the same points. These are, according to them, the factors in accordance with which they answer and repeat the answers to the questions posed by their pupils.

First, the most important issue that actually decides about the number of times an answer would be repeated is pupils' level. The latter can be considered as the basis on which the teachers 'put their feet' to conduct the rest of his task. The informants agree on the point that they are always ready to repeat till all or at least the majority of the pupils grasp the items in a given lesson. Unarguably, this is what every teacher should do.

Second, the nature of the lesson itself and whether it is complicated or not is another factor that pushes teachers to repeat the answers or refrain from doing so. In this case, they try to identify their weaknesses regarding one or more aspect of the language and explain again and again. In case the lesson is clear, no further answers are provided; otherwise, teachers are ready for repetition till everything is grasped.

Third, the nature of the questions posed by pupils equally plays a significant role in the whole matter. If it happens that pupils ask 'empty questions', selection becomes important and even obligatory in order not to vitiate the core and the main objectives of the lesson and waste time. This leads us to the last factor that is also of great importance so far as the general management of the classroom is concerned: time. A good part of the participants agree that it is all a matter of time. That is to say, time restrictions unquestionably affect what to do and how to do it.

12. Please Write two or more options for each of the following situations:

- A student says I don't want to do the exercise given by the teacher.

Concerning this item, 90% of the respondents prefer to ask the pupil about the reasons behind his/her behavior, and it is depending on them that they do the next steps. The latter are equally similar as reported by teachers:-if the exercise is not clear, they try to explain more; -if it is too difficult, they substitute it for another one or give similar examples. The worst thing is that sometimes pupils refuse to do a given exercise for no reasons. In this case, the whole task turns to be a challenge for the teacher and here he/she either wins or loses. The

first category of teachers prefer to encourage pupils, explain to them why it is important to do the exercise and even reward them by giving them extra points for instance. The second category of teachers relies on threatening, frightening and punishing the pupils. This can be achieved by just putting minuses next to their names, or writing reports against them so that the administration will punish them, that is to say, teachers use their authority as decision-makers in class. The third category, however, take a neutral position. In different words, they report that if pupils behave so, he is free as long as he keeps silent and does not disturb the others. Teachers' reactions, therefore, can be placed on a continuum containing all possible measures.

- You expected an activity to take five minutes. It has taken twenty so far and the students still seem to be very involved. There is something else you would like to do before the lesson ends in ten minutes.

Our respondents provided an abundance of suggestions and sometimes solutions to this particular situation. To begin with, the pupils might be asked to hurry up and finish the activity but if it seems to be far from reaching, the teacher can let them until they bring it off, and the following task is automatically postponed because time division is not always successful. Secondly, the informants report that it is very important to try to know the reasons behind this in order to help them whenever necessary. But if the task is really hard and rather challenging, extra time should be given. Thirdly, some teachers seem to be concerned more with finishing the program on time than with fulfilling the task successfully. They say that in such a situation, they are obliged to stop them and move to the following. The fourth suggestion is asking pupils to finish the activity at home so that teachers can carry on with the rest of work. In fact, this item is concerned with both successful time management in class and achieving the course objectives: two real challenges that actually face the teacher. With

this in mind, the latter is obliged to adopt the most appropriate techniques and strategies that would give better results.

- The next activity involves students working in groups of five. At the moment all the desks (which take two people) are facing forward in rows. They are movable, but it takes a few minutes of chaos to do it.

The participants have two different points of view in relation to this item. Bearing in mind the importance of team work (pairs or groups) including developing social skills in an effective way and training them to listen to each other, most teachers use group work during given tasks. Nonetheless, its implementation is sometimes faced with some obstacles relating to roles distribution, time management, peer discussions and teacher's supervision. The aspect that is addressed in this item is group division and organization. As has already been mentioned, the first point of view is not caring about the chaos that won't take more than a few minutes. This is on the one hand. On the other hand, this short-term chaos is not going to disturb the general climate of the classroom. Moreover, granting some limited freedom to pupils is not something harmful. On the contrary, it is sometimes an element of necessity. The second point of view consists of taking things seriously and trying to save time in order to reach the predetermined objectives. In addition, the teacher must interfere during the process of division and organization and draw the pupils' attention to the fact that it is serious. No matter what the teachers position is, recognizing the benefits of this working technique and reaching the lessons objectives are two main characteristics of a good teacher.

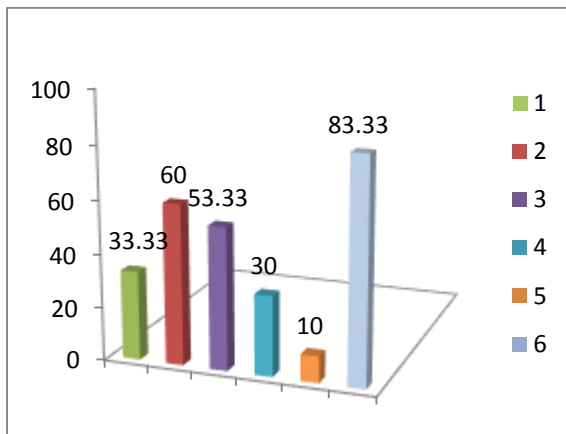
- The students are working in groups of three. Two groups have finished the task you set them and are now sitting looking bored. The other groups still seem to have a long way to go before they finish.

One of the most important characteristics of group work is the factors that are to be taken into account during the process of division. Learners' level is by all means a very

significant factor and its ignorance or negligence can actually result in pedagogical problems that can hinder the implementation of learning tasks. An example of those problems is explained in this item and the participant teachers provided provisional but not radical solutions. Most of them say that in this case they prefer to give the groups who have finished the task another one in order not to waste time and even get bored while waiting for the others to finish. It is also possible to ask them to reread and correct the mistakes found in their drafts. Equally significant, in their opinion, is that the teacher tries to discuss the task with those groups until the other group finish the task. In addition, the teacher can rely on encouraging cooperation between the groups via asking them to exchange ideas and give help if necessary. A small minority of teachers, unfortunately, report that what is important to them is time distribution and finishing the task on time. On this basis, they just start the discussion without caring about those who have not finished. So far, the question arises as to whether teachers divide the groups randomly or they do that in a systematic way relying on specific factors.

13. Which of these strategies you use to deal with students' beliefs:

1. Become aware of students' past classroom experiences and their assumptions about language learning;
2. Build students' confidence;
3. Begin where the students are and move slowly;
4. Show them achievement;
5. Allow for free choice as much as possible; and
6. Become aware of the students' interests and concerns, their goals and objectives.



Graph 6: Strategy Use for Dealing with Students' Beliefs

Dealing with students' beliefs requires both experience and knowledge. To put it differently, teachers should equally know what and how to take into consideration during their daily interaction with their learners. The obtained data show that "becoming aware of the students interests and concerns, their goals and objectives" is the highly-ticked item (83.33%). After all, the principal aim of the teacher's job is to give them some knowledge and information about a given topic/issue or field of study. That is to say, teachers try to satisfy their needs in relation to the aforementioned issue.

One of the most important elements in language learning is confidence. The latter is reported by research as having a tremendous effect on the learning outcomes. Our participants seem to be aware of this for 60% of them ticked the item that is concerned with building students' confidence. Lacking self-confidence can hinder the learning process. The psychological side of the learner (in the form of confidence) is, then, taken into consideration by teachers.

In the third position comes item (3) which is related to the learners' level. In fact, only 53.33% of the respondents ticked this item. It means that the rest do not use this strategy for one reason or another. Beginning where the students are and moving slowly can greatly motivate them for learning and make them feel the teacher's interest and desire for helping

them whenever necessary. Becoming aware of students' past classroom experiences and their assumptions about language learning can function as the basis for further future teaching and learning. This can serve as an indication of different issue related to the learner if exploited in a positive and effective way.

The fourth item is ticked by only 30% of the participants. This implies that no consideration is granted to showing students their achievement though this can equally encourage them for working more and more. Finally, the strategy that is less used by teachers is the one that is related to allowing for free choice as much attention as possible. This does not seem to attract teachers' attention and interest and only 10% of the respondents ticked the item. It is possible that they are afraid of losing control of the classroom or fail to reach the lesson's objectives.

14. How can you motivate students to write by encouraging confidence and enthusiasm.

In fact, the participants provided an abundance of techniques and strategies which they think are of significant importance for motivating pupils for writing. Their answers can be categorized for a better understanding. In the first place, much more emphasis is given to the writing topic(s) itself/themselves. They argue that the latter must be especially interesting to the learners. This would encourage them to jot down as many related ideas as possible and share them with their classmates. In turn, this would create a kind of collaboration and positive interaction between classmates. To introduce the topic, the teacher can rely on some visual aids like videos, data show, etc. This can stimulate the learners and raise or create an interest in the topic. Needless to say, sometimes, the writing topics are already stated in the textbook. Nonetheless, the teacher has a free space where he can act in a given way concerning topic selection.

One of the most lingering negative aspects of writing tasks is the lack of vocabulary. For this reason, a significant number of the respondents suggest to find immediate solutions to

this problem through constant supervision and control during those tasks. In addition to vocabulary, sentence structure can alike be an obstacle. Teachers are not supposed to be too demanding. That is to say, pupils should be asked to use simple sentences in order not to make mistakes. Moreover, complex tasks should be broken down into small parts.

A widely-used teaching technique is the use of group work. The informants seem to advocate it and report some of its benefits like encouraging the pupils to write and improve their products when they see their peers' drafts. All this consumes time. For this reason, teachers should give the learners enough time to accomplish the tasks in order to work at their own pace. The aforementioned techniques concern just one part of lesson presentation. Another equally fruitful element is positive feedback. The latter is reported by the majority of the respondents as having a magical power on improving the learners' learning outcomes. This can be reached via expressions like:

- be free when you express yourself;
- don't be shy;
- you are here to make mistakes;
- failure teaches success;

Though it is their duty to study, pupils by nature expect some rewards. The latter can be in the form of extra points or gifts (books, etc.). In order that what has already been mentioned work successfully, a good and emotional atmosphere should be established. This is purely the job of the teacher who is supposed to avoid and make pupils avoid all that leads to and causes stress. In a nutshell, motivating pupils is a complex issue. On the one hand, it involves a wide range of techniques and strategies. On the other hand, it is often difficult to ensure their usefulness in achieving the predetermined objectives.

15. How important do you consider that the writing task incorporates an element of real communication?

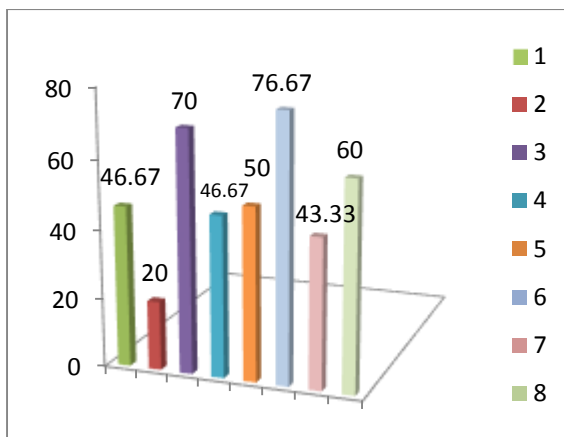
In fact, communication can be achieved through both speaking and writing. When we write, we are communicating. In other words, we discuss all ideas via written texts and passages. When you read anyone's piece of writing, you can feel her/his state of mind. It is absolutely for this reason that an emphasis was previously put on the need for carefully selecting the writing topics. Right now, we can say that the topic of a given task should on the one hand motivate the learners, and on the other hand, it should equally include elements of real communication. This way, learners would be able to develop some communicative skills while learning the language. 90% of the participants find this issue extremely important and argue that writing tasks and their implementation teaches the learners communication via two complementary phases. First, writing tasks, including ideas and vocabulary items, are intended for a given audience. It follows that a certain message is being transmitted so communication is established through the writing channel. Second, depending on the teacher's techniques for teaching the skill in question, more or less, interaction (through discussion and exchange of ideas) takes place between classmates who would consequently learn how to communicate in real situations. At least, we can say that there is a sense of positive estimation and recognition of the importance of incorporating elements of real communication in different writing tasks.

16. What do you take into account in grading:

1. Language performance of the student as formally demonstrated on tests, quizzes, and other explicitly scored procedure.
2. Your intuitive, informal observation of the student's language performance.
3. Oral participation in class.
4. Improvement (over the entire course period).
5. Behavior in class ("development") –being cooperative, polite, disruptive, etc.
6. Effort.

7. Motivation.

8. Punctuality and attendance.



Graph 7: Factors of Grading

Grading is the process of giving learners the grades they deserve. In fact, many aspects of language are taken into account together with other factors. Our respondents seem to give very much importance to effort for 76.67% of them ticked the box of “effort”. However, it may not be easy for them to measure how much effort their pupils are trying to make. Oral participation in class stands in the second position if arranged according to the number of ticks. Of course, speaking is a productive skill that enables learners to practice the language items and rules that they are learning. They make mistakes and receive feedback and practice more and learn better. For teachers, this is something positive and they try to put into consideration in grading. Nonetheless, we can find that some rather good learners have no tendency and readiness for oral participation in class. Thus, the teacher’s assessment may not be fully fair.

Punctuality and attendance are two factors which are taken into account in grading by 60% of the respondents. Punctual learners learn more and better than the others in the sense that they do not miss information and pieces of knowledge that the teacher presents during lessons. Indeed, punctuality and attendance are extremely significant in the sense that they

teach learners to give importance to their study and thus raise their awareness towards its value to them and their future alike.

Another prominent element in the general evaluation of the learners is their behavior in class including: cooperation, politeness, disruption, etc. In fact, 50% of the respondents ticked this item. Naturally, the general atmosphere of the classroom that is created by its actors: teacher and pupils seem to be the monitor of the on-going activity in class. Therefore, any disruption would disturb the 'healthy environment' that would foster learning.

The first item about language performance of the students as formally demonstrated on tests, quizzes and other explicitly-scored procedure was ticked by 46.67% of the informants. This item is directly concerned with the learners' linguistic input and output and the miscellaneous knowledge that has been transferred to them from and by their teachers.

The same number of teachers ticked the item of: improvement (over the entire course period). The concept of improvement is by all means significant on the basis that it is an indicator of the learning process and its development, for instance, if pupils do not achieve any improvement over time, it means that there is something wrong somewhere. Teachers' recognition of this matter can certainly detect the problem and give the appropriate feedback before it is too late.

Another complex and weighty concept in the field of language teaching and learning alike is that of motivation. The latter seems to function as the incentive that pushes both teachers and learners to achieve their tasks in the most perfect way. Our respondents seem not to recognize the importance of motivation in that only 43.33 % of them ticked its box.

Lastly, teachers (only 20%) do not give remarkable importance to their intuitive and informal observation of the students' language performance. Possibly, they keep this kind of assessment for other purposes.

What can be drawn from these findings is that teachers prioritize and emphasize the learners' behavior, reaction and interaction over their linguistic level and achievement. This can be due to the fact that education must precede instruction and learning. Put it another way, no matter how much knowledge learners have, they cannot be good "citizens" and "nation-builders" if the episode of morals and positive interaction is lost.

17. How clear to your students do you make the purpose of any writing activity?

All the participants, with no exception, subscribe to the issue that the purpose of any writing activity should be made clear to the pupils as much as possible. This has a number of advantages. Put it differently, if learners have clear objectives of the given task, they would do better. According to the respondents, one way to do that is to explain the writing topic more than once till the set objectives reside in the pupils' minds. Undoubtedly, this would both guide and help them throughout the writing activity. The point here is that explaining the topic itself may sometimes be daunting. Some teachers report that they often face big problems in the very beginning of the given task and that they resort to other techniques like: reformulating the question or translating it into French or Arabic. Doing so can alleviate the burden of what is to follow. Discussing the general idea and giving some writing instruction can similarly pave the way for reaching all or at least the main objectives of the task. A significant number of the informants complain about the pupils' inability to represent their ideas, which are rather good, by stretches of language. Therefore, the writing activity turns out to be a failure. What can be drawn from these remarks is that explaining and clarifying the purpose of the writing activity is solely enough and that miscellaneous and complex factors have to be present.

18. How might the purpose of a writing activity determine your approach to preparing the activity in class?

Setting and making the purpose(s) of a given writing activity lucid to the learners is by all means a necessary step in the sense that learners, bearing in mind all that has been illustrated to them, would do better to reach those objectives and the whole task would be sheer success. So far, the question arises as to how the purpose of a writing activity determines the approach that is to be adopted for preparing the activity in class.

All the respondents assert that there is a real relationship between the purpose of the lesson and the approach used. However, the majority of them failed or at least could not illustrate and exemplify this issue. Teachers just named some teaching approaches like: the process approach, the task-based approach, and the competency-based approach, and briefly explained some writing activities. For instance, if pupils are asked to write a letter, the procedure and the techniques used are very much different from those required for checking or practicing grammatical rules or vocabulary items, or even free writing. This implies that the purpose of a writing activity and the way of its implementation are deeply-interconnected. The point that should be stressed here is the teachers' recognition and attempt to carry out the most appropriate writing activity and equally use the most suitable writing techniques and devices.

19. How might the purpose of a writing activity determine your approach to correction?

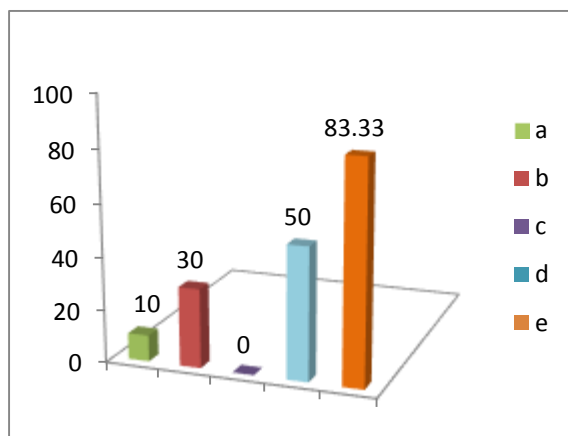
Correcting a writing activity differs to a considerable degree from correcting other tasks. It is sometimes daunting in the sense that it requires much effort and concentration. This is the reason why, the notion of correction should be well handled on the teachers' part.

The respondents totally agree with the issue that the purpose of a writing activity determines the approach to correction. However, not all the participants have understood this question in the same way. Some of them discussed ways and techniques of correction, while the others just foregrounded the basis for giving high grades to a given writing task. They explain by giving some examples: -if the purpose of the writing task is to produce (free

writing), correction should be directed towards both form (grammatical rules and vocabulary) and content (ideas and the extent to which they are original). They report that peer review can be highly interesting and beneficial in this type of writing; –if pupils are given a task about comparing/contrasting, for instance, they are asked to follow and respect all the instructions of this activity; if the task highlights anything specific, the pupils’ product should touch upon what is expected from them. Another argument is that every teacher bears in mind some important features that determine how successful pupils would be. Needless to say, the two angles of tackling the issue are justified. As for the aforementioned angle of understanding this question, they discussed three types of error correction: peer review, self-correction and teacher correction. First, peer review consists of exchanging drafts and suggesting corrections for each other. Second, self-correction is good for learners because it gives them the opportunity to discover their mistakes and avoid them in the future. Last but not least, the teacher correction is by all means the one that is mostly used by instructors

20. When you correct your pupils’ mistakes, do you:

- a-Blame them first.
- b-Correct the mistakes directly.
- c-Correct the mistakes without drawing their attention to them.
- d-Ask other pupils to correct them.
- e-Draw their attention to the mistakes and then correct them.



Graph 8: Techniques of Error Correction

Correcting the learners' mistakes is a very complicated process. This is partly because it requires going through many steps and more than one side is involved. In trying to know some of the teachers' reactions and ways of dealing with the pupils' mistakes, we suggested five items and the participants' answers were fluctuating.

First, the item:-draw their attention to the mistakes and then correct them was ticked by 83.33% of the respondents. It seems that teachers prefer direct feedback which consists of making the pupils recognize their mistakes before correction takes place. In fact, this type was largely criticized by researchers because it has some drawbacks.

Second, 50% of the informants say that they-ask other pupils to correct them. This is one form of peer review: another teaching technique that proved to have some positive effects on the general implementation of lessons' presentations. It can create a kind of positive interaction between the pupils and is deemed as a teaching aid for the teacher.

Third, 30% of the teachers-correct the pupils directly. That is to say, they do not do anything other than giving them the right answer.

Fourth, only 10% of the respondents report that they-blame them first i.e. they make some negative comments before they correct the mistakes. This, in fact, can leave a trace of humiliation and shame in the learners and would negatively correlate with their academic achievement.

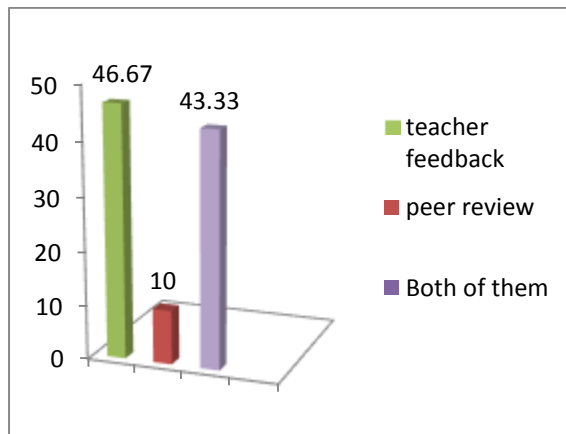
Finally, none of the respondents ticked the item-correct the mistakes without drawing their attention to them. It is possible that those teachers consider this procedure harmful in the sense that not knowing their exact mistakes can lead to the fossilization of those mistakes even if they are corrected because they are not aware of them in the first place.

21. Do you prefer:

a- Teacher's feedback?

b- Peer review?

c- Both of them



Graph 9: Teachers' Preferences of Types of Error Correction

All teachers give feedback. However, the form of this unavoidable aspect can vary from one teacher to another according to the nature of the lesson itself. The major types of correction are: teacher feedback, peer review and also self-correction. Of course, research discusses the nature, the advantages and disadvantages of each of them. But, whether teachers are aware of them or not is another issue.

In fact, 46.67% of the participants in this study say that they prefer teacher feedback. Unquestionably, the way the teacher gives his feedback considerably varies from the way pupils do. This category of the respondents seems to be aware of the great difficulties of training the learners on how to give feedback on their peers' drafts. They may not equally trust the whole task unless it is implemented under their control and supervision.

Only 10% of our teachers report that they prefer peer review. The latter can be greatly beneficial for learning if carried out in the correct way.

The remnant part of the informants (43.33%) ticked both choices i.e. teacher feedback and peer review. They seem to have a wider perception of the importance of trying to make the teaching/learning process more open to various techniques and practices in the classroom.

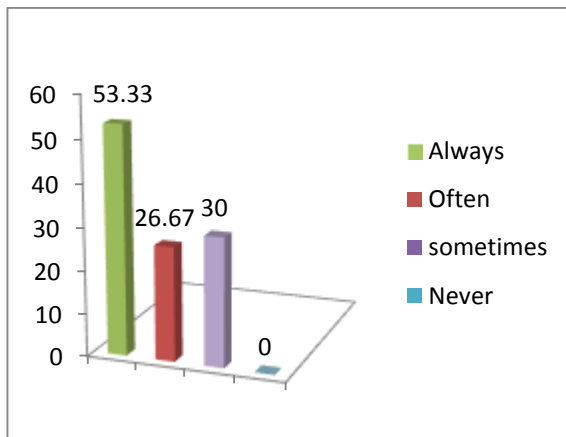
22. What are the advantages of feedback and peer review, if any?

One of the most recurrent responses about the advantages of feedback and peer review is drawing the learners' attention towards their mistakes. Needless to say, when learners' mistakes are corrected, they would discover their errors and try to avoid them in the future especially in direct explicit feedback which is primarily based on drawing the pupils' attention to the error and then correcting it.

On the whole, teachers' answers were focused on more or less the same elements, give or take one answer or so. To begin with, the psychological effect is highly considered by the informants who claim that teachers' feedback motivates the pupils to discover their mistakes and raise their eagerness to get them corrected. Moreover, feedback makes them more self-confident in the sense that correcting mistakes is not an obstacle anymore. Also, correction encourages them for using the language more and better than ever before. At the linguistic level, the respondents equally gave miscellaneous answers. Feedback gives the learners wider opportunities for learning the language and reinforcing their knowledge of it. In addition, this technique constitutes a support and aid to the teacher during the lesson presentation. In the end, it is worth mentioning that most of the respondents prefer teacher feedback to peer review arguing that pupils often underestimate their peers' remarks and do not trust each other. In addition, they find the teacher's feedback objective where as peer review subjective.

23. How often do you use feedback?

- Always
- Often
- Sometimes
- Never

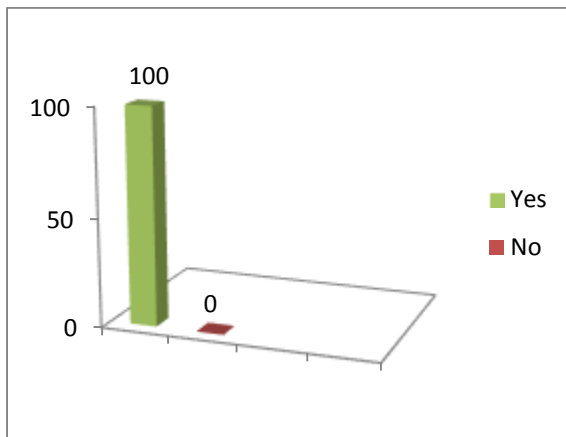


Graph 10: Frequency of Feedback Use

Feedback is by all means an essential aspect of TLP on the basis that it enhances the learners' academic level through helping them in recognizing their mistakes and knowing their corrections. This is the reason why there is no way for ignoring feedback and its benefits. In this study, 53.33 of the participants report that they *always* use feedback, 26.67 % of them *often* use feedback, and 30% of them *sometimes* use feedback. Fortunately, none of the participants answered '*Never*'. This is more or less good because no matter how often they use feedback, it is present in their lessons. This does by no means mean that the frequency of using feedback is not significant, but at least teachers try to incorporate it in their teaching and give it a certain degree of consideration. The more they use this teaching technique, the more benefits they discover and thus take it into account.

24. Do your students benefit from feedback?

- Yes
- No



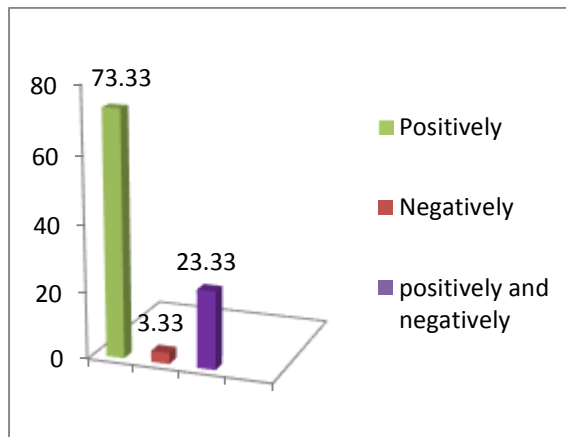
Graph 11: Teachers' Attitudes toward Students' Benefiting from Feedback

Giving feedback does not necessarily result in enhancing and fostering students' academic achievement. This issue is extremely important because if teachers spend considerable amounts of time on giving feedback and pupils are not benefiting from those corrections and language reinforcements, then the main or all of the objectives of the task are not fulfilled. This leads us to ask the question about the possible ways that teachers can follow in order to check whether pupils are benefiting from feedback or not.

In this question item, all the respondents (100%) with no exception claim that their pupils benefit from feedback. However, teachers have to be successful and use strategic techniques like: giving subsequent tasks, or asking the same questions differently or even asking them to repeat what the teacher is saying. Knowing about the right and correct implementation of feedback will certainly facilitate things for both the teacher and the learner. For the former, the task is successfully conducted, and for the latter, thorough understanding is reached. In a nutshell, the main aim of giving feedback is not to show that the teacher is doing so, but to make sure that it is useful and fruitful for TLP.

25. How do your students react to feedback

- Positively
- Negatively



Graph 12: Ways of Students' Reaction to Feedback

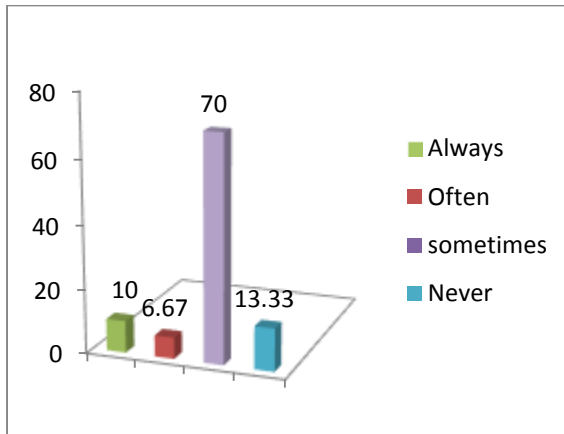
The results clearly show that pupils positively react to feedback. In terms of numbers, 73.33% of the informants report that their pupils like the teachers' feedback, and only 3.33% of them say that their pupils do not prefer feedback. The remaining part of the respondents claim that pupils react sometimes positively and sometimes negatively (23.33%). Of course, most teachers use feedback in one form or another.

Research (e.g. Harmer, 2005) proves that if feedback is used in the correct way, it can lead to positive learning outcomes. Therefore, teachers should deeply understand the true nature of feedback, its most convenient ways of implementation, its various forms and steps, learners' possible reactions to it and the right way of dealing with them and of course its benefits and drawbacks. However, things are not always as easy and simple as teachers might think. Pupils are human beings and the latter's reaction is not always predictable.

Another point is the teacher's solutions in case pupils react negatively to feedback, and the way he/she can take them in charge after such a reaction. Pupils can feel ashamed of their mistakes and even humiliated especially if the teacher compares them with each other. In a nutshell, teachers' awareness of the complexity of feedback concerning both its anatomy and outcomes can undoubtedly help both him and his pupils to achieve the predetermined objectives.

26. How often do you use peer review?

- Always
- Often
- Sometimes
- Never



Graph 13: Frequency of Peer Review Use

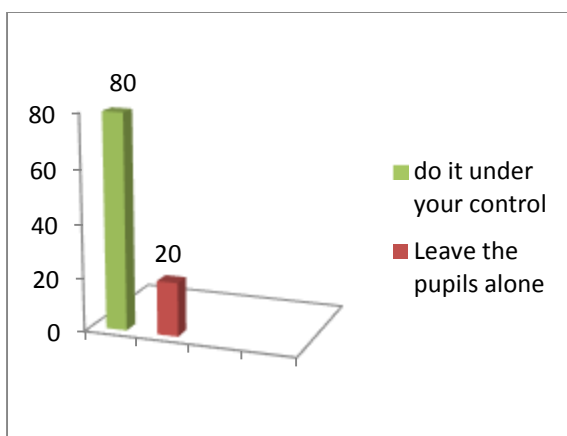
Peer review is another technique and form of feedback that teachers can rely on in different teaching tasks. The fact is that some teachers are aware of its implementation in class, its benefits and even negative aspects; whereas the others could have never tried it. In this research, 70% of the participant teachers answered that they sometimes use peer review, 13.33% of them said that they never used it, 6.67% often use it and only 10% of the respondents report that they always use peer review.

In fact, the results are not surprising at all. Many teachers seem to be very cautious in relation to this rather ignored method. The reasons behind this are many and varied. To start with, most teachers do not trust the feedback that pupils can give. After all, they are still learners and their linguistic capacities are not yet developed enough for correcting the others. Also, the technique in question is effort-and-time-demanding because it should be conducted under the tutor's supervision if good outcomes are sought. Moreover, possible disputes between pupils are not exceptional because some of them are bold and stubborn and do not

accept to be corrected by their peers. Such obstacles may push teachers to refrain from incorporating it in their lessons.

27. When you use it, do you:

- Do it under your control?
- Leave the pupils alone?



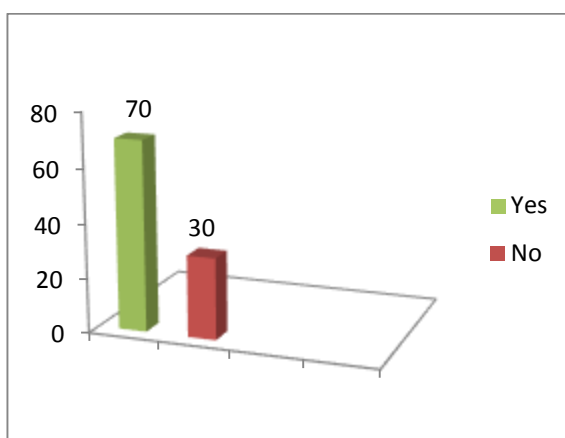
Graph 14: Techniques of Peer Review Implementation

The majority of the participants (**80%**) report that they use peer review under their control. Obviously, such a technique can be relatively new to the learners because they are more familiar with whole class instruction in which the teacher is the main ‘actor’ and the ‘all doer’. In this case, if the teacher tries to introduce something new to his learners, there are some conditions to be respected and followed. In the first place, the teacher should raise their awareness and draw their attention towards the importance and usefulness of the new technique. This is an unavoidable step because if learners do not see the real relevance of doing something, they would not probably do their best to succeed in it. Then, the teacher has to train them on the use of the technique in question. As a final step, the teacher should continuously and continually control and direct pupils during a given task so that they are not willingly or not driven out of the main core of the topic.

The remaining small part of teachers (**20%**) claim to leave pupils alone during a peer review task. Their answers are, in my opinion, not logical. It seems quite irresponsible to leave pupils alone unless they have been very well trained on the right way for the implementation of such a technique.

28. Do your students like it?

- Yes
- No



Graph 15: Teachers' Attitudes toward Students' Preference of Peer Review

Peer review is another essential component of the teaching/learning process. That is to say, its inclusion and implementation can positively contribute to the success of the process in question. Concerning the results for this question, it seems that the majority of the teachers (70%) claim that their pupils like peer review, and only (30%) of the respondents answered 'No'.

Of course, whether learners like peer review or not will largely depend on a variety of factors including: way of implementation, teacher involvement and role, time allocated, and most of all pupils' readiness for working and cooperating with others; a characteristic which

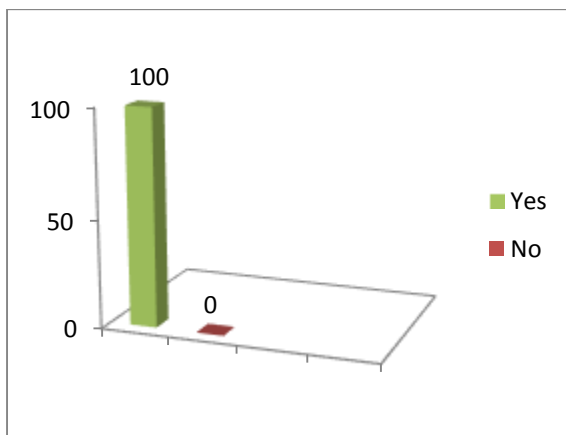
teachers should always try to advise their pupils for and even show them various techniques and practices of good cooperation and collaboration.

One of the obstacles that can hinder its conduct and encourage pupils to hate it is the teacher's total absence during a given task. Under such circumstances, bold pupils can frighten and even threaten other pupils in case they detect their errors and report them to the teacher. If something like this happens, then the whole process is going to be a real failure. This is the reason why, before trying any technique, teachers should establish the most suitable conditions for its implementation basing on the results of research in the field.

2.2.2. Section Two: Interaction with the Learners

29. Do you interact with your pupils in the classroom?

- Yes
- No



Graph 16: Teachers' Interaction with Pupils in Class

Once in the classroom, the teacher is supposed to take action in relation to pupils. Put it differently, the tutor is going to react with the learners. The main purpose of this question item is to investigate whether the respondents are aware of the importance of various

classroom reactions no matter the category under which they fall. Hattie (2009, cited in Strong, 2013) explains the elements of interaction:

- Teacher clarity – being explicit about what to do
- Setting work that is one step ahead of the current level
- Pupils assessing themselves by reaching a view on their levels of understanding
- Teacher credibility – the students’ perception that the teacher can enhance their learning
- Using formative assessment to decide next steps
- Reciprocal teaching – pupils take turns in teaching class. (Pp.21-22)

Though 100% of the respondents answered ‘yes’, the result is by no means surprising because it is totally logical that teachers interact with their learners. Here, what can be debatable are the possible forms that this interaction can take. In general, interaction is defined as any shared action or/and reaction between the teacher and his learners. Of course, we are focusing more on interaction in the classroom because this is where teaching takes place. It is not claimed, here, that teachers and learners should not or must not interact elsewhere but at least the classroom is where they are supposed to deal more with pedagogical matters. Of course, no teaching can be achieved without some form of interaction but its amount and exact forms may depend on many factors including the teacher’s techniques and practices as well his personality traits. This is the reason why, the next question explores various forms that interaction can take in the classroom.

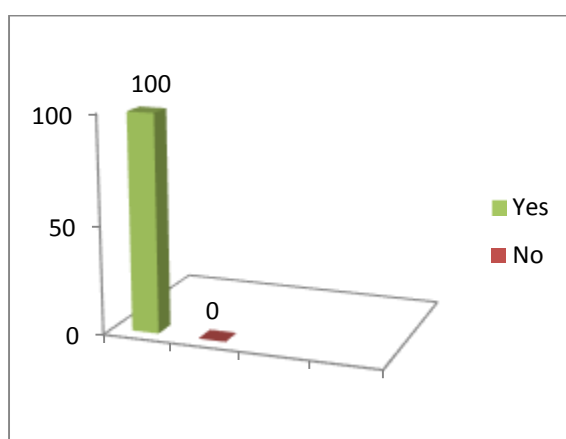
30. Which form does this interaction take?

It is taken for granted that every action has a reaction. But some behaviors can cause more stress and anger than others. This is partly why forms of interaction will greatly depend on what is going on in the classroom. Interaction with pupils in the classroom can be either

oral or written. According to the respondents, the most common form of the former type is asking/answering questions in a formal way when discussing a given topic that is related to the lesson itself. One technique of encouraging interaction is to write pupils ideas and answers on the board and ask the other pupils to give examples and discuss what is written for the sake of pushing learners to interact. Here, the teacher should try to create real-life situations to encourage pupils to take part in the discussions and dialogues. In addition, the teacher may equally have some short discussions with his/her pupils in order to know some of their interests and problems no matter what they are and help them find solutions to them. So far, we have been discussing teacher/learner interaction. In fact, interaction can similarly be carried out by pupils themselves and of course under the teacher supervision in order to intervene whenever necessary. Last but not least, some teachers focused on written interaction like writing some comments in the pupils' diaries for the sake of reading them and taking them into consideration, and giving written feedback.

31. Do you think that interaction is beneficial to the learners?

- Yes
- No



Graph 17: Teachers' Attitudes toward the Importance of Interaction

Interaction is reported by research to be an essential aspect of TLP. This is the reason why, teachers are advised to try to incorporate it into the whole process of instruction hoping that there would be some improvement in the quality of both teaching and learning outcomes.

Unsurprisingly, the results show that **100%** of the respondents think that interaction is beneficial for the learners. However, this is not enough. Put it another way, knowing the importance of interaction is just one part of the whole issue. What is equally important is conducting it in a successful way. This; however, is by no means an easy task and requires much effort from the teacher. This is because interaction can take many forms and it can be direct or indirect. In addition to that, the pupils may not be ready for interaction for the latter may require some psychological preparation and at the same time, if well implemented, it can lead to ameliorating both the psychological and the linguistic sides. Other significant benefits may be mentioned and explained by the informants in details in what follows.

32. If yes, state some benefits:

Teachers' answers about the benefits of classroom interaction can be classified into three categories. At the linguistic level, the informants assert that classroom interaction enable the learners to practice the language they are learning to a large extent; something that will no doubt give them wide opportunities to put what they know into practice. Moreover, pupils' attention would permanently be kept towards what is going on in the classroom, and their minds would be kept from wandering and thinking about extra things. Furthermore, asking and answering questions enable the participants to understand better, get things clarified, exchange information, learn new vocabulary and language expressions, correct their mistakes, and have new ideas. In addition, interaction can create a good learning atmosphere in which everyone has the right and the opportunity to express their thoughts and feelings freely. Last but not least, interaction can impinge the learners' oral skills (listening and speaking) in the sense that they would learn how to listen to the others and how to express oneself alike.

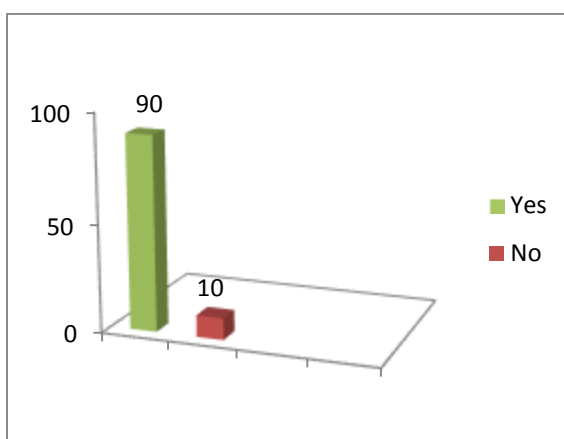
At the psychological level, interaction can raise students' motivation for learning the language. Self-confidence can equally be fostered by means of self-expression and being active all the time. Equally significant is the problem of shyness which can be overcome and supplanted by high self-esteem.

At the social level, interaction can help the pupils to establish good relationships with each other and with the teacher alike; a rapport that is based on respect and accepting the other with all his/her personality traits. This prepares them to become good citizens who accept the others' opinions.

In fact, the aforementioned benefits primarily concern the learners. But this does not exclude those associated with the teacher himself. The respondents report that interaction enlarges the teacher's knowledge about his learners. Therefore, he can talk to them and work out solutions to their problems, if any. Significantly important is that interaction can give the teacher the opportunity to spot his/her weaknesses and look for the corresponding remedies.

33. Do you encourage your pupils to ask questions?

- Yes
- No



Graph 18: Teachers' Encouragement of Pupils for Asking Questions

The answer to this question item depends very much on the teacher's techniques as well as the general atmosphere of the lesson implementation. Asking questions is certainly an

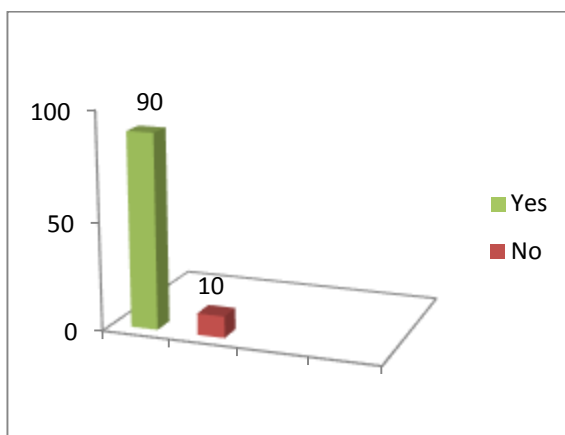
unavoidable ‘segment’ of any lesson. However, the problem begins when pupils refrain from asking questions for one reason or another. This can hinder the teaching/learning process for what is presented may not be fully grasped with no further questions asked. Here, the role of the teacher is to encourage his pupils to ask questions. This is by no means an easy task and some tips might be needed for this purpose.

The overriding majority of the respondents (**90%**) say that they encourage pupils to ask questions. This can be reached via drawing and raising their attention to the importance of the lesson presented and that everything should be thoroughly grasped. Another technique that can push pupils to ask questions is to make the lesson interesting and to render asking questions a spontaneous behavior.

The remnant part of the informants (**10%**) reports that they do not encourage pupils to ask questions. It is possible that those teachers are afraid of going out of the lesson if they give pupils the opportunity or encourage them to ask questions. This, in fact, is a problematic issue because it can have negative effects on the pupils including ‘killing’ their talent and readiness for analyzing, criticizing and arguing, if any.

34. Do you have discussion with your pupils about extra topics?

- Yes
- No



Graph 19: Teachers’ Discussion with Pupils about Extra Topics

This question item is in a way related to the teacher's personality and its characteristics and more precisely to the aspects of extroversion and introversion. 90% of the participants answered 'yes'. That is to say, they hold discussions with their pupils about extra topics. Undoubtedly, the latter are many and varied but it is the teacher's intelligence that enables him to select the most suitable topics and the right time to start such discussions. One should not understand that those topics are personal or the like but just some hints that can enrich the content of the lesson and facilitate understanding. Doing so can, equally make the lesson interesting and free from boredom. Moreover, those discussions, if well directed, can encourage students to give their opinions about a given topic by expressing themselves orally, for instance, and thus use the language that they are learning. In nutshell, having discussions with learners can be of great benefits.

However, 10% of the teachers do not prefer to discuss any topics with their pupils. They might be afraid of losing control over the lesson or they do not see any advantages of doing so. After all, teachers' practices in class can vary from one teacher to another hoping for better academic results.

2.2.3. Section Three: Sources of Teachers' Pedagogical Knowledge

35. What are the main sources of your pedagogical knowledge?

Teachers' quest for knowledge that practically serves this career is long and hard. This is basically because of the complexity of its nature and the diversity of its sources. Nonetheless, all this would almost be meaningless if no methodological procedures are adopted to put it into action. In support of this view, Winch (2011) maintains that

Professionals are supposed to have access to specialized, abstract and difficult-to-acquire knowledge, which they put into practice in the course of their work. Their

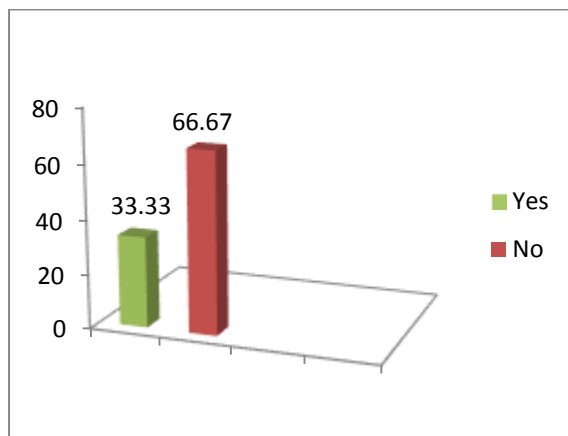
ability to put this esoteric knowledge into practice constitutes, arguably, the core of their expertise and hence of their professional status. (p.14)

All the participants' answers to this question are more or less the same. In the first place, they rely on the official textbooks which contain the lessons they are supposed to present in class. However, they argue, a good teacher should not thoroughly stick to the textbook in order not to lose motivation and interest in teaching. In fact, the content of the textbook is occasionally reinforced by the various meetings and seminars arranged by inspectors. These can spot light on some ambiguous issues which are related to both content and methodology.

The second reliable source of their PK is their readings. The informants mentioned a variety of source types including: books, magazines, newspapers, internet...etc. Moreover, a considerable number of the respondents seem to be keen on watching some T.V programs and Channels in English like the BBC and CNN. This trains their ears on the standard language and helps them improve their pronunciation so that it sounds native-like. In addition to what has been mentioned earlier, teachers consider their prior/background/university knowledge the basis from which they start for the sake of accumulating as much useful knowledge as possible.

Another significant source of PK is having discussions with colleagues, experts and ex-teachers. This opens windows on exchanging information and sharing experiences. The teaching experience is by all means a key component of one's career. I am not saying that less-experienced teachers know less but spending many years doing something is itself an addition. In the end, it is worth mentioning that few teachers are interested in research and doing it. This is a pity because research and its results can serve as a wide and very rich source of all the pedagogical knowledge teachers need for their career.

36. Do you think that what you know is enough for successful teaching of writing?



Graph 20: Teachers' Attitudes toward the Sufficiency of their Knowledge for Success

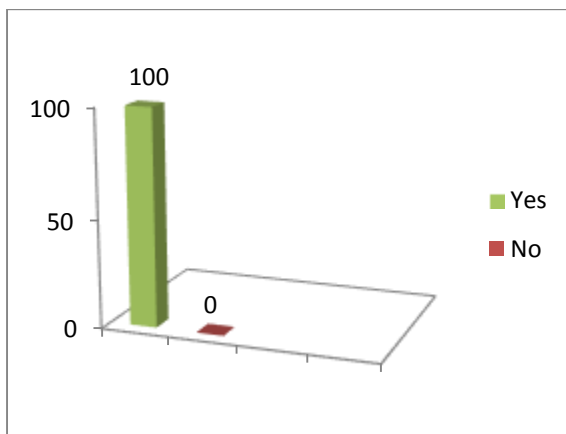
The exact definition of 'successful teaching' is in fact debatable. Nonetheless, having significant pedagogical knowledge is part of it. If a teacher does not fully grasp something, he won't be able to explain it to the others. And at the same time, even if the teacher is very much knowledgeable, he would probably fail to pass this knowledge to the receivers if he lacks the most suitable methods and techniques to send the message to the learners. Thus, being knowledgeable is certainly a matter of content (what every teacher should know) and methodology (how to teach).

In our study, 33.33% of the participants claim that what they know is enough for successful teaching. Experienced teachers may of course reach a given level which allows them to accomplish the teaching task in a very sophisticated way. Experience, however, is not necessarily the ultimate result of 'aging' in the field. Rather, we can find novice teachers with very considerable amounts of knowledge in all fields.

The two thirds of the respondents (66.67%) report that PK is not enough for successful teaching. Those teachers can represent the new graduates, who, after starting teaching find themselves in front of real obstacles that they have never faced them: real teaching situations. This pushes them to search for extra information and always try to add to what they already know.

37. Do you try to develop your pedagogical knowledge?

- Yes
- No



Graph 21: Teachers' Attempts to Widen PK

Developing one's PK is important, but more important is putting this knowledge into practice. As it has been already mentioned, PK includes both what and how to teach, and it is collected throughout the teacher's professional life. Naturally, teachers are not all the same in the sense that some of them are continuously working hard and longing for fostering their linguistic level for the sake of brightening their academic achievement at a time when the others are simply satisfied with what they are and no further tasks seem to be waiting for them, as far as what they think of course.

The results show that 100% of the informants answered 'yes'. That is, they try to add to their PK. Unquestionably, there is a number of ways for managing to do so. First, reading is the most essential source for further information about a given topic. It is both useful and pleasurable. Second, attending and participating in various conferences and seminars in the field enable teachers to be exposed to what is up-to- date and refresh knowledge. Last but not least, experience can immensely and positively contribute to one's career. With the lapse of

time, teachers learn new things and information accumulates to form a significant source for what is required for successful teaching.

38. If yes, how?

The most recurrent answer concerning the way of adding to one's pedagogical knowledge is reading. The respondents have already mentioned that this skill is the main source of their PK. Needless to say, reading books and articles about EFL or other related-fields whether print or electronic (internet) is the key to successful teaching. Another skill that the informants report its involvement is listening. They agree that listening to FL through audio programs or visual shows like the news or others will unquestionably enhance the learners' (in this case the teacher) ability to understand and speak English more efficiently. In addition, most of the respondents insist on the issue that teachers should remain active throughout their career. Put it differently, teachers should always keep looking for what is new in the field in order to get informed about new techniques and methods of teaching. This can be partly achieved via searching on the net and reading what is recently published. Moreover, another practical aid for teachers' quest for knowledge is discussing pedagogical questions with more experienced teachers and inspectors through taking part in various training courses which are periodically held. Last but not least, making research should be a 'token' of good and more effective teachers whose objective is fostering the level and quality of teaching.

39. In your opinion, what should every teacher know in order to be successful?

Knowing how to teach requires the mastery of various and many elements and sub-elements of the whole process of teaching and learning. According to Chaplain (2003):

Classrooms are represented in a number of ways including social, psychological and physical dimensions. What constitutes an appropriate learning atmosphere will be different from teacher to teacher and subject to subject, and influenced by layout,

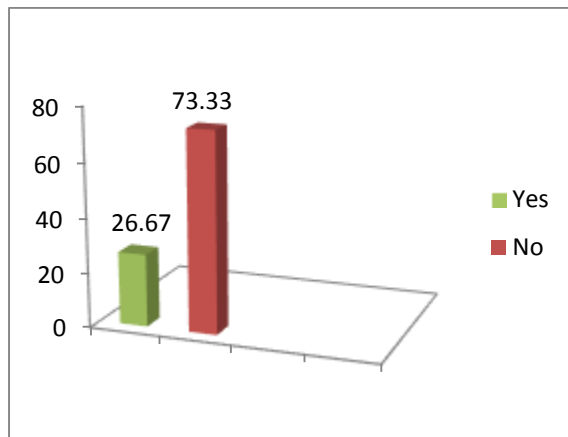
seating, temperature and smell as well as the quality of student– teacher interaction.
(p.107).

This implies that in order to be successful in his career, the teacher’s knowledge must incorporate aspects of teaching which are linked to the three dimensions in the core of the teaching/learning process.

According to the respondents, every teacher should have two kinds of knowledge. Firstly, linguistic knowledge constitutes the basis for doing this job, and it comprises both subject matter and general teaching methodology including methods, techniques and various useful strategies. This results in successful lesson planning and presentation and the ability to face all the pupils’ questions and preoccupations. A teacher who masters the language can easily point out and detect the learners’ strengths and weaknesses.

Secondly, the most recurrent word in the participants’ answers is *psycho-pedagogy*. Indeed, in order to be able to deal with the pupils and positively respond to their behaviors in class, the teacher should have large amount of knowledge in psycho-pedagogy.. This is the reason why, attention must be paid to this sensitive side and great care should equally be given to exploring the learners’ beliefs, interest and their overall attitudes towards teaching and learning alike. Being patient, respectful and comprehensive, the teacher would have no defying problems with classroom management. The informants, in fact, are aware of two basic components of any successful teachers’ pedagogical knowledge.

40. Do you think that a good teacher of writing is necessarily an experienced one?



Graph 22: Teachers' Attitudes toward the Existence of a Relationship between Experience and Good Teaching

In relation to this item, it is significantly important to highlight the role of experience in the teacher's career. The notion of a good teacher can be a very complicated one because it is rather difficult to tell who is a good teacher. However, some elements are absolutely very basic for a good/effective teacher. When asked about the role of experience in making a good teacher, 73.33% of the participants responded 'no'. That is to say, they believe that a good teacher is not necessarily an experienced one. In other words, one can be a good teacher without having a considerable experience. In fact, novice teachers who are equipped with sufficient pedagogical knowledge and the appropriate teaching methodology can accomplish their tasks in a perfect way.

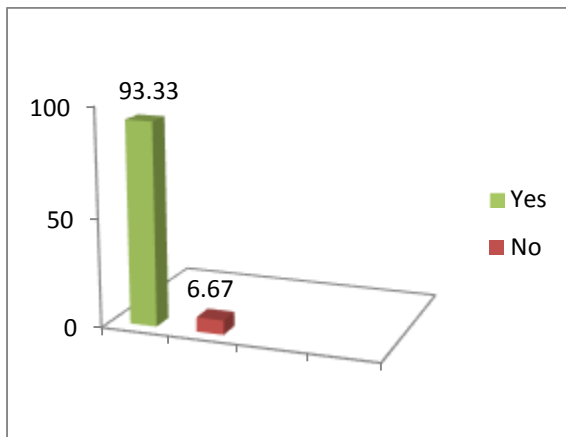
Though small, the other part of the informants think that a good teacher is necessarily an experienced one. Naturally, the more we teach, the more we learn about how to teach, how to deal with learners with their different levels and ages and when to refrain from some reactions and behaviors which can have very bad effects on both the learners and the teaching/learning process. In nutshell, experience is a good element for teaching, but it is not the only measure for success.

41. Justify your answer in either case.

As it is stated in question 40, this item explores the relationship, if any, between effective teaching and experience. The participants who answered ‘yes’ claim that experience gives a lot to teachers and positively contributes to the development and ongoing of their career. What is really attractive in their answers is that they focused more on how to deal with pupils than on knowing the subject matter. Put it another way, they believe that interacting positively with the learners is much more difficult than learning what to teach them. The opponents of the significant role of experience in teaching, in turn, provide their arguments. In fact, they emphasize more the extraordinary outcomes of hard work stating that the latter can be weightier than experience because it can teach much more knowledge than the latter. Moreover, they argue that novice teachers make more effort and search about new teaching methods than the old teachers who are often satisfied with what they already know even if it is not very effective anymore. Furthermore, they add that novice teachers are full of energy and more motivated than old teachers who can be tired and bored. Finally, they conclude by saying that a good teacher is the one who masters the language he is teaching, prepares the lessons and love what he does. Frankly speaking, teachers who answered ‘no’ in the previous question are now providing rather subjective arguments to their position for they linked experience to old age as if they were synonyms. In fact, experienced teachers are not necessarily old, and old teachers are not also necessarily experienced.

42. Do you like reading?

- Yes
- No

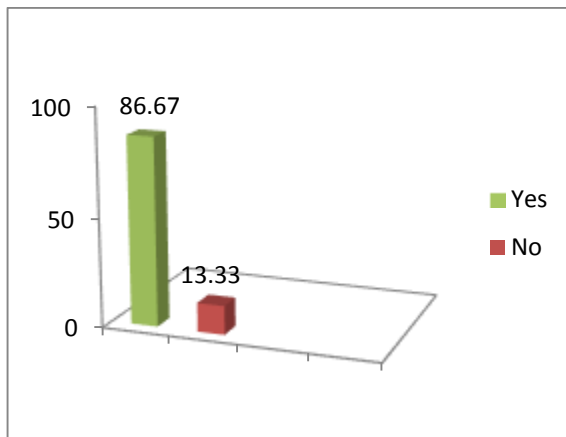


Graph 23: Teachers' Willingness to Read

Reading is absolutely one of the basic skills that are essentially required for language learning. Nonetheless, not all teachers are fond of it, or even have ever tried it. In fact, teaching reading should be part of language teaching curricula on the basis that learners may ignore both its importance and strategies. Fortunately, 93.33% of our respondents say that they like reading. Those teachers seem to be aware of the advantages of this skill and find it pleasurable in the first place. Reading books of literature, for instance, can teach them to think in more sophisticated and successful ways, and reading various research works in the field will certainly be useful to them as teachers. Reading equally adds a lot to their pedagogical knowledge and opens new horizons on what is going on (what is new) in the field of ELT. In a nutshell, advantages of reading are innumerable. A small part of the respondents (6.67%) answered 'no'. In other words, they do not like reading. This is a pity in fact because those teachers are surely deprived of the benefits of reading and unable to cope with the changing field of teaching languages though they may not be completely aware of this.

43. In your opinion, does reading contribute to the success of teaching writing?

- Yes
- No



Graph 24: Teachers' Attitudes toward the Contribution of Reading to the Success of Teaching writing

The teaching career is, in fact, a unique and exceptional one in the sense that its success is determined by many factors put together. However, those factors cannot be totally determined and unveiled. The teacher's personality, his readiness for doing this job, his scientific degree, his experience and the training that he receives occasionally all interfere in equipping the teacher with the necessary PK for teaching, and thus in the final outcome of the teaching profession. However, the teacher should equally try to add to what he already knows through reading. The latter, undoubtedly, will tremendously contribute to the quality of his job. It seems that our participants are aware of this fact because 86.67% of them answered 'yes'. This response can indicate that they know the exact value of reading and attempt to benefit from it. Unfortunately, 13.33% of the respondents think that reading does not contribute to the success of their career. Their position is in no way justified. Despite the fact that there are formal textbooks which they use in teaching and which contain content and methodology, teachers should never be satisfied with what is in the textbook, and try to engage in tasks for the pursuit of extra information.

44. Please explain.

Reading is by all means one of the skills that positively contributes to one's career as a teacher. All the participants seem to be aware of these benefits and plainly explain some of them. In the first place, they maintain that reading teaches the language itself including new vocabulary items, expressions and different language structures. In other words, it leads to language development and improvement and its further mastery. Moreover, reading enriches one's knowledge of new topics. This can be of use to teachers when they face both real-life situations and those related to their career. As far as the latter is concerned, most of the time teachers need extra information in order to be able to explain the writing topics in a satisfying manner. This information can be found in the different books that they read. In addition, reading gives teachers new insights on how to deal with the learners including their different ages, levels, characteristics and social and cultural backgrounds, and it similarly helps the teacher in improving his manners as an educator. Some participants also claim that reading can tremendously build one's experience though at a young age. The more one reads, the more knowledge would subsequently result in a considerable degree of experience.

Conclusion

Teachers' practices in class can be shaped by many factors including their pedagogical knowledge, perceptions and beliefs about teaching and learning as well as the working conditions and the materials and media available. This is basically why it is often difficult, if not impossible for teachers to put what they know into practice. Obstacles like: overcrowded classes, lack of some teaching media, lack of interest in learning the English language, low motivation and self-esteem, negative interaction between teachers and learners would all block the route in front of any attempts to improve the quality of both teaching and learning

which is the target of academic research in the field. For this reason, it is recommended to take the findings of any research work seriously.

We can safely say that what was hypothesized at the very beginning of this study sits well with the findings reported in this chapter. For more clarification, teaching writing constitutes a real challenge for teachers of English in the secondary school level for the aforementioned reasons though the results of the study show that they are ready for making more effort if they work under better conditions. More significant is the teachers' failure to put all their PK into practice especially so far as the principles and characteristics of the competency-based approach are concerned. This seems to be a real threat to teaching and learning alike and serious measures should be taken soon. Last but not least, during the writing task implementation, some elements, though essential, cannot be fully incorporated for many reasons: time insufficiency and pupil-related problems including: low and varying level, negative interaction between each other and between them and the teacher, and others which are directly connected to their social and cultural backgrounds. All this makes the poor teacher experience a kind of dilemma which in turn renders teaching rather daunting. This is the reason why teachers' preoccupations have to be highly considered because they are legitimate in the first place. The present study suggests some implications for teaching and the teacher in the chapter that follows.



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CHAPTER SIX: IMPLICATIONS OF RESEARCH

Introduction

Fathoming the core and pedagogical essentials of TLP on the teachers' part is certainly a matter of huge and urgent necessity. Being an actor on a stage whose secrets are not totally unveiled to him, the teacher may not perform in an effective or even acceptable manner. This is the reason why and starting from this problematic situation that this research was intended to be carried out. In fact, one's commitment to his/her job basically requires the abundance of a cluster of factors and a given atmosphere that would allow them to function properly and continuously. Certainly, the relationship between teaching and learning and the way and degree they influence one another is what is targeted in the whole issue of EFL research. The attempt, here, is made vis-à-vis the writing skill and CBA as a teaching methodology. Being relatively new in the Algerian educational context, CBLT constitutes a real challenge to teachers who are supposed to cope with the changing perceptions of TLP. Thus, the present chapter offers some pedagogical implications for teachers that might enlighten their career concerning the requisite PK and the corresponding practices, and it equally paves the way for investigating other issues that are unquestionably related to TLP.

1. Extending the Scope of the Teaching/Learning Process

By and large, the notion of education does not merely comprise the formal classroom and the teacher; it should go beyond that to encompass other segments including home and family. That is why, people have to act on this fact, or at least what we are trying to make a 'fact', and halt from blaming the school on all that is associated with education. In fact, "understanding the relationship between theory and practice is a persistent and difficult problem" (Van de ven & Johnson, 2006, p.802). In the field of language teaching, it is no

exception, and real challenges block the route in front of both instructors and inspectors. To clarify the position of one kind of knowledge in relation to the other, Van de ven and Johnson, (ibid.) state that:

Knowledge of theory and practice [are] as distinct kinds of knowledge. Each reflects a different ontology (truth claim) and epistemology (method) for addressing different questions. To say that the knowledge of theory and practice are different is not to say that they stand in opposition or they substitute for each other; rather, they complement one another. (pp.802-803)

In this vein, it is imperative that both segments of knowledge have to be fully mastered by the teacher for the sake of succeeding in teaching and enhancing learning.

2. Teachers' Pedagogical Knowledge

Everyone believes that teachers are knowledgeable. But, every rule has an exception. However, exceptions which are linked to this particular issue are by no means tolerated on the ground that what the teacher knows is not for him but for the others i.e. the learners. This is the reason why 'all teachers are knowledgeable' should be the exception to the rule that 'every rule has an exception'. Nonetheless, review of the literature clearly demonstrates that effective teaching is a complex mechanism that is enhanced by means of two deeply inter-dependent facets: knowing and doing. The latter primarily consists of putting PK into practice with the aim of fostering learning and obtaining better results. In part, this can be achieved via the pedagogical training that is offered to teachers of the three cycles: primary, middle and secondary. This training can be either in the form of seminars which are periodically held and animated by inspectors and language teaching experts, or through training cycles which are essentially organized for the sake of improving teachers' levels and providing them with what is new in the field of ELT. As far as the possible and available sources of teachers' PK, which

is supposed to augment and accumulate with the lapse of time, the participant teachers seem to prioritize some over the others. The findings show that teachers partially neglect or overlook reading which can be considered as the focal skill for enhancing teachers' PK.

3. Significance of Reading in Enhancing Pedagogical Knowledge

The results of the present study clearly show that the majority of the respondents tend to stick to the official text-books though these sometimes lack sufficient examples and clarifications. One more thing is that teachers sometimes ignore the extent to which they are allowed to go beyond the official documents that are provided by the Ministry of National Education. This, however, must not keep teachers far from the new findings in the field of EFL. Reading would, hence, provide them with all that they need for their career and especially in the case of the adoption of a new teaching methodology which requires of them to be very well-equipped with the necessary information and relative background knowledge for better implementation. Reading works of literature is highly beneficial for one's general culture and the development of thinking skills. The proponents of the suggestion that 'language influences cognition' strongly emphasize the exceptional role of reading in the development of the thinking skills which, in turn, would serve as an aid for conducting this profession which is basically dependent on one' mental capacities.

4. Bridging the Gap between Theoretical Knowledge and Classroom Pedagogical Practices

One of the most striking findings in this study is the teachers' report about their inability to put all they know into practice while teaching. To be honest, this does not always happen, but in some particular cases, it is almost impossible to try some teaching techniques and improve learning outcomes. In fact, the respondents mentioned and explained some of the

obstacles that certainly hinder any kind of TLP polishing. Those difficulties can have their sources in decision-makers like the school headmaster and the inspector. The latter, for instance, during his periodical visits, supervises and guides teachers along their profession and especially the novice ones. This is something absolutely positive if well exploited by teachers. In my opinion, the inspector's role should exceed this stage/task and encourage them to reserve more space for pedagogical creation and innovation in a way that goes in harmony with the endless demands of TLP including classroom management and teacher/learner relationship. Regarding those issues, then, the teacher's burden is gigantic and the challenges are really overwhelming both quantitatively and qualitatively.

5. Classroom Management

Formally speaking, the classroom is where learning and teaching take place. However, a bunch of 'evil' factors can immensely and dramatically threaten the overall climate of the two processes in question. Classroom management is by all means an indispensable part of teachers' pedagogical knowledge. In this regard, Emmer and Stough (2001) assert that "Pedagogical knowledge of classroom management appears to constitute an essential part of the domain knowledge that expert teachers possess" (p.106). In the first place, it is of paramount importance to spotlight the constituent elements of the classroom. Apart from the teacher and the learner, who are the main actors on this 'pedagogical stage', other concrete and abstract (emotional/psychological) elements are involved including: class size, varying linguistic capacities, different social/cultural backgrounds, pedagogical laws and regulations, learners' motivation, attitudes and expectations, parents' attitudes and mentalities...etc. Coping with these conditions and others coupled with the amount of cognitive and mental investment for the implementation of various duties and tasks can really weaken the teacher's capacity for dealing with the given situation. In this respect, Emmer and Stough (2001)

conclude that “teaching is a cognitively challenging process in which teachers are continuously required to make decisions about their instructional and classroom management” (p.106). In the Algerian context, what makes things even worse is that the teacher is the first one to be accused though he is not always guilty. The most effective and successful strategies for designing strong ‘cures’ to the teaching/learning epidemics in our educational system is to make a checklist of all the involved sides and elements whether directly or indirectly, and try to deal with them apart. This way, no more space is left for other probabilities that would enable one side to hide behind the other. This can be solely achieved if experts of various domains are asked to take part including language teaching, psychology, psych-pedagogy, sociology, etc.

6. Classroom Interaction

The classroom setting is highly complex and exceptional, and interaction is a key component in language learning in the sense that it fosters and promotes learning. Krashen (1981), in his ‘Input Theory’ argues that interaction helps learners to obtain “optimal input”. Classroom interaction primarily consists of communication practices that take place between members of the classroom (teacher and students). This is the reason why, teachers are required to have unique characteristics in order to be able to manage the whole context and especially those incidents which are related to learners’ misbehaviors, paying attention, and hearing the teacher’s instructions. Concerning misbehaviors, West-white (2007) believe that “undesirable behaviors may be further intensified by teachers who insensitively demonstrate a lack of respect and consideration for students, treat students improperly or unfairly, and do not make their classrooms safe and inviting places for learning” (p.122). Although all teachers with varying years of experience might suffer from this problem, novice teachers are more likely to fail in directing the context than the others. This issue does not, in fact, concern teachers

alone, but it is of outstanding significance to school administrators as well. Successful teaching then does not revolve only around huge amounts of knowledge and the most effective teaching methodologies, but also it should create pedagogical channels in favor of classroom management. Given the importance of the latter, it is suggested here that more intensive programs about the issue in question should be incorporated within the curriculum of tertiary education regardless of the subject matter.

7. Teacher/Learner Relationship

In theory, a strong and sacred bond should exist between the teacher and the learner. Thanks to this bond that TLP can be successfully conducted. Moreover, the establishment of such a rapport should be governed by specific regulations that are determined by people in charge. In fact, one of the most prominent points about which teachers complain is linked to this issue i.e. discipline. Problems associated with the latter are many and varied, and most of the time it leads to the complete failure of the teaching/learning process. Thus, the matter should not be neglected or overlooked excusing that what counts more is learning and not discipline. The two items are inter-related in the sense that TLP will not succeed unless discipline problems are completely rooted out. This can be achieved with the collaborating efforts of all sides including parents.

8. Learner-centered Teaching Approaches

At the time when LT theory first appeared in the mid 1950s, the teacher was the focal point of the overwhelming majority of the teaching methodologies which then dominated the educational scene. This, however, was doomed to alter with the advent of CLT in the 1970s. The latter, as everyone knows, advocates more involvement of the learner in TLP which paved the way for the dominance of what is called learner-centered teaching. A considerable

number of recent teaching methods emphasize the central role of the learner and considers him the main responsible for his own learning. Active learning is defined as “using instructional activities involving students doing things and thinking about what they are doing” (Wrenn & Wrenn, 2009, 259). This is very much evident in the type of tasks and activities around which the lessons are organized. Approaches like: task-based, competency-based, performance-based, project-based...etc consider the learner the element around which teaching revolves. As far as the teacher’s role is concerned, it is less emphasized with the teacher taking on new duties which are rather restricted to facilitation and guidance. In the case of CBA, for instance, learners are normally supposed to develop the defined competencies. This can be achieved via acquiring the necessary knowledge, mastering the required skills and having the ability to put what they know into practice. Relying on the teachers’ responses in this study, we can say that CBA is not implemented in a satisfactory way, and especially so far as the learner and the teacher’s roles are concerned. The respondents claim that the teacher is still the all-doer. This is the reason why, teachers should receive continual training on this issue. Careful role distribution is a central feature for a successful implementation of any teaching methodology. Another thing is that giving the teacher more roles that what is originally his can render the whole task daunting to him. This is the reason why periodical visits of the inspector should be more concerned, among other things, with the teacher’s role and the exact way it is demonstrated. This serves not only the teacher but the learner as well in the sense that more involvement in TLP within the approach in question will certainly facilitate the fulfillment of the course objectives.

9. CBLT Implementation

Introducing a given teaching methodology to a particular educational context is one thing; coping with the numberless resulting pedagogical preoccupations is quite another thing.

Of all those issues, teacher training is the most prominent one. This is basically because it would seem quite ‘stupid’ to teach within the principles and rules of a given approach with old knowledge and perceptions. In fact, decision-makers in the Ministry of National Education must be aware of this problematic situation. However, they may not take it seriously as they may not equally take urgent measures to manage to do that. Training teachers requires the mobilization of a number of sides: administrative staff, experts, inspectors...etc. It also costs a lot of money which can affect the budget of the concerned ministry. Here is a description of the necessary measures for a rather successful conduct of the tasks and activities of CBLT including:

- Its background and related learning theories;
- Course objectives;
- The exact competencies to be developed by the learners;
- Nature and types of the corresponding activities;
- The roles of both the teacher and the learner;
- Various ways and techniques for its implementation especially those related to ICT.

All these related items function as a real defy to both teachers and inspectors whose duties are much more complicated than what is commonly known.

10. Meeting the Course Objectives

In our exploratory study, many of the participants clearly and may be regretfully said that the pre-determined lesson objectives are not always reached. The reasons are, of course, many and varied including: time insufficiency (number of hours per week), overcrowded classes and low linguistic proficiency, which is due to other factors in itself. This issue is, undoubtedly, a significant one and has to be urgently revised and treated in accordance with the available means. CBE, which is basically based on the development of certain

competencies in the learner, requires the fulfillment and the mastery of all the corresponding linguistic skills before those competencies are subsequently formed. In other words, there is a certain order that has to be respected for the sake of obtaining the planned lesson objectives.

11. Feedback Provision

In fact, it is almost impossible to teach without giving feedback. The latter is unquestionably linked to successful teaching and learning. According to Joseph and Heading (2010), “learning occurs when there is a shared understanding and constructive feedback is given” (p.78). What is noticed in the findings of this study is that there is no systematic way on which EFL teachers rely on for the implementation of this teaching strategy. Research findings and conclusions in the field, if well exploited, can serve as a foundation for the construction of effective teaching of feedback giving.

12. Classroom Assessment

The findings of this exploratory study show that the pupils’ level in the writing skill is still weak even with the incorporation of CBA principles in the Algerian educational context. This linguistic weakness can be due to a cluster of factors that have to be carefully considered by teachers and seriously investigated by researchers in the field. Assessment is, undoubtedly, an integral part of any EFL teaching course. Nonetheless, the question that permanently poses itself is whether teachers are well-equipped with PK and trained well enough for this rather hard and questionable task. Assessing writing is even more challenging for teachers. The writing ability can be enhanced through effective assessment tools. For this reason, and others, EFL teachers are asked to grant assessment a special status in their academic career, and try to define exact measures for conducting it along with what is stated in the textbooks and what the inspectors suggest. Being aware of the different and miscellaneous elements and

criteria of assessment and evaluation constitutes the first and primary step for successful and fruitful assessment implementation. Otherwise, the results would be subjective and in no way trusted. Unlike what many instructors think, assessment is a complex whole whose constituent parts have to be made known and familiar to the assessors for better outcomes. Knowing how to assess is, in fact, one of the most urgent needs of TLP that have to be dealt with during teaching seminars and teacher training.

13. Teacher's Identity

One of the founding pillars of TLP is called 'the teacher's identity'. In relation to the latter, Joseph and Heading (2010) state that "teaching is often a complex and skilled practice, which is dependent on teachers' knowledge and skills, the art of learning how to teach and its process of becoming a teacher, shapes one's teacher identity" (p.76). This professional teaching identity is made up of two components. The first is the theoretical knowledge that is taught at university, and the second is practice that can be only acquired in the classroom (Henry, 2001). The notion of the teacher's identity is then derived from the fact that numberless items are essentially basic for teacher training. From knowledge (both content and pedagogical) to various practice skills, the good teacher finds himself burdened with the components of the continuum and no other choice is available. An effective teacher is then the one who tries to explore the teacher's identity and tailors one for himself.

14. Teacher's Motivation

The findings of educational psychology research as far as motivation is concerned are unsurprisingly numerous. Here, we are not addressing the learners' motivation but that of the teacher. The latter can be demotivated for teaching if certain working conditions are absent. In plain terms, teacher motivation, be it intrinsic or extrinsic, is a key feature of TLP. The

present research shows that a good part of the participant secondary school teachers of English are not totally motivated. That is to say, their pedagogical performance is not in its optimal level. Therefore, decision-makers have to take into consideration this highly sensitive but unfortunately neglected issue. People in authority may be at odds concerning the real and true sources of teachers' professional grievances. Despite all that has been said, some of what makes the teacher demotivated and psychologically tired cannot be invisible to administrators.

These include:

- Bad working conditions:
 - Overcrowded classes: This problem can make it almost impossible to implement some tasks that are part of the lesson itself, and to make sure that all the pupils understand and the lesson objectives are achieved.
 - Lack/absence of teaching aids especially the technological media like the language laboratories (computers, data shows and other devices) and the internet.
 - Discipline problems: All teachers are complaining about this unpardonable aspect of the Algerian classroom. Unquestionably, this looks like a nightmare to school teachers whose fears are clearly shown from the complications of this phenomenon. In this respect, teachers blame parents and the latter, in turn, claim that part of the teacher's role is education that goes hand in hand with instruction.
- Administrative and pedagogical laws which do not totally protect the teacher against any possible work incidents.

But in the mid of this terrible mess, teachers are still suffering the most.

15. Learners' Motivation

The main target of the present investigation is to enlighten teachers on how to carry out a successful TLP. In this regard, the learner's motivation is by all means the key to achieving the objectives of any course. TLP is not something contingent. Rather, it should be deeply dependent on wise and careful planning and organization. Every single aspect, whether significant or not, should be granted a certain amount of interest, and necessary measures should equally be carefully taken. The following list of carefully selected items can help the teacher in his endeavour for raising learners' motivation in the classroom for learning the foreign language in particular:

- Creating appropriate learning environment through establishing positive rapport between the teacher and the learners and involving the latter in TLP for the sake of fostering intrinsic motivation;
- Providing extrinsic incentives via organizing meaningful classroom competitions, giving rewards and compliance;
- Talking about success and clearly stating the goals of the lesson which can make the learner experience success, at least in their minds. This can increase their self-confidence and motivate them for learning. Also trying to make them see the extent to which their efforts may lead to considerable learning outcomes;
- Showing considerable amounts of knowledge of the subject, and high level of motivation on the teacher's part.
- Giving motivational tests i.e. those which are really designed to check the learners' mastery of the subject matter and the ability to use in real-life contexts.
- Making the whole process of learning interesting through providing challenging tasks which require considerable effort;

- Selecting the most appropriate teaching techniques and processes that consist primarily of involving the learner in his own learning and making him experience it himself.

It is believed that the learner and teacher's motivation are two mysteries, and that fostering the latter greatly and unavoidably depends on the establishment of the former. It is almost impossible to try to push somebody forward in favor of his study at a time when you lack the desire for doing that. One more thing is that the learners' desire derives from that of the teacher in the first place. This is the reason why more research should be done to explore this issue in details for the purpose of unveiling the rest of its secrets. In a nutshell, fathoming the inter-dependence of both teacher and learner's motivation is, among other things, an outstanding feature for stepping down some paradoxical issues that lead to the failure of TLP.

At the end of this discussion about some significant issues in secondary school EFL teaching in the concerned region, whether negative or positive, what should be emphasized more is that decision-makers in Algeria: parents, teachers, school headmasters, inspectors, ministry officials, text-book designers and syllabus writers should give extreme importance to the findings of research and try to benefit from its results as much as possible; otherwise, EFL teaching in Algeria will certainly stagnate and would not be able to cope with the changing realities in the world.

Conclusion

In conclusion, we hope that the findings of this exploratory study together with the implications that are provided in this chapter would be of great and numerous benefits to all teachers whether novice or experienced. In fact, teaching without fully grasping the nature and the constituent elements of TLP is both meaningless and pedagogically harmful in the sense that there will certainly be some or many drawbacks due to the case in question.

Moreover, teachers' failure to put what they know into practice can remarkably demotivate them and equally deprive learners of teachers' genuine pedagogical knowledge. Another thing is that the instructor's practice in the classroom is deeply related and highly dependent on extra factors which can, in turn, hinder the implementation of TLP. Elucidating some ambiguities for the sake of taking them into account by decision-makers is the main propose of this investigation. In a nutshell, reforms to the educational system in Algeria should be based on research findings and experts' opinions for positive enhancement of both teaching and learning.



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GENERAL CONCLUSION

Since the appearance of the LT theory, scholars have persistently concerned themselves and sacrificed much of their time and effort for designing new teaching methods that would give the impetus for the improvement of both teaching and learning. Some of those methodologies and approaches were labeled as teacher-centered and others as learner-centered in accordance with the focal elements and the general objectives of each. Along the adoption of those approaches and the application of those methods, some proved their efficiency and others were partially or completely modified which resulted in new methods. Amid the LT theory struggle, the teacher's role was always spotlighted and more or less defined in a balanced way with that of the learner. In fact, much of what actually defines the role of the teacher is the ability to put pedagogical knowledge into practice. The extreme significance and importance of this issue in relation to the obstacles on the one hand, and facilitating elements on the other urge us to do more research in order to unveil more secrets about the aspects of TLP. Of course, the success of the latter, which is primarily the target of any research work in the field of education, depends on many factors of which the teacher is the most prominent. In the present study, the attempt was made to highlight those aspects which can undoubtedly ameliorate the quality of teaching and foster learning. In fact, the teacher's pedagogical knowledge with its amount and sources and the corresponding practices constitute the core of what makes teaching effective. Other aspects are equally weighty including: teacher's motivation, attitudes, expectations and perceptions about TLP. The issue of closing the gap between pedagogical knowledge and classroom practices becomes even more noticeable and urgent with the introduction of new teaching methodologies that require other training depending on the nature of the degree of the change. This was the case in the Algerian context with the educational reform of 2003. New teaching approach, new textbooks and little training made Algerian teachers in inescapable confrontation with the resulting

menace. Being at the extremities, teacher's knowledge, CBA principles, the most appropriate classroom practice and text-book implementation have to be brought together to cope with the situation.

Most of the surveyed teachers assert that they are not sometimes fully able to put what they know into practice and other times, what they know does not utterly help the implementation of CBA lessons. Hence, successful conduct of TLP is really at stake. A cluster of factors that unfortunately hinder teaching and learning were provided by the participants and should, thus, be taken into consideration by decision-makers. Teachers' frustrations and hopelessness along with the unbearable working conditions seem to aggravate the bad situation under which TLP is implemented.

As far as teachers' PK is concerned, it is almost certain that the respondents merely rely on what they learned at university or college. This situation is both frustrating and not astonishing. For the former case, it is normally expected of teachers of English to read for the sake of being enlightened with what is new in the discipline of English language teaching. It is equally not astonishing in the sense that teachers of English in SS do not go beyond the text-books (this is basically what they said), and totally rely on them.

Having been explored in relation to effective teaching of EFL writing in SS, teachers' perceptions, beliefs and practices seem to open wide horizons for understanding the nature of TLP and in our case teaching the writing skill. The participant teachers regard teaching writing as an essential aspect of TLP, in general, which means that they highly concern themselves with implementing it successfully. None the less, other factors negatively interfere amid the process in question. Moreover, our participants deeply believe in the necessary link between what they theoretically know and what they put into practice. That is to say, meta-cognitive knowledge is certainly an essential component of their general PK. SS teachers of English in the region of Mila seem to prioritize both their PK and classroom practices;

however, in reality, some obstacles would unfortunately hinder the whole process and therefore, many aspects would be affected including the quality of teaching, learning outcomes and teachers' pedagogical expectations.

In the end, we can say that effective teaching of EFL writing in SS requires in the first place a serious and special care with our teachers (psychological, socio-cultural and pedagogical). The latter, in their attempt to grab with the available teaching and learning materials are faced with numerous problems that lead to severe teaching and learning difficulties. Human resources, in our case teachers, are in fact far more significant and should be highly prioritized over others.



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APPENDIX 1

Teachers' Preliminary Questionnaire

Dear teachers,

We would greatly appreciate your cooperation if could answer the following questions for the sake of collecting information about pupils' level in EFL writing in the secondary school.

Please, make a tick in the corresponding box.

1. How would you rate your pupils' level in EFL writing?

Very poor	<input type="checkbox"/>
Poor	<input type="checkbox"/>
Good	<input type="checkbox"/>
Very good	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. Please, explain:

.....

.....

.....

3. How often do your pupils commit mistakes in the following aspects of language?

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
Grammar	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Vocabulary	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
spelling	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Organization of ideas	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

4. Do you think that your pupils are motivated to write in EFL?

Yes

No

5. How do your pupils perceive a writing activity:

Interesting

Exciting

Boring

6. Please, explain?

.....
.....
.....

7. To what extent do you think you can put your pedagogical knowledge in teaching writing more effectively?

.....
.....
.....

8. Do your students have/report other difficulties in learning EFL writing?

.....
.....
.....

Appendix 2

Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear teachers,

We would be so grateful if you could answer the following questions about effective teaching of EFL writing in the secondary school.

Please, make a tick in the corresponding box.

Section One: Teaching EFL Writing

1. Do you think that the time allocated to writing is enough?

▪ Yes

▪ No

2. Please, state and explain some difficulties of teaching writing.

.....

.....

.....

.....

3. If you do not understand anything, do you:

▪ Ask your colleagues?

▪ Search for it yourself?

▪ Both of them

4. Have you ever thought about the linkage between the writing items that are taught at this level and writing for those who will be specialized in the English language at university?

▪ Yes

▪ No

5. Please, explain

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.....

.....

.....

6. Please, state some techniques you use to teach writing.

.....

.....

.....

.....

7. Do you find teaching writing different from teaching other aspects of the language?

- Yes
- No

8. If yes, explain

.....

.....

.....

.....

9. Do you answer all pupils' questions?

- Yes
- No

10. Please, explain.

.....

.....

.....

.....

11. To what extent are you ready to answer and repeat your answers to the pupils' questions?

.....

.....

.....

12. Please Write two or more options for each of the following situations:

- A student says I don't want to do the exercise given by the teacher.

.....

.....

- You expected an activity to take five minutes. It has taken twenty so far and the students still seem to be very involved. There is something else you would like to do before the lesson ends in ten minutes.

.....

.....

- The next activity involves students working in groups of five. At the moment all the desks (which take two people) are facing forward in rows. They are movable, but it takes a few minutes of chaos to do it.

.....

.....

- The students are working in groups of three. Two groups have finished the task you set them and are now sitting looking bored. The other groups still seem to have a long way to go before they finish.

.....
.....

13. Which of these strategies you use to deal with students' beliefs:

- Become aware of students' past classroom experiences and their assumptions about language learning;
- Build students' confidence;
- Begin where the students are and move slowly;
- Show them achievement;
- Allow for free choice as much as possible; and
- Become aware of the students' interests and concerns, their goals and objectives.

14. How can you motivate students to write by encouraging confidence and enthusiasm.

.....
.....
.....
.....

15. How important do you consider that the writing task incorporates an element of real communication?

.....
.....
.....
.....

16. What do you take into account in grading:

- Language performance of the student as formally demonstrated on tests, quizzes, and other explicitly scored procedure.
- Your intuitive, informal observation of the student's language performance.

- Oral participation in class.
- Improvement (over the entire course period).
- Behavior in class (“development”) –being cooperative, polite, disruptive, etc.
- Effort.
- Motivation.
- Punctuality and attendance.

17. How clear to your students do you make the purpose of any writing activity?

.....

.....

.....

.....

18. How might the purpose of a writing activity determine your approach to preparing the activity in class?

.....

.....

.....

19. How might the purpose of a writing activity determine your approach to correction?

.....

.....

.....

.....

20. When you correct your pupils’ mistakes, do you:

- Blame them first.
 - Correct the mistakes directly.
 - Correct the mistakes without drawing their attention to them.
-

- Ask other pupils to correct them.
- Draw their attention to the mistakes and then correct them.

21. Do you prefer:

- Teacher's feedback?
- Peer review?
- Both of them

22. What are the advantages of feedback and peer review, if any?

.....

.....

.....

.....

23. How often do you use feedback?

- Always
- Often
- Sometimes
- Never

24. Do your students benefit from feedback?

- Yes
- No

25. How do your students react to feedback

- Positively
- Negatively

26. How often do you use peer review?

- Always
- Often
-

- Sometimes
- Never

27. When you use it, do you:

- Do it under your control?
- Leave the pupils alone?

28. Do your students like it?

- Yes
- No

Section Two: Interaction with the Learners

29. Do you interact with your pupils in the classroom?

- Yes
- No

30. Which form does this interaction take?

.....

.....

.....

.....

31. Do you think that interaction is beneficial to the learners?

- Yes
- No

32. If yes, state some benefits:

.....

.....

.....

.....
33. Do you encourage your pupils to ask questions?

- Yes
- No

34. Do you have discussion with your pupils about extra topics?

- Yes
- No

Section Three: Sources of Teachers' Pedagogical Knowledge

35. What are the main sources of your pedagogical knowledge?

.....
.....
.....
.....

36. Do you think that what you know is enough for successful teaching of writing?

- Yes
- No

37. Do you try to develop your pedagogical knowledge?

- Yes
- No

38. If yes, how?

.....
.....
.....
.....

39. In your opinion, what should every teacher know in order to be successful?

.....

.....

.....

.....

40. Do you think that a good teacher of writing is necessarily an experienced one?

- Yes
- No

41. Justify your answer in either case

.....

.....

.....

.....

42. Do you like reading?

- Yes
- No

43. In your opinion, does reading contribute to the success teaching writing?

- No
- Yes

44. Please explain.

.....

.....

.....

.....

Thank you very much for your cooperation

APPENDIX 3

Teachers' Interview

This interview constitutes a complementary source for collecting data on teachers' perceptions, beliefs and practices for effective teaching of EFL writing.

1. How much time do you spend preparing writing tasks?
2. Which aspect (s) of English do you think is (are) the most important for EFL writing?
3. Which activities in the lesson help in EFL writing?
4. Do you think that CBLT is implemented in an effective way?
5. Do you think that teachers are trained enough to implement CBA writing activities successfully?
6. Are the course objectives for a writing task always reached?
7. Do you think that teaching writing within CBA contribute to the improvement of pupils' level in the writing skill?
8. Do you give your pupils' comments on their written work together with the mark? Do you think such comments are useful to improve their writing skill?
9. What types of correction do you think would be most useful for pupils to improve their writing skill?
10. How much time and effort does it take you to correct pupils' pieces of writing?

APPENDIX 4

Pupils' Questionnaire

Dear pupils, I would be so grateful if you could answer the following questions in order to collect data on your attitudes, awareness and interest in English writing. Your help is greatly appreciated.

Make a tick (√) in the corresponding box.

1. Order the following skills (from 1 to 4) in terms of importance

- Speaking
- Listening
- Reading
- Writing

2. Please write a number next to each of the statements below for indicating the extent of your agreement or disagreement.

1: strongly agree

2: agree

3: disagree

4: strongly disagree

- I like English writing activities
- A writing task is useful and important
- I enjoy with English writing classes

3. Given your answer to question 1, is writing:

- A very important skill
- As important as all the others
- Not so important as the others
- Not important at all

4. How do you feel during a writing activity:

- Interested
- Excited
- Bored

5. What are the most difficult characteristics of writing:

- Lack of ideas
- Making mistakes
- Time insufficiency
- Organization of ideas

6. What do you do with the corrected version of your written work?

- Correct the mistakes identified
- Ask your teacher to explain
- List the mistakes to avoid them in the future
- Do nothing

7. Do you have any other comments you would like to add in relation to learning EFL writing?

.....

.....

.....

Thank you very much

ملخص

إن تدريس أية لغة أجنبية أمر صعب و معقد للغاية ولكنه ليس مستحيلا، لهذا حاول العلماء و الباحثون باستمرار تسهيل هذه العملية و ذلك بوضع تقنيات جديدة لمساعدة طرفي العملية التربوية (المعلمين و المتعلمين) للتعامل مع الوسط التربوي و التغلب على كل الصعوبات التي تعترضه على الرغم من أن عددا كبيرا من هذه الصعوبات التعليمية سببها عوامل خارجية متعلقة خصوصا باكتظاظ الأقسام و تفاوت القدرات اللغوية و اختلاف الخلفيات الاجتماعية و الثقافية للمتمدرسين. إن قلة الوقت المخصص لمهارة الكتابة و كذا نقص التكوين الموجه للأساتذة لتمكينهم من التحكم فيها و عدم القدرة على مواكبة منهجيات التدريس التي تتغير من حين لآخر كلها عوامل تشكل عائقا كبيرا أمام ممارسة العملية التربوية الناجعة. للأسباب السالفة الذكر تم في هذه الأطروحة إجراء محاولة استكشاف لكيفية ممارسة التدريس الفعال لتبسيط العملية التربوية أمام المعلمين بالرغم من أن الدراسات أظهرت في الواقع أن هذه العملية معقدة إلى حد ما و فهمها يتطلب كثيرا من الوقت و الجهد. لكي يكون المعلمون قادرين على تعليم الكتابة للمتعلمين على نحو فعال، فهم بحاجة ليس فقط للمعرفة البيداغوجية، و لكن أيضا للقدرة على تطبيق ما يعرفونه ووضعه موضع التنفيذ. و بناء على ذلك فإن هذه الدراسة الاستكشافية تتركز حول استكشاف المعرفة البيداغوجية للمعلمين و كذا ممارساتهم لها في القسم. إن سد الفجوة بين هذين المركبين (المعرفة- التطبيق) هو الهدف الأساسي لهذه الدراسة التي تعنى بعملية التدريس و التعلم و خاصة تدريس الكتابة لطلبة السنة الثالثة ثانوي (فرع اللغات الأجنبية) تبعا للمقاربة بالكفاءات. لقد تمت هذه المقاربة بالتعاون مع أساتذة اللغة الإنجليزية في المدارس الثانوية بناء على استبيان تضمن جملة من الأسئلة سلم لعينة قوامها مائة أستاذ، أجابوا على الأسئلة بكل موضوعية، وقدموا معلومات و توضيحات حول مختلف أجزائها، تمس كل الجوانب المتعلقة بها. وقد تبين من خلال النتائج أن الممارسات البيداغوجية للأساتذة محدودة نوعا ما مقارنة بالمعلومات التي لديهم، و قد تأثرت سلبا بكثير من العوامل و أن طريقة التدريس طبقا للمقاربة بالكفاءات لا تتم على الشكل المطلوب، مما يدل على أن ما افترض في بداية هذه الدراسة الوصفية يتطابق مع النتائج المحصل عليها. و علاوة على ذلك فإن الممارسات التواصلية و التفاعلات الإيجابية في القسم لها تأثير كبير على سلوكيات و وجهات نظر الطلبة إزاء الواجبات البيداغوجية. في الأخير نأمل بأن يستفيد الأساتذة من نتائج هذه الدراسة و خاصة ما يتعلق بالتوصيات المقترحة، و أن يأخذوا منها كل ما يحتاجونه للمشاركة الفعالة في عملية التدريس و التعليم، لأنها (العلمية التربوية) بكل مكوناتها و تحدياتها تمثل جوهر ما يجب أن يهتم به الأستاذ.

الكلمات المفتاح: عملية التعليم و التعلم، مهارة الكتابة، المعرفة البيداغوجية، النظري، التطبيق.

Résumé

L'enseignement d'une langue étrangère a toujours été complexe et exigeant. Au contraire, les chercheurs ont constamment essayé de faciliter le processus et la conception de nouvelles techniques pour aider les enseignants et les apprenants à faire face au contexte pédagogique et de surmonter les divers obstacles en dépit du fait qu'un nombre considérable de difficultés d'enseignement sont causés par des facteurs supplémentaires en particulier les classes surchargées, différentes capacités linguistiques et les différents milieux sociaux et culturels. Le manque de temps alloué à l'habileté d'écriture et le manque de formation des enseignants pour s'adapter aux méthodes d'enseignement changeantes empêchent la mise en œuvre effective de l'enseignement. Dans cette thèse, une tentative est faite pour explorer la notion d'un enseignement efficace, afin de rendre les choses encore plus claires à nos enseignants. En fait, la recherche montre qu'elle est assez compliquée, et sa compréhension nécessite un certain temps et de l'effort. Afin d'être en mesure d'enseigner efficacement l'expression écrite, les enseignants ne doivent pas seulement être pédagogiquement bien informés, mais aussi être en mesure de mettre ce qu'ils savent en pratique. L'objectif principal de cette étude exploratoire vise à étudier les connaissances pédagogiques des enseignants et de leurs pratiques en classe. Comblent l'écart entre les deux éléments est le but visé. Dans cette étude, nous sommes préoccupés par le processus d'apprentissage/enseignement et plus spécifiquement l'expression écrite à des classes de troisième année (filiale de langues étrangères) du niveau secondaire selon l'approche par compétences. La population d'enseignants d'Anglais concerne la région de Mila et impliquant une centaine de professeurs ayant répondu au questionnaire en fournissant des informations et des éclaircissements précieux sur leurs connaissances pédagogiques et pratiques dans la classe. Les résultats démontrent clairement que les pratiques pédagogiques des enseignants sont plutôt limitées et influencées négativement par de nombreux facteurs, et que l'enseignement des langues basées sur les compétences n'est pas parfaitement mis en œuvre, ce qui conforte relativement nos hypothèses. En outre, les pratiques des enseignants s'appuyant sur l'interaction semblent avoir un impact positif sur les apprenants et leurs attitudes à l'égard des tâches pédagogiques. Finalement, nous espérons que les enseignants, en général sauront largement bénéficier de cette étude et de ses résultats et, en particulier, des recommandations proposées pour améliorer leurs enseignements de l'écrit.

Mots clés: processus d'enseignement/apprentissage, expression écrite, compétences, connaissances pédagogiques, la théorie, la pratique.