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Adopting a Self-Concept Reciprocal Model Perspective to Understand Academic Achievement during Adolescence

An Empirical Study of a Sample of Adolescents at Benahmed Bekhedda Secondary School in Zemmora /Relizane

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A Thesis submitted to the Department of English in conformity with the requirements for the degree of 'Doctorat Es-Sciences' in Educational Psychology

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DEDICATIONS

I dedicate this work to my parents who have taught me hard work, perseverance, courage, and love as well as to my patient wife and children.

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Abstract

Based on a 'self' theory perspective, this study is an attempt to examine the relationship between self-concept, motivation, and academic achievement among a sample of adolescent learners at Benahmed Bekhedda secondary school in Zemmora, Relizane within the age range of 16-20 years. The study plan involved the use of a sequential explanatory mixed method research design to gather information about adolescents' self-concept and motivation in an EFL learning context. Academic self-concept was measured using items adapted from the Self-Description Questionnaire (SDQ-II; Marsh, 1992). Motivation and academic engagement were measured through 'Academic Motivation Scale:' –high school version (AMS; Vallerand et al., 1992). The study, also, employed focus group interviews to glean the sample adolescent learners' self-beliefs and views in regard to the factors that they believe they can foster their academic self-concept, motivation, and academic attainment. In addition, EFL teachers' semi-structured interviews were engaged to highlight their perceptions of their learners' academic self-concept and its possible implication on their scholastic performance. Academic achievement was measured through the pupils' exam scores during the school year 2017/2018. The findings of this empirical investigation revealed that the sample pupils in the three secondary school year study levels differ in terms of their academic self-concept, academic motivation, and academic achievement. The correlational analyses indicated that the association of academic self- concept and motivation predict the level of academic achievement of the sample of adolescents in all three secondary school levels. Focus group discussions suggested that the adolescent learners were motivated towards school and academics. Further, the semi-structured interviews demonstrated that the EFL teachers had little insights of their learners' academic self-concept. The study provided pedagogical recommendations to enhance adolescents' scholastic achievement as well as improve the psychological aspect in teacher taraining.

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

AAP: The American Academy of Paediatrics

AC: Academic competence

AE: Academic effort

ASC: Academic self-concept

BFLPE: The Big-Fish-Little-Pond Effect Model

CBA: Competency Based Approach

CBLT: Competency Based Language Teaching

CDST: Complex Dynamic System Theory

DCT: Dimensional Comparison Theory

DI: Differentiated Instruction.

DMCs: Directed Motivational Currents

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ELL: English Language learning

ELT: English language teaching

ESP: English for Specific Purposes

FG: Focus Group

GPA: Grade Point Average

ICT: Information Communication Technologies

IDs: Individual Differences

ISCED: International Standard Classification of Education

IWS: Internet World Stats

LLM: Language Learning Motivation

L2MSS: L2 Motivational Self System Framework

MSC: Math Self-concept

MSCS: Multidimensional Self-concepts Model

MSLQ: Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire

NASP: The National Authority for School Programmes

NLSAH: National Longitudinal Study on Adolescent Health

OIT: Organismic Integration Theory

REM: Reciprocal Effect Model

SAM: The Society for Adolescent Medicine

SC: Self-concept

SCBEI: Save the Children Basic Education International

SCC: Self-concept Clarity

SDT: Self-Determination Theory

SDQ: Self-Description Questionnaire

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

TEFL: Teaching English as a Foreign Language

TEM-4: Test for English Major (Band 4)

TESL: Teaching English as a Second Language

UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

USDHHS: The U.S. Department of Health and Human Services

VSC: Verbal Self-concept

WHO: World Health Organization

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

- **Background of the Study**

Since the independence of the country in 1962, the Algerian educational system has undergone a multitude of reforms that were set to meet new challenges and adapt to globalization. The recent educational reforms, as stressed by the ministry of education, have been a direct response to the current situation that was underscored by a weakening of the educational system, reflected, primarily, in a decline in the number of pupils who pass their national examinations, an increase in the proportion of those who re-take their levels, and a considerable percentage of pupils who drop-out from school before the age of 16. The urging need of the Algerian society for development and progress were triggered by the new political and economic orientations of the country. The set of structural, curricular and pedagogical adjustments led to define novel educational strategies and define a new configuration of the educational system. The central objective of the Algerian educational policy has been to enable the Algerian learners to reach an acceptable level of instruction as well as to master such skills as collaboration, language proficiency, digital literacy, critical thinking, and problem-solving abilities to meet the 21st century education requirements and function in today's world.

Every year, large numbers of pupils make a transition from the middle school to the secondary school. After several terms, some pupils are successful while others drop out. Hence, a considerable body of literature has emerged, in recent years, including the collaboration of educationists, educational psychologists and all of those connected to the educational process to investigate the real factors affecting pupils' success. It has aimed at stressing the important role of academic engagement in academic success. A great number of variables have been put under close inquiry. These include the cognitive factors that have, conventionally, been associated with academic achievement as well as some of the non-cognitive factors that included learners' motivation, attitudes, aptitudes, family circumstances, previous academic performances, and study skills. Most research that has been grounded on factors influencing academic achievement has concentrated more on the cognitive factors while the affective ones came at a second position. The affective facet of the pupils has been given little attention by the time that it should have received as much attention as the cognitive one in terms of consideration and academic investigation.

- **Statement of the Problem**

Academic achievement is an important matter of concern in the whole educational process since it is the indicator of whether the educational system, in the country, is successful or not. During the secondary school stage, adolescent pupils express a great deal of concern for it is a time in which academic achievement can have significant implications on their future employment and career opportunities. They often report that it is a critical phase to build up the necessary skills to prosper in the adult world. Year after year, many of them find themselves in a state in which they do not have the desire to go through the different classroom assignments nor even have the will to carry out their studies. They do not pay attention to what the teacher is doing in class as they are easily caught engaged in other parallel activities. Most of them find difficulty in conforming to school rules and regulations. They, also, lack confidence and basic social skills. It is imperative, then, to investigate secondary school pupils' academic motives and how they design meaningful school outcomes. Understanding their relationship to the school community is fundamental to guide their steps towards scholastic success. Pupils with higher levels of attainment and positive beliefs of their academic abilities are more likely to realize high test scores. Therefore, the study focuses, primarily, on the role of affective variables involving academic self-concept and motivation as factors that, possibly, cause a variance in academic achievement. The problem under investigation is to explore how adolescent pupils' beliefs and attitudes about school and foreign language learning can influence their academic outcomes.

- **Rationale of the Study**

Substantial studies have closely considered the impact of the different internal and external factors that can either help or just plainly hinder learners to achieve satisfactory academic outcomes

In Algeria, as in all parts of the world, there has been an increasing concern in the sector of education on how to guarantee that pupils learn optimally at school, reach an acceptable level of instruction and attain academically. Various factors have been identified for low academic performance among Algerian pupils, particularly, during adolescence. Research has namely paid particular attention to pupils' cognitive characteristics such as intelligence, learning strategies and styles, socio-economic facets, parenting styles, and school environment. The studies, also, covered pupils' motivation, attitudes and engagement, however, little research has focused on pupils' self-perceptions in academic and social

domains and how such beliefs affect their school engagement and cause variations in academic achievement in different areas and subjects.

The purpose of this empirical study is to identify the impact of academic self-concept in secondary school pupils who report being disengaged from school and teachers. This disconnection is, particularly, alarming during adolescence. It is a period in their lives when pupils, who are not academically engaged, may not pay attention, complete their school work, or even attend school. It is central, then, to investigate adolescents' academic motives and how they plan substantial school outcomes. The present inquiry finds bases in the theory of self-concept reciprocal model in such a way that it creates the environment in which pupils' academic engagement and success, in general and in foreign language learning, in particular, could be put into effect.

In fact, this study highlights the close role of affective variables to promote the academic success of pupils. It tests the reciprocal reliance of academic achievement to self-concept on the one hand and the influence of external constraints, namely, gender and school engagement on self-perception and motivation and, thus, on performance on the other hand. Such interplay could result in prevalent implications on factors that affect Algerian adolescents' self-concept and motivation in general and their academic achievement in particular.

- **Objectives of the Study**

The main objective of this research work is to construct a deep understanding of the impact of academic self-concept, academic motivation as well as school engagement on academic involvement and achievement of adolescent pupils in an Algerian context. Furthermore the study will:

(1) explore adolescent pupils' self-concept, motivation, and engagement in an academic setting.

(2) expound on how self-concept can influence academic achievement in general and the acquisition of English as a foreign language in particular.

(3) relate academic self-concept of pupils to their academic achievement.

(4) increase pupils' awareness of their own psychological potential, and how positive self-concept can lead them to succeed in school and in the foreign language classroom.

(5) discuss possible ways to enhance aspects of pupils' self-concept in general and English

self-concept in particular.

(6) raise both teachers and parents' consciousness of the important role they play in promoting pupils' self-concept towards scholastic achievement.

In all, this research work proposes to provide educators, counsellors, parents, and pupils with a deeper insight of the importance of affective variables such as self-concept and motivation in supporting academic achievement in general and English languages learning in particular.

- **Research Questions**

The following research questions address the purpose of the study:

1. To what extent do the sample pupils in the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd secondary school study levels differ in terms of their academic self-concept, academic motivation, and academic achievement?

2. Can the association of academic self-concept and motivation predict the level of academic achievement of the sample of adolescents in all three secondary school study levels?

3. Are there statistically significant differences in the level of academic self-concept, motivational orientations, and academic achievement in relation to gender among the sample pupils in the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd secondary school year study levels?

4. What are the sample adolescent learners' self-perceptions in regard to the factors that they believe they can foster their academic self-concept, motivation, and academic achievement?

5. What are the EFL teachers' perceptions of their learners' academic self-concept and its possible implication on their scholastic performance?

- **Hypotheses of the Study**

The following hypotheses are set to answer the framed research questions. They are formulated in null form for empirical corroboration:

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H$_{01}$: The sample of secondary school pupils in the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd secondary school study levels do not differ in terms of their academic self-concept, academic motivation, and academic achievement.

H$_{02}$: The association of academic self-concept and motivation cannot predict the level of academic achievement of the sample of adolescents in all three secondary school study levels.

H$_{03}$: There are no statistically significant differences in the level of academic self-concept, motivational orientations, and academic achievement in relation to gender among the sample pupils in the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd secondary school year study levels

H$_{04}$: The sample adolescent learners do not hold any self-beliefs in regard to the factors that they believe affect their academic self-concept and academic achievement.

H$_{05}$: The EFL teachers do not have any insight of their learners' academic self-concept and its possible implication on their scholastic performance.

- **Significance of the Study**

The focal point of the present study is to investigate the role of self-concept in academic motivation and school achievement, as they are among the most extensively studied areas in the field of psychology. Their implications in the field of education are almost of great help to both the teachers and pupils. Studies carried out in the western world have widely investigated that subject. In Algeria and the Arab world, attention has also been, more or less, paid to this concern. Few researchers, in the academic field, have studied the role of self-concept in academic achievement. Concerning the existing gap in local studies relating to Algerian adolescent pupils' academic self-perceptions, the importance of the study lies on the fact that it is an attempt to stress the essential role of academic self-concept and motivation in nurturing pupils' academic interest and enthusiasm in language learning on the one hand and guide EFL teachers to help their pupils understand and interpret their goals and performance in different learning situations on the other hand.

Similarly, the present research work attempts to raise awareness among parents and caregivers about their crucial role in promoting their children's interest in school. Parents will

be in a position to better comprehend adolescents and initiate mediations to resolve current problems that are likely to emanate from their daily exchanges.

The findings of this study can, also, be useful to educational planners and administrators seeking to address the decline in pupils' academic motivation and school engagement. They will set a firm ground to help them formulate policies that seek to promote the growth and development of the adolescent pupils and take advantage for the preparation and design of curricula and textbooks that uphold adolescents' interests in learning. They may, also, direct the concern of the school counsellors to build training programmes to enhance the pupils' motivation to learn. Lastly, the findings of this study will contribute to the existing literature base and serve as a source of reference for further studies.

- **Research Tools and Method**

To achieve the main objectives of the present study, a sequential explanatory mixed method design is employed to address the formulated research questions. To obtain more reliable answers to the study problematic, two survey questionnaires are used for quantitative data collection: (A) An adaptation of the *Self-Description Questionnaire* (SDQ-II; Marsh, 1992) is intended to measure differences in adolescent pupils' academic self-concept. In addition, motivation and academic engagement are measured by means of (B) the '*Academic Motivation Scale*:'–high school version (AMS; Vallerand et al., 1992). Pupils' scholastic performance data are gathered through the collection of their average grades of the tests and exams administered by their EFL teachers throughout the school year.

Concerning the qualitative data collection, separate focus group participants are drawn from the secondary school pupils' sample. They are representing the three secondary school study levels. This technique consists of semi-structured group interviews that are employed to identify the adolescent pupils' beliefs about their academic abilities to succeed. In addition, an interview of EFL teachers is engaged in order to determine their awareness about their pupils' self-perceptions of their abilities in the EFL classroom as well as investigate the most efficient techniques to boost pupils' self-concept.

The research tools were administered to a sample of 1st, 2nd and 3rd secondary school adolescent pupils as well as their EFL teachers at BENAHMED Bekhedda secondary school, in Zemmora, within the school year 2017/ 2018.

- **Structure of the Thesis**

The study consists of four interrelated chapters: Chapter one provides a methodical description of the English learning situation in Algeria's secondary schools, followed by an overview on adolescence and particularly Algerian adolescents' developmental facets, self-perceptions, motivational orientations and beliefs about learning contexts of foreign languages. It also presents the methodological frame of the study. Chapter two presents a literature review related to the research pertaining to academic self-concept, academic motivation, and academic achievement and the research dealing with the impact of EFL classroom environment and instructional practices on adolescent pupils' academic engagement. Chapter three discusses the research design and methodology. In addition, it presents an analysis and provides an in-depth discussion of both quantitative and qualitative findings in terms of the research questions of the study. Chapter four provides the summary of the findings of this case study. It provides some recommendations for the improvement of the secondary school pupils' motivation and performance and suggests areas for further research.

CHAPTER ONE

Chapter One

An Overview on Adolescence and the Learning Situation

1.1 Introduction

Considering the predominant status that English hold in this demanding era of globalization, its learning and teaching, as a foreign language, seems to be an almost challenging effort for both EFL learners and teachers. Effectual teaching is, primarily, measured through the amount of learning and knowledge that the learners receive in an academic setting. It is widely assumed that the main concern of all EFL teachers is to develop and maintain their pupils' motivation, and primarily, to help them acquire the target language. Nevertheless, most of their actions face slow progress, especially, at the level of secondary school. At this stage, the adolescent pupils decide whether to pursue higher education or engage in vocational training. Many of them do not seem more motivated to learn the language and swing in mood, rising apologetic reasons to express their own perceptions about school engagement and learning in general. The current situation shows that despite years of learning English, during middle and secondary schools, the pupils still encounter problems with the language practical use. On this basis, the adolescent motivation is undergoing a renewal of interest as a focus for research and instruction. Many educational researchers (E.g. Zusho & Pintrich, 2001; Kaplan & Maehr, 2002; Yeung & McInerney, 2005; Zimmerman, 2008; Yonezawa, et al., 2009; Dörnyei 2009...) have proposed and tested a number of solutions to this issue in a serious attempt to address the adolescent pupils' underperformance. Above and beyond the cognitive factors affecting pupils' academic achievement, other non-cognitive factors such as adolescents' academic self-related beliefs, academic motivation, and school engagement play a determinant role, as well, in the lives of the adolescent learners. An examination of the influence of the affective factors on Algerian adolescents' academic achievement can lead to the main factors that might have caused the weakening of academic success and affected English teaching and learning in Algeria. The present chapter proposes to discuss some of these issues and shed light on the pedagogical landscape of this investigation. In fact, it attempts to provide a methodical description of the English learning situation in Algeria's secondary schools, followed by an overview of some of adolescents' developmental facets, self-perceptions, motivational orientations and beliefs about learning contexts of foreign language. The chapter closes with a brief presentation of the methodology and research tools used in this research work.

1.2 Teaching English as a Foreign Language in Algeria

In order to understand the current status of English learning and teaching in Algeria, it is necessary to consider the worldwide scale of the English language and apprehend the major factors that helped to promote it to be the dominant lingua franca in the world.

1.2.1 English Language and Globalization

According to a recent report from the British Council, two billion people are studying English worldwide and three billion people will speak it in ten years. At this point in time, the non-native speakers of English outnumber the native speakers. It has become one of first priority in foreign language teaching and learning for every country. It has already stepped the stage of being the exclusive property of its own native speakers to become a global language. According to Power (2005), non-native English speakers outstrip native ones 3 to 1 (see Table 1.1):

Language	Native speakers	Second speakers of the language	Speakers using it as a foreign language	Total speakers
English	*372 millions*	*611 millions*	*600 millions*	*1500 millions*

Table 1.1: English language Speaking Worldwide. Ethnologue (2017),

Kachru (1985) split English speakers into three concentric circles: the first circle, ***Inner circle***, refers to the countries in which English is spoken as the first language, the second one, ***Outer circle***, refers to the countries in which English plays an important role as second language, and the third one, ***Expanding circle***, refers to the countries whose people know that English is important as a foreign language (Kachru, 1985, cited in Crystal 2003: 60) (see Figure 1.1).
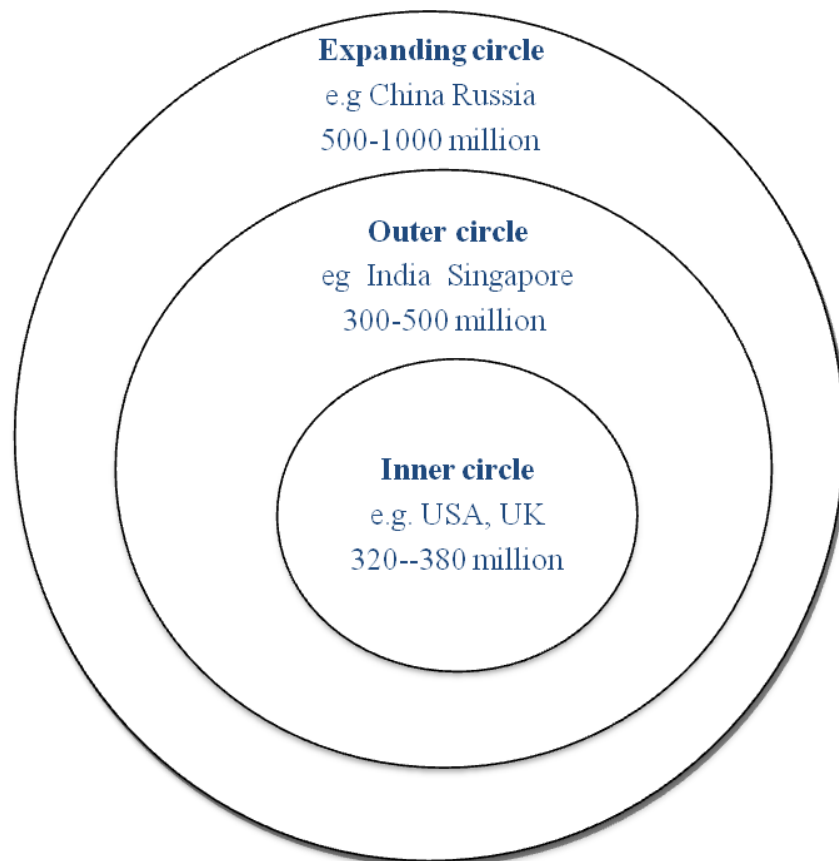
Figure1.1: The Three Concentric Circles of English (Kachru, 1985, cited in Crystal 2003: 61)

There are quite many reasons for choosing a particular language to be the principal means of instruction and communication. Crystal (2003) pointed out ***"…it is inevitable that a global language will eventually come to be used by more people than any other language. English has already reached this stage***". According to Hasman (2000), over 1.4 billion people live in countries where English has official status. Over 70% of the world's scientists read English, over 85% of the world's mail is written in English and 90% of information in the world's electronic retrieval system is stored in English. The speakers of English, as a second or foreign language, have exceeded the number of native speakers (p.2). The English language has, thus, attained a global level that requires its teaching and learning worldwide (see Map 1.1).
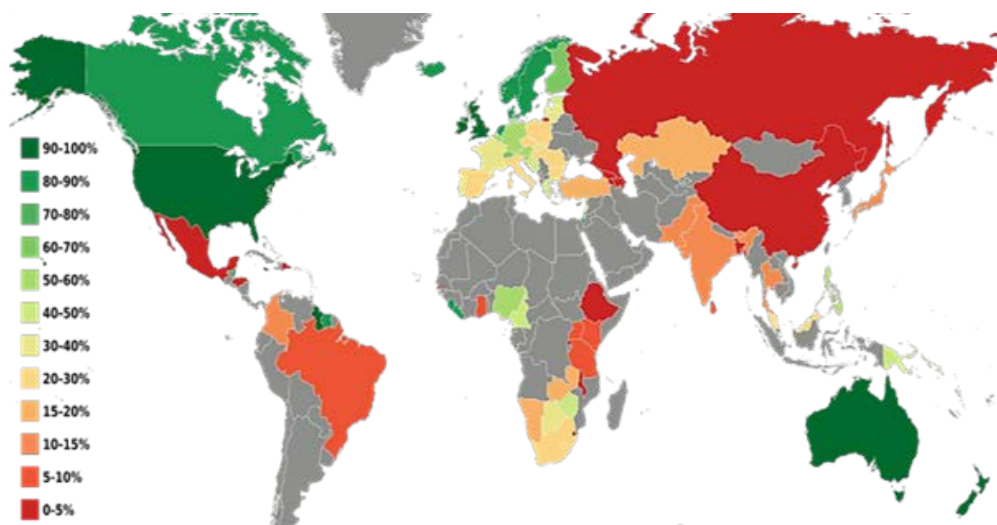
Map 1.1: Percentage of English Speakers by Country (wikipedia.com)

The amazingly prevalent use of English in the daily international communication of people infers that the dominant language, at present, is used on a much more universal and widespread scale than ever before.

1.2.2 Current Status of English in the Algerian Linguistic Context: EFL or ESL?

In the Algerian context, English is approached as a second foreign language as the country enjoys a linguistic diversity: *Classical Arabic*, Algeria's first official language, is used in administration and the media, *Berber* has been recognized as a national language by constitutional amendment since 2002. In 2016, the constitution passed a resolution making from *Berber* the second official language of the country. Leclerc (2009) stated that *Arabic* and *Berber* are the native languages of over (99%) of Algerians (with *Algerian Dialectal Arabic* spoken by about 72% and *Berber* by 27.4%). Both are spoken in everyday life and informal situations.

Though having no official linguistic status in Algeria, French is widely used in government, culture, media and higher education. French is the most widely studied foreign language in the country and the majority of Algerians can understand it and speak it though it is not usually spoken in daily life. The strong position of French, in Algeria, was little affected by the 'Arabization' policy. All scientific and business university courses are still taught in French. A political debate was engaged in the late 1990s. It revolved around replacing French

with English in the educational system. Finally, the government decided to retain French. Commenting on this decision, Taleb Ibrahimi (1995) argued:

> **Oscillating constantly between the status of a second language and that of a privileged foreign language, between the denial, the expressiveness of its symbolic power and the reality of its use, the ambiguity of the place assigned to the French language is one of the marked facts of the Algerian situation.** Taleb Ibrahimi (1995:50, cited in Benmoussat, 2015:4)

Globalization has given English a prominent role not only as a promoter of international communication but also as a basic language in politics, business, research and development. The consequence of which, Algeria found itself forced to meet the global standards and rank English in a dominant place in the teaching and learning of foreign languages. In this concern, Miliani (2000) stated:

> **In a situation where the French language has lost much of its ground in the socio-cultural and educational environments of the country, the introduction of English is being heralded as the magic solution to all possible ills -including economic, technological and educational ones.** (Miliani, 2000: 13)

Such a concern for English has gained ground over the past years owing to the huge progress in technology and the more frequent use of the Internet, and satellite communication technologies. As a consequence, a rapid growth of private language institutes started an active competition in teaching the target language to hundreds of learners of different ages, particularly, to those seeking promotion or any other material gain from acquiring such a global means of communication. Thus, the opportunities for English language learning in Algeria have greatly improved as more and more Algerians are aware of the dominant position that the language has acquired within the last decades. Indeed, they realized that this language is likely to foster international exchanges and provide more opportunities for professional and technical promotion for its speakers. From such a basis, it became urgent, for Algeria, to employ all resources to implement efficient mechanisms for the teaching and learning of the language in all levels of its educational system.

1.2.3 English in the Algerian Educational System

The growing importance of English, as the language of scientific research and the means of communication between different continents of the world, has made of it a fundamental subject in every school curriculum throughout the world. Today, about 1.5

billion people speak English, as their second language, and use it for different objectives. Under the support of such global perspective, the Algerian Ministry of Education has provided significant resources to meet the new global challenges. It has started the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language in schools since 1962.

There is no doubt that considerable reforms have taken place, in this area, as a direct response to the global improvements in the teaching trends and approaches. English, as a second foreign language, is a compulsory subject in the curriculum. The pupils are officially taught English from the first year of the middle school (see Table 1.2).

	Primary school	Middle school	Secondary school	Total duration
French	3 AP- 5 AP	1 AM – 4 AM	1 AS - 3 AS	10 years
English	------	1 AM – 4 AM	1 AS - 3 AS	07 years

Table 1.2: English and French in the Algerian Educational System

At the level of middle school, pupils are introduced to the language basics so as to to reinforce the four skills during the secondary school stage and, thus, reach the objectives of teaching the language. The tertiary education, then, carries out the process of the language learning by developing the teaching of English for specific purposes (ESP) in order to reinforce all the practical uses of the language.

1.2.4 Objectives of English Language Teaching in Algeria

English has been a major primacy for the Algerian Ministry of Education. Such an interest expressed the policy makers' willingness to see how far they can help towards developing EFL teaching and learning practices seeking a full integration of the Algerian learner into the global era where he/she can "***set up and develop communicative, linguistic, cultural and methodological competencies that would enable the learner to face oral and/or written communication situations***" (Syllabus of English -1st year AS, 2005:4). In accordance with those expressed aims three interrelated objectives can be distinguished (see table 1.3):

Objectives	Expressed aims
Linguistic Objectives	• Provide the learners with a solid linguistic basis of grammar, vocabulary, syntax, and pronunciation. • Allow them to understand and communicate easily in the target language. • Keep them equipped with the necessary tools to pursue their general training.
Methodological Objectives	• Develop the learners' mental and intellectual abilities of analysis, synthesis, and evaluation through a number of pertinent activities. • Consolidate and develop the strategies of learning and self-evaluation • Reinforce and strengthen the study skills and technique
Cultural Objectives	• Enable the learners to know more about the various contexts of culture and civilization to stimulate their response towards that culture. • Stimulate the learners' curiosity and open-mindedness

Table 1.3: Objectives of English Language Teaching in Algeria (Syllabus of English)

The Algerian TEFL curriculum was prepared under the supervision of The National Authority for School Programmes (NASP). It summarized the specific objectives for the teaching and learning of English in Algeria. It stated:

> **The study of English must imperatively be conceived with the objective of helping our society to get harmoniously integrated in modernity. This means a fully complete participation in a rising linguistic community of people who use English in all types of transaction. This participation must be based on sharing and exchanging ideas as well as experiences in the fields of science, culture and civilization. This will make it possible to know oneself and the Others** (Programme of English as a Second Foreign Language, 2003:2)

1.2.5 Approaches to English Language Teaching in Algeria and Educational Reforms

Since independence, there has been much debate on how to approach the teaching of foreign languages in the Algerian schools. Many approaches have been tested aiming at enhancing the level of English learning among the Algerian pupils. They included the structural approach, the communicative approach and the current competency based approach (CBA) defined as a '*know-how-to-act process which interacts and mobilizes a set of capacities, skills and an amount of knowledge that will be used effectively in various problem situations or in circumstances that have never occurred before*' (Programme of

English as a Second Foreign Language, 2003:6). It found its way to the secondary education as a result of the educational reforms of the year (2005/2006). The new Algerian curriculum was mostly advanced in the form of enhancement and empowerment of educators' teaching quality and learners' interpersonal skills with a focus on technical abilities.Its main objective was to shift from teacher to learner-centred instruction. It is a modern vision in the era of globalization where the pupils construct their own learning through project-based activities and develop their own competencies making use of the most advanced information communication technologies (ICT). The priority, today, is going beyond the communicative competence to produce an individual who possesses such skills as critical thinking and problem solving abilities and is able to interact in correct English in all situations. Consequently, the CBA induces teachers to elicit pupils to re-invest the knowledge acquired in the classroom into real problem-solving situations that they may face in daily life. In such an approach, the pupils are elicited to construct their own knowledge. Thus, they are assigned in an environment where they are responsible for their own learning. On the other hand, the teacher is required "*to guide, help, stimulate, accompany and encourage the pupil throughout this training*" (Programme of English as a Second Foreign Language, 2003:6). The CBA approach projects at guaranteeing an adequate atmosphere for the mastery of the English language because *"the greater the language mastery is, the better is the pupil's achievement in a professional and academic world that is getting more and more demanding"*(Programme of English as a Second Foreign language, 2003:2). Thus, the teacher's duty has become an easier said than done, particularly, in transforming the objectives of the theoretical approach into practical daily teaching acts.

After more than a decade of the implementation of the previous educational reforms, the question of reaching a higher standard in English language teaching and learning is still persistent. The process of restructuration was not without positive results. The aim of reforms has been to search for all that is valuable and gratifying for the Algerian educational system, in general, and language learning policy in particular. The educational reorganization has attempted to establish new teaching methods that have reformed the traditional teaching and learning practices. It has put as a necessary step to provide schools with the adequate facilities and the necessary technological means in a true commitment to the real objectives of assisting the Algerian pupils, at the juncture of the 21st century education, in facing the most contesting challenges of globalization. However, quite many unexpected outcomes have emerged out of

these reforms. They have been the result of a multitude of factors abridged in a failure to sensitize the teachers, learners and administrators of the main objectives of these new curricular reforms and prepare them for the real implementation of this restructuration on the field practices. Having neglected some aspects of this very important stage in the process of the educational reform, the decision makers could not conceive a real vision of the problems and needs of the Algerian school and its aptitude to adapt to the new policy requirements. The gap between the use of technology and pedagogical purposes remained considerably large which, further, caused a disassociation between the desired outcomes and the designed policy, i.e. since the diagnosis was incomplete, the field applications were not fully attained.

In 2016, the Ministry of National Education has launched the *'second generation'* of reforms in the educational system. It has been referred to as a further attempt to '*win the bet of the quality'* of education and the performance of the Algerian schools. The adopted reforms have been held to carry improvements that would correct the *'first generation'* reforms' shortcomings in terms of effectiveness. The Ministry of Education has initiated a policy for the teaching of foreign languages with expert help sought in teacher training and elaboration of textbooks. The main aim of the Algerian educational reforms has been to enable pupils to contribute more in their learning so that they have a good level of literacy as well as positive attitudes, values and skills needed to meet the 21st century educational requirements. This has been in contrast to the previous conceived programmes that elicited pupils to superficial learning and acquisition of knowledge that did not have a real practical outcome in their learning. To this end, '*second generation'* textbooks have been designed to be based on an '*interdisciplinary approach'* that allows the same themes to be tackled through different subject disciplines. An academic group including inspectors, school and university teachers and principals, designed the new textbooks. The new line of reforms has been said to feature interdisciplinary learning and emphasize on observation, synthesis, creativity and analysis. The reforms of the '*second generation'* were implemented within the school year 2016 /2017 at the level of the first and second years of the primary stage and the first year middle stage before being circulated to the rest of the educational levels. The programme of this reform has planned training processes for the benefit of educational staff and inspection bodies. It has been set to highlight the great readiness of the educational staff to keep pace with the reforms before stressing the need to promote interaction between

teachers and pupils to improve the educational reality and achieve the goals of the planned reforms.

Yet, all such reforms have raised many interrogations and have been suspended within the school year 2017 /2018. The educational board is still on the quest of the most appropriate teaching strategies that would improve the level of English proficiency among the Algerian pupils.

1.3 Scope of Adolescence

For a better clarification of the research objectives and a better understanding of the subjects of interest in this study, it seems paramount to investigate some of the main aspects of adolescence, namely, the adolescents' development and its influential role in shaping their identities as far as the secondary school pupils are concerned. A good understanding of their psychology, growth, and characteristics can help, to a great extent, to identify their needs, attitudes, beliefs and self-perceptions towards learning and understand their behaviours and way of thinking.

1.3.1 Definition of Adolescence

Three basic stages constitute human age development: Childhood, adolescence and adulthood. The term *'adolescence'* is derived from the Latin verb *'adolescere'* which means *'to grow to maturity'*. "*It is the transitional phase of growth and development between childhood and adulthood*" (Encyclopaedia Britannica**.** 2012). According to Tessie and Rodriguez (2009) adolescence is:

> **…the period of psychological and social transition between childhood and adulthood. This transition involves biological and psychological changes. It is, also, a cultural and social phenomenon; its endpoints are not necessarily tied to physical milestones. During this stage, world views become important and the individual enters what is called a 'psychological moratorium', which refers to a period of exploring different roles, values, and skills. Important decisions about jobs and life have to be made** (Tessie & Rodriguez, 2009: 98)

It is difficult to determine the exact age it begins in or ends at. It can be separated into three main stages: Early (10-13), middle (14-16), and late (17-19). According to Murray (1989), the original 1482 definition of adolescence stated that it is the period between childhood and adulthood that extends between ages 14 and 25 years in males and 12 and 21 years in females (Murray et al., 1989, cited in Curtis, 2015). Stanley Hall (1846-1924), the

first Ph.D. in the United States and the founder of the child study movement in North America, was the first to advance a psychology of adolescence in his two-volume treatise on the subject. Hall's (1904) original conception of adolescence included both genders between the ages of 14 and 24 years (Curtis, 2015).

Table 1.4 illustrates the major chronologic constructs of adolescence emitted by diverse organizations and theories:

Organization /Theorist	Definition of Adolescence (years)
Historical Definition (1482)	Males: 14-25 Females: 12-21
G. Stanley Hall (1904)	14-24
Society for Adolescent Medicine Position Statement (SAM,1995)	10-25
American Academy of Paediatrics (AAP ,2014)	11-21
Department of Health and Human Services (USDHHS, 2015)	Adolescents 10-19 Young adults 10-24
Centre for Disease Control and Prevention: (CDC, 2015).	$9^{th} – 12^{th}$ grade
U.S. Census Bureau (2015)	12 to 17 or 15 to 19
World Health Organization (WHO, 2004)	Adolescents: 10 to 19 Youth: 15 to 24 Young people: 10 to 24

Table 1.4: Chronologic Constructs of Adolescence. (Blum & Nelson-Nmari, 2004, cited in Curtis, 2015).

Many psychologists view adolescence as a unique stage in human development. It represents a complex transitional process involving progression from the immaturity and social dependency of childhood into adult life with the goal and expectation of fulfilled developmental potential, personal agency, and social independence (Greenfield, Keller, Fuligni, & Maynard, 2003; Steinberg, 2005).

1.3.2 Aspects of Adolescent Developmental Changes

Adolescence is a time period in the individual's life characterized by biological, psychological, cognitive and social development. The elements in adolescents' development are universal; however, the duration and defining characteristics of this period may vary

across time, cultures, and socioeconomic situations (American Psychological Assocition, 2002:4).

Adolescence is often viewed as a developmental period that encompasses several stages of development. During this phase, adolescents experience more growth than any other time in their life. It is an age of changes for how adolescents think, feel, and interact with others, and how their bodies grow (APA, 2002:4).

1.3.2.1 The Physical Development

Adolescents experience a growth spurt which involves rapid growth of bones and muscles. It usually begins at about ages 10 to 12 in girls and 12 to 14 in boys and is complete at around age 17 to 19 in girls and 20 in boys (Hofmann & Greydanus, 1997, cited in APA, 2002:7). Physical changes of puberty mark the onset of adolescence (Lerner & Steinberg, 2009). For both boys and girls, the physical changes include increases in height and weight, completion of skeletal growth accompanied by a marked increase in skeletal mass, and changes in body composition, growth of pubic and underarm hair, and skin changes. Boys experience growth in facial hair and a deepening of their voice. Girls experience breast development and begin menstruating. These pubertal changes are driven by hormones, particularly, an increase in testosterone for boys and oestrogen for girls (APA, 2002:7).

The physical changes of early adolescence often lead to new responses from others and new concern with physical appearance and body image. In response to these corporal modifications, young adolescents begin to be treated in a new way by those around them. They are no longer considered as just children but as young men and women who should behave in different ways. They are under constant observation by family and society.

Along with physical changes, adolescents go through psychological changes during puberty. One of major developmental tasks of adolescents is to accept their body image as a symbol of their changed self. Both adolescent boys and girls are known to spend hours concerned with their physical appearance, particularly, in order to 'fit in' with the norms of the group with which they most identify. At the same time, they wish to have their own unique style, and they may spend hours in the bathroom or in front of the mirror trying to achieve this goal (APA, 2002:8). Because of these physical changes, many adolescents experience frustration concerning their body image. Obesity is one apparent example of these concerns. It is commonly, a sensitive issue in adolescents of both sexes. Weight gain, a

natural phenomenon within puberty, can be distressing in a culture that praises physical fitness and thin bodies. In response, some adolescents begin to diet obsessively. Some of these adolescents develop eating disorders such as anorexia nervosa or bulimia (Striegel, Moore & Cachelin, 1999, cited in APA, 2002:9).

1.3.2.2 Cognitive Development

Major changes in the structure and functioning of the brain occur during adolescence and result in cognitive and behavioural developments (Steinberg, 2008). Piaget (1950) described adolescence as the stage of life in which the individual's judgments start taking more of an abstract form of egocentric thoughts. This allows the individual to think and reason in a wider perspective or intense preoccupation with the self. According to Steinberg (2008), the adolescents start to develop concrete thinking abilities, i.e. they start thinking in ways that are more advanced, more efficient, and generally more complex. He stated that these improvements occur in five areas: attention, memory, processing speed, organization, and metacognition (see table 1.5):

Cognitive Area	Improvements
Attention	Adolescents develop selective attention in which they can focus on one stimulus while tuning out another. They, also, improve divided attention as being able to pay attention to two or more stimuli at the same time.
Memory.	Improvements are seen in both working memory and long-term memory
Processing speed	Adolescents think more quickly than children. Processing speed improves sharply between age five and middle adolescence; it then begins to level off at age 15 and does not appear to change between late adolescence and adulthood.
Organization	Adolescents are more aware of their thought processes and can use mnemonic devices and other strategies to think more efficiently.
Metacognition	Adolescents' improvements in knowledge of their own thinking patterns lead to better self-control and more effective studying. It is also relevant in social cognition, resulting in increased introspection, self-consciousness, and intellectualization

Table 1.5: Cognitive Development during Adolescence (Steinberg, 2008)

During middle adolescence , adolescents are motivated to seek thrills that sometimes come from risky behaviour such as reckless driving, smoking, or drinking, Steinberg (2014) explained that in spite of the adolescents' cognitive processes becoming increasingly abstract and more complex, their logical efficiency of cognitive process and control of impulsivity, still, remain immature (Steinberg, 2014, cited in Curtis,2015:22). He likened this to *"engaging a powerful engine before the braking system is in place"* (Steinberg, 2008). The result is that adolescents are more disposed to to risky behaviours than are children or adults.

1.3.2.3 Emotional Development

In addition to being a time of physiological and cognitive change, adolescence is, also, a period of emotional transition. Adolescents initiate a phase where they change their views to themselves as well as develop a capacity to operate independently (APA, 2002:25). Emotional development, during adolescence, involves establishing *"a realistic and coherent sense of identity in the context of relating to others and learning to cope with stress and manage emotions"* (Santrock, 2001, cited in APA, 2002:15).

For most of adolescents, establishing a sense of identity is as important as establishing a sense of autonomy or independence (APA, 2002:15). Identity refers to how adolescents perceive themselves. It, also, includes the *'possible self'* which was expressed in Markus and Nurius (1986)'s terms as *"what individuals might become and who they would like to become"* (Markus & Nurius, 1986, cited in APA, 2002:15). Erikson (1968) noted that establishing a sense of identity has traditionally been thought of as the central task of adolescence. It includes two concepts: Self-concept, the set of beliefs one has about oneself and self-esteem which involves evaluating how one feels about one's self-concept (APA, 2002:15). Some of the factors influencing identity development and self-esteem, during adolescence, are (a) adolescents' developing cognitive skills which enable them to make abstract generalizations about the self (Keating,1990, cited in APA,2002:15), (b) the physical changes, they are experiencing, that can influence either positively or negatively their global self-esteem, and (c) comments by others, particularly parents and peers, which reflect appraisals of the individual that some adolescents may incorporate as part of their identity and feelings about themselves (Robinson, 1995).

The emotional stress of identity formation drives adolescents to develop emotional intelligence, defined by Goleman (1994) as *"emotional skills necessary to manage stress and be sensitive and effective in relating to other people"* (Goleman, 1994, cited in APA,

2002:17). Adolescents are able to recognize and manage their own emotions and to develop empathy for others; in turn, they, also, learn to resolve conflict in a constructive manner and to mature a cooperative spirit with others, which is an essential social skill for adult life (APA, 2002:17).

1.3.2.4 Social Development

Associated to the biological, cognitive, and emotional development of adolescence, the adolescents' social transition is an important change. It is the process that enables them to become integrated into a social group. The social development of adolescents is best considered in the contexts in which it occurs. They are relating to peers, family, school, work, and community (APA, 2002:21). Adolescents are learning and preparing for their adult roles. Smiley (2011) illustrated this fact stating that adolescence "***can be understood as a weigh-station in the process of 'becoming' an adult, a stage between the 'apprenticeship' of childhood and full social participation in adult life"*** (Smiley, 2011, cited in Risa, 2016:10).

Social transition is, mainly characterized by the adolescents' growth to be autonomous, independent and by the development of positive feelings about themselves as well as by the type of influence exerted upon them by major socializing agents. These are: the family, peers, school, work, and community.

- *Family Relationships*

Regardless of family form, a strong sense of attachment to family has always been associated with better emotional development, better school performance, and engagement in fewer high-risk activities (Perry, 2000, cited in APA, 2002;23). Parents, who adopt a more responsible parenting style, construct an atmosphere of warmth, care and involvement within their families. They provide their children with positive models in guiding their paths in society, fixing limits, and encouraging them to develop their own beliefs and perceptions of their roles in life. Parental monitoring covers a wide range of behaviours such as parents' attempts to set rules to their children and know their friends, activities, and whereabouts, in addition to adolescents' willingness to disclose information to their parents (Stattin & Kerr, 2000). Steinberg, (2001) reinforced this idea affirming that the adolescents who come from homes with this style of parenting tend to achieve more in school, report less depression and anxiety, score higher in measures of self-reliance and self-esteem, and be less likely to engage in delinquent behaviours and drug abuse. On the other hand, Lansford (2017) explained that the psychological control, which involves parents' manipulation and intrusion into their

children's emotional and cognitive world through invalidating their feelings and pressuring them to think in particular ways is another aspect of parenting that is related to more problematic adolescent adjustment.

- *Peer Relationships*

Peer relationships establish new social changes for adolescents. During childhood, the family constitutes the main pivot in the child's life. During adolescence, the peer group often begins to replace the family. Adolescents shift their attention to friends and seek to establish a strong sense of group identity (Atkinson & Sturges, 2003, cited in Risa, 2016). Adolescents turn to their peers for they represent the shared distinctions in dress, appearance, attitudes, hobbies, and interests. For Bishop and Inderbitzen (1995), peer groups serve a number of important functions throughout adolescence, providing a temporary reference point for a developing sense of identity. Through identification with peers, adolescents begin to develop moral judgment and values and to define how they differ from their parents. Another important function of peer groups is to provide adolescents with a source of information about the world outside of the family and about themselves (Santrock, 2001). Kupersmidt and Coie (1990) considered that positive peer relations, during adolescence, have been linked to positive psychosocial adjustment. On the other hand, social isolation among peer-rejected teens has been linked to a variety of negative behaviours, such as delinquency. The nature of adolescents' involvement with peer groups changes over the course of adolescence (see Table 1.6):

Social group	Early Adolescence (9-13)	Middle Adolescence (14-16)	Late Adolescence (17-19)
Peers	Centre of social world shifts from family to friends. Peer group tends to be same-sex. Strong desire to conform to and be accepted by a peer group.	Peer groups gradually give way to one-on-one friendships and romances. Peer group tends to be gender –mixed. Dating begins. Less conformity and more tolerance of individual differences.	Serious intimate relationships begin to develop.
Family	Increasing conflict between adolescents and their parents. Family closeness most important protective factor against high-risk behaviour.		Family influence in balance with peer influence.

Table 1.6: Some Key Features of Adolescent Social Development (American Psychological Association, 2002)

It is important to note that this social shift does not mean that family closeness has assumed less importance for the adolescents (O'Koon, 1997). In fact, family remains a requisite inhibitor to adolescents' deviant behaviours

- **Romantic Relationships**

The romantic relationships constitute an integral part of the adolescents' peer interactions. They, typically, emerge during early adolescence. In this sense, Carver et al (2003) observed *"Romantic relationships tend to increase in prevalence throughout adolescence. By age 15, 53% of adolescents have had a romantic relationship that lasted at least one month over the course of the previous 18 months"* (Carver, Joyner & Udry, 2003). During childhood, same-sex peer groups are most common between children. During adolescence, these relations expand into mixed-sex peer groups. The typical duration of romantic relationships increases throughout the teenage years although they are often short-term rather than long-term partnerships. Furman and Shaffer (2003) stated that adolescents are affected by these relationships and their positive and negative emotions are more tied to romantic relationships than to friendships, family relationships, or school. They added that romantic relationships contribute to adolescents' identity formation, changes in family and peer relationships, and adolescents' emotional and behavioural adjustment. Furthermore, they are centrally connected to adolescents' emerging sexuality.

In contemporary societies, adolescents are widening the scope of their relationships through the use of modern technologies and social media to seek out romantic relations as they consider it is a safe place to try out dating and identity exploration (Swanson, Edwards & Spencer, 2010)

- *School*

Children, on average, spend at least 15,000 hours in school from the age of 4 or 5 until they leave high school (Hamre & Pianta, 2005). For the great majority of adolescents, school represents an important part in their life. It is, there, that they have the opportunity to develop cognitive skills and build peer relationships. For some adolescents, school is synonym to safety and stability (APA, 2002:24). In general, those adolescents who enjoy a positive and responsible parenting style are developing positive attachment with their schools and their teachers; furthermore, they achieve academically (APA, 2002:23).

During adolescence, teenagers move from middle school to secondary school. This shift is a real challenge both to their academic performance and psychological well-being (Seidman, Aber, & French, 2002, cited in APA, 2002:24). Right in the secondary phase of education, most specialists note a general weakening in adolescent learners' academic performance. They emphasize that this decline indicates the beginning of a process of disengaging from school which, in turn, increases their risk for lower grades and even failure. Conversely, other adolescents, at this stage, continue to engage academically. During this crucial phase, it is quite important, for teenagers, to hold a high school diploma, required for economic success and a stable professional career. At this level, teachers and school counsellors are sometimes the best source of help for adolescent pupils facing emotional and interpersonal problems. When teenagers have irregular home lives, they need a firm structure that is caring, respecting learners and showing genuine concern. Their role becomes greater in encouraging adolescents to pursue postsecondary education and career training (APA, 2002:25).

- *Community*

The characteristics of the community, in which adolescents live, are likely to have a major impact on their development. Community includes such factors as the socioeconomic characteristics of one's neighbourhood, the types of resources available, the service systems within the community including schools, religious organizations, the media, and the people who live in the community (APA, 200:26). The degree of support that adolescents can receive from their community can vary from rich opportunities to poor resources.

The socioeconomic status and family stability can affect adolescents' development. For instance, living in an affluent neighbourhood is positively associated with academic achievement and negatively associated with dropping out of school, especially, for male adolescents. On the other hand, adolescents who reside in low poor neighbourhoods, particularly younger adolescents, are more likely to be involved in delinquent and criminal behaviour and to experience behavioural problems (APA, 2002:26).

Adolescents are positively influenced by the community's spiritual and cultural values. Those who attach greater importance to principles, ethics, and moral values report less involvement in sexual activity and behavioural problems (APA, 2002:27).

The media are an important part of the adolescents' community. Youth are increasingly joining more than one form of media at a time. The teenagers are the most *"wired group of the population and are positioned better than any other age group to take advantage of the latest technologies as they emerge"* (Lenhart, 2007). Berry (2000) stated that some aspects of the media can exert a negative influence on adolescents due to their representation of violence, unhealthy sexuality and lack of positive role models. On the other hand, they can also be sites for education, prevention from the substance abuse, nutrition, violence prevention, and mental health concerns.

The Internet is now omnipresent in the lives of adolescents. Although all youth do not have equal access to computers, either at home or at school, the vast majority of youth, today, do have access to smart phones, computers and to the Internet. A recent survey found that (95%) of 15 to 17 year old teens have been online, with most in this age group (83%) having access to the Internet from home. Nearly a third (29%) have access to the Internet from a computer in their bedroom, where parents are, much less able to monitor its use (www.internetworldstats.com). Much of adolescents' online activity consists of talking with people via e-mail, instant messaging, and chat rooms.

The impact of media on the development of adolescents is quite significant and tentative steps to control their effects proved to be quite challenging in this global era.

- *Work*

At one point of their development, adolescents face shift from the dependency of childhood to the independence of adulthood. This transition may be indicated by the move from school to work.

Early school leavers, suddenly, switch from the protected world of school to the demanding world of young adult employment. These adolescents start work before they have completed their development. They might be further handicapped by an absence of diploma and fewer vocational opportunities. Late school leavers take up employment later. They have advantages of prolonged education and desirable careers which are not enjoyed by those entering work at the age of 16 (APA, 2002:25).

During secondary school stage, many adolescents engage in part-time jobs. Most extensive research, conducted to date stress the impact of the number of work hours on adolescents for they are critical for determining the level of benefits the teens can enjoy from these part-time jobs (APA, 2002:25). Adolescents who work 20 or more hours per week,

during the school year, are at higher risk for a variety of negative outcomes, including work-related injuries, lower educational attainment, substance abuse, and insufficient sleep (Committee on the Health and Safety Implications of Child Labour, cited in APA, 2002:25). Findings from the National Longitudinal Study on Adolescent Health (NLSAH) suggest that these young people are more emotionally distressed, have poorer grades, are more likely to smoke cigarettes, and are more likely to become involved in other high-risk behaviours, such as alcohol and drug use (Health for the World's Adolescent, WHO, 2014)

The world of work and employment represent real challenges to those youth who are not going on to school. The transition to work can be difficult. They can feel lost and disconnected from either school or work.

The above section has gone through the different stages of adolescent development in an attempt to elucidate some features of youth growth and present more clues to constitute a clear picture of the subjects under study. A summary of the basic stages of adolescence and the main developmental processes characterizing this period of life are presented in Table 1.7:

Developmental Process	Early Adolescence (11 - 13)	Middle Adolescence (14 -17)	Young Adulthood (18 - 25)
Physical	Initiation of puberty	Continued physical growth and development	Termination of physical growth and development
Cognitive	Developing pre-frontal cortex; Concrete thought to increasing formal operations and abstraction	Continued pre-frontal cortex development; Increasing formal operations and abstraction	Completed brain development; Increased formal operations and abstract reasoning
Emotional	Increased emotional arousability; Immature self-regulatory system	Increasing emotional range; Developing self- regulatory system	Increased emotional stability; Mature self- regulatory system
Social	Primarily unisex peer relationships, Increasing peer involvement; Escalating parental conflict *(Industry vs. Inferiority)*	Heterosexual peer groups and romantic relationships; Transformational parental relationship *(Identity vs. role confusion)*	Less peer group interaction, increased development of intimate relations; Reduced parental conflict *(Intimacy vs. Isolation)*
Sexual	Arousal of sexual curiosity and experimentation	Sexual experimentation and activity increase	Deepening sexual identification and intimate relationships
Moral	Conventional morality emphasizing adherence to expectations; Reflective perspective	Interpersonal normative morality or social system morality; Mutual perspective	Interpersonal morality or social system morality; Societal perspective
Academic	Early secondary; Increased academic demands, decreased student-teacher intimacy	Later secondary; Increased academic accountability, diversity and competition	College or Vocational Education; Self-directed adult learning

Table 1.7: Summary of the Stages of Adolescents' Developmental Processes (Curtis, 2015)

The next section proposes to explore some of the adolescents' characteristics related to their psychology and specific behavioural patterns.

1. 3.3 Characteristics of Adolescents

Although each individual is unique in personality and rate of developmental growth, adolescents have common characteristics:

- ➢ Struggle with sense of identity
- ➢ Moodiness
- ➢ More likely to express feelings by action than by words
- ➢ Search for new people to love in addition to parents
- ➢ Tendency to return to childish behaviour
- ➢ Mostly interested in present and near future
- ➢ More showing off and greater interest in privacy
- ➢ Complaints that parents interfere with their independence
- ➢ Extremely concerned with appearance and with one's own body
- ➢ Feelings of strangeness about one's self and body
- ➢ Lowered opinion of parents and withdrawal from them
- ➢ Great curiosity and constant evolving understanding of the world
- ➢ Highly self-conscious and very sensitive to personal criticism
- ➢ Great deal of physical energy
- ➢ A need to understand the purpose of activities, policies, and processes.
- ➢ A growing autonomy that leads often to questioning authority
- ➢ Humour
- ➢ Belongingness to peer groups as peer acceptance is often more important than adult approval
- ➢ Peer identification through choices, clothing, and behaviour. (Adapted from Muuss, R (1996) Theories of Adolescence, New York: The Mc Graw-Hill).

In the 21st century, the expectations of adolescents begin to change as a direct response to the immediate needs that emerged as direct outcomes of political and economic decisions. The young people are expected to stay in school much longer which means more time with same-age peers and enter adulthood later than ever before. *"These shifts have influenced views of what it means to be an adolescent"* (Nichols & Good, 2004).

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1.3.4 An Overview on the Algerian Adolescents

Actually, most research on adolescent development and characteristics are defined according to the cultural norms of the western societies. It is not affirmed that there exist great differences between adolescents worldwide; nevertheless, it is primordial to consider the cultural norms of non-western societies, namely, the Algerian socio-cultural norms as they present some distinctive particularities if compared to any other western society. The foundations of this research work are based essentially on a sample of Algerian adolescent learners, thus, it is paramount to conceive an overview of their characteristics and beliefs about school and learning.

1.3.4.1 Algerian Adolescents' Characteristics

In Algeria, adolescents are an important social component as they constitute a significant ratio of the whole population. Their developmental characteristics are defined according to the socio-cultural and environmental features of the country:

Physically, adolescents' rapid and intense growth occurs with the beginning of puberty. This begins generally, in Algeria, at about the ages of 10 and 12 in girls and between the ages of 12 and 14 in boys. In girls, the spurt in height begins between the ages of 10 and 12 and is nearly completed by 14 or 15. In boys, the period of rapid growth begins between 12 and 14 years and is generally completed by 17 and even later. The differences in puberty onset and physical development are mainly influenced by environment and climate as well as by the socioeconomic variables.

Emotionally, the search for self-identity constitutes a matter of confusion to the Algerian adolescents. They get perplexed and are discontented with everything and everyone. Most teenagers feel anxious and are frequently in opposition to their parents. The reality is that they consider themselves as adults and, thus, highly desire to be accorded the adult status. This implies that the adolescents aspire to be treated with respect in the family and in the larger community.

Socially, the Algerian adolescents grow in a large family. All family members live together in one household. They are making one family supervised by one adult who institutes the parental authority. The notion of the individual is, practically, non-existent in the Algerian society. It fades away in the large sense of the group. All family members, parents and children, found a homogenous set in which each member serves his/her family according to

their traditional standards. Value is especially important among the older generation, especially if associated to the respect of traditions and preservation of the family unit. The imposition of dependency to the family structure engenders a deep conflict between the generations as teenagers seek independence and self-reliance. In the Algerian society, young people are brought up in a culture of respect and obedience, all ruled by a set of religious dogmas, traditional values and moral principles. The purpose of this socialization is to subdue the young generations' instinctive impulses to get conformed to the community rules.

Gender differences arise under distinctive forms within the family. To an extent, the boys are considered to be *'the future supports'* of the family, those who have the duty to perpetuate the familial traditions and name. They may enjoy a certain prestige and preference over girls. This is not a generalized picture in all Algerian families. Furthermore, both boys and girls feel voiceless within their family circle. The teens avow that they are consulted for certain matters like their future; yet, they feel excluded from decision-making, even though they respect the fact that their parents are those who take the final decision for what concerns their future careers.

The Algerian adolescents are trapped in an extremely challenging epoch due to the profound impact of economic, social, cultural and political conditions. They seek independence from the parental authority and at the same time they are craving for protection, love and care.

1.3.4.2 Algerian Adolescents and the internet

Algerian adolescents, living in an environment with direct exposure to the global economy and media, are likely to develop a serious conjuncture from the social norms that they see ineffective, old-fashioned, and unable to satisfy their longings and most aspirated intents.

Many of them consider cyberspaces as a break away from parents' supervision. It is a space that provides adolescents with a broad sense of freedom to affirm themselves and link national and international relationships. In a recent report of Internet world stats (IWS), Algeria counts 21, 000,000 subscriptions to the Internet which represent the ratio of (49.2 %) of the whole population. (72%) of the internet users, in Algeria, are aged between 15 and 19 years, (40%) of whom log on almost every day (www.Internet world stats.com). Within the years 2000 – 2019, internet growth percentage reached (41, 9 %), counting 19,000,000

Facebook subscribers in December 2018 with a penetration rate estimated at (44.5%). In less than a decade, the ratio of Algerian users of internet shifted from (13.6%) in 2010 to (49.2 %) in 2019 which is a sign of rapid population growth, an improvement of the internet usage facilities, and enjoyment of internet numerous and unimaginable services (see Table 1.8):

Year	Users	Population	Penetration (% Population)
2000	50,000	31, 795,500	0.2 %
2005	1, 920,000	33, 033,546	5.8 %
2007	2, 460,000	33, 506,567	7.3 %
2008	3, 500,000	33, 769,669	10.4 %
2009	4, 100,000	34, 178,188	12.0 %
2010	4, 700,000	34, 586,184	13.6 %
2012	5, 230,000	37, 367,226	14.0 %
2013	6, 404,264	38, 113,421	16.5 %
2014	6, 669,927	38, 913,722	17.2 %
2015	11, 000,000	39, 542,166	27.8 %
2016	15,000,000	40,263,711	37.3 %
2017	18, 580,000	41,063,753	43.2 %
2018	19, 705,000	41,937,527	45.3 %
2019	21, 000,000	42,679,018	49.2 %

Table1.8: Algerian Internet Usage and Population Growth (www.Internet world stats.com).

Such data confirm the actual influence exerted by globalization standards on young minds. The Algerian adolescents live violent tensions that are attributable to the flaws between what they are communicated at home and what they come across out in school or society as to the exposure to the media of all kinds. It is a cultural clash which led to a change in the patterns of upbringing from subordination and obedience to rebellion. The introduction of new cultural concepts into the Algerian society compelled the young generation to refute all forms of authority, the fact that instigated a profound social alienation.

The psychological and cultural exploitation of globalization caused the values and identity of the Algerian society to drop under the adolescents' denunciation of traditional rituals and refusal to submit to the social standards. The Algerian adolescents express, explicitly, their strong desire to belong to the Western societies as they portray their perceptual image of development and modern norms of life epitomized in the various media.

Parted between the commitment to the traditional principles and adherence to modern norms, the Algerian adolescents have lost much of their identity. This polarization of the individuals reflects the advantage of the constant change in cultural representations and

the uncertainty of choosing a clear and definite identity. Under a global culture, new trendy tendencies, adopted by the Algerian youth, are overspread in our society. They celebrate totally different customs expressed through bizarre clothing and hair fashion styles, addiction to mobile phones and an exaggerated adherence to the different social media. This intemperate identity search is, occasionally, leading adolescents towards religious obsession and, at times, to ethnic and linguistic intolerance.

1.3.4.3 Algerian Adolescents' Beliefs about School and Learning

Adolescents spend more waking time in school than in any other context (Eccles & Roeser, 2011). Academic achievement, during adolescence, sets the stage for future educational and occupational opportunities. It is predicted, primarily, by the kind of environment, the adolescents are brought up in, the nature of their relationships with their parents and caregivers, the specific peer group, to which they belong to, and most of all by their attachment to school and perceptions of learning. In fact, all these perceptual beliefs about the value of education have a direct impact on their academic goal orientation and, thus, on their academic attainment.

The Algerian adolescents, similarly to all worldwide teenagers, aspire for success and good career opportunities when reaching adulthood. Still, most Algerian adolescents feel frustrated and worried about their future. They express clearly the gap between their ambitions and what society has to offer them. In particular, they complain about the school that does not meet their expectations, the lack of opportunities for an adequate vocational career, lack of an appropriate atmosphere for study whether in school or at home, their constant feeling that parents are restricting their freedom in most things, their relational, psychological and personal concerns, their desire to have better family conditions, negative academic experiences, the failure to set a fixed goal, the inability to think properly and correctly, lack of knowledge of appropriate study strategies, lack of confidence in their aptitudes, and fear of failure, to mention the least. These are the potential reasons that cause the Algerian adolescent to hold uncertain beliefs about school and education[1].

On the occasion of the publication of its report "*The State of the World's Children 2011*", entitled *"Adolescence: the age of all possibilities"*, UNICEF shed light on the

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[1] These reasons are based on the researcher's field observations as a result of the experience of more than two decades teaching secondary school adolescents.

Algerian adolescents' situation. Manuel Fontaine, representative of UNICEF in Algeria, reported, "***the young Algerians are frustrated, not respected enough and listened to, and are worried about their future. This is more than alarming***". In his report, Mr Fontaine summarized the situation. He explained that the young people needed to express their frustration, their feeling that they are not sufficiently respected and listened to, and also their worry for the future because of high unemployment rates and lack of job-related prospects. He added that in a study by the organization on "***Youth Participation***", the Algerian adolescents complained about the lack of opportunities for participation in civic and political life, the lack of structured channels for information or access to leisure and infrastructures where they could find themselves between young people. "***These young people want to show their energy, their opinions. They do not want to be imposed on a society that they want to build themselves,***" (UNICEF, 2011). School drop-out consists one of the problems facing the Algerian youth. "***Still too many children, about one third, do not continue in secondary school,***" deplored UNICEF. "***For boys, it is often because they are going to do odd jobs like working in markets. For girls, it is usually because the secondary schools are farther from the village than the primary school, so they stay at home***" (UNICEF, 2011).

When asked about their views on education and their future expectations, most school age adolescents would reply: "***Studies ... what for?!***" Such a pessimistic vision is, in fact, the adolescents' firm conviction that, though holding a high qualification, university graduates are unemployed. Fortunately, this is not the same belief of all adolescents as many of them expect to carry on their studies and reach adequate professional careers.

1.4 Description of the Learning Situation

As far as the learning situation is concerned, the present section proposes to provide an overview of the secondary education, in Algeria, and a general idea about the final year requirements. In fact, it is a stage where adolescent pupils are prepared to sit for a formal exam that constitutes the target that many pupils aim to achieve due to its importance for their future careers. The section, also, presents an analysis of the English subject in the three year syllabuses as well as the main factors inhibiting the English teaching in the Algerian secondary schools

1.4.1 Current State of Secondary Education

According to the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED), secondary education is classified as levels 2 and 3. Typically, lower secondary (ISCED 2) includes grades 7 to 9 (ages 12–15) and upper secondary (ISCED 3) includes grades 10 to 13 (ages 16–19) (Bregman & Bryner, 2003).

The Secondary level education is an important juncture as it represents the intermediary step between primary and tertiary education, on the one hand, and the initiation to the professional and vocational career on the other hand. Its significance pertains to the fact that it comes across pupils' adolescence stage. It is a crucial point in their life where they are forming their identities and seeking to acquire the necessary values and skills to build firm bases for their adult careers. Actually, it is the reiteration of all the acquired knowledge formed at the primary school to be more firmly entrenched alongside the acquisition of knowledge and needed skills responsible for the development of adolescents during their transition to their maturity.

1.4.2 The Secondary Level Education in the Algerian Educational System

The secondary level education is an important final stage in the system of general education in Algeria. The secondary school represents the third level after the primary school and middle school. It takes place after nine years of primary education and is followed by higher education, vocational training or employment, depending on pupils' performance and success in the final year of the secondary school. As in most countries, it is compulsory for pupils between the ages 14 and 16. It is intended to prepare the adolescents to play an important role as active members in society. It defines the amount of the perception they have for their future careers.

It lasts three years and constitutes a formal preparation for the Baccalaureate examination held at the end of 3AS. Two main streams are included in the first year of secondary education: languages and social studies along with sciences and technology. These two main streams give access to other streams in the second and third years: Philosophy and literature, Literature and foreign languages, Sciences, Mathematics, Economy and Management, and technology. Pupils are streamed according to their personal preferences, opinion of their teachers and counsellors as well as their performance throughout the school year.

At the end of the third year, pupils sit for the baccalaureate exam. They are examined in each subject studied during their final year. Passing the exam requires pupils to score a combined average of over 50 per cent (greater than 10 on a 20-point scale) in all subjects.

1.4.3 The Final Year of the Secondary Education

The transitional period of pupils from the middle school to the secondary school marks, in general, a shift from early adolescence to late adolescence. The pupils find themselves obliged to adapt to the new instructional environment as well as to the dramatic changes happening in their bodies and minds.

The secondary education lasts for three years. The final year is the most decisive stage for pupils who are sitting for the final exam. It acts both as an assessment for the three years of secondary instruction and as a doorway to higher education. It is a challenging and most exhausting assignment. Third year pupils find themselves trapped in a process where they are required to show optimum interest and make the necessary effort to overcome the difficulties and obstacles imposed upon them by the great load of the final year and the formal exam. They are developing skills enabling them to respond to a demanding array of activities, examinations and deadlines, all within a context of performance and competition. For some other pupils, the stress of the final exam will, at times, reduce their capacity to respond effectively. The pupils who find it difficult to be on the stand and join the set of requirements in their final school year, with the resources that are available to them, may experience a decline in motivation and self-confidence.

1.4.4 Teaching English as Second Foreign Language at the Secondary School

English is among the compulsory subjects in the Baccalaureate exam. As far as EFL is concerned, three textbooks have been designed to meet the requirements of teaching English. They are "*At the Crossroads"* set for year one, "*Getting through"* for year two and "*New Prospects"* for year three (see Table 1.9). The syllabus designers stated that the purpose of their introduction into the secondary education has been to *"help the Algerian learner to integrate harmoniously into modernity through full and entire participation in the linguistic community that uses the English language for all types of interaction"* (Programme of English as a Second Foreign Language, 2003:2).

Level	Course Book	First published	Number of units	Authors
Year One	*At the Crossroads*	2005	5	S.A. Arab, B. Riche H. Ameziane, H. Hami K.
Year Two	*Getting Through*	2006	7	S.A. Arab, B. Riche M. Bensemane H. Ameziane, H. Hami
Year Three	*New Prospects*	2007	6	S.A. Arab, B. Riche M. Bensemane

Table 1.9: Secondary School EFL Textbooks

English language teaching (ELT), at the secondary school, involves the acquisition of linguistic and communicative competencies as well as the development of technological, cultural, and social competencies such as critical and analytical thinking, attachment to national values, openness and respect of universal values which are grounded on tolerance and respect of one's personal identity as well as of the others (Programme of English as a Second Foreign Language, 2008:4) Thus, the main principles of ELT rest on communicative language teaching, which *"....engages learners in real and meaningful communication. By real, we mean that the learners are given opportunities to process content relating to their lives and backgrounds and to develop both fluency and accuracy."* (New Prospects: Teacher's Guide 3AS, 2007:9). The pupils are made aware of the complexities of the English language in terms of lexis and discourse. They are, progressively, engaged in a smooth process in order to develop the three competencies of interaction, interpretation and production.

1.4.4.1 English in the First Year Secondary School

'*At the Crossroads'* is the official textbook of English designed for the Algerian learners in their first year of English study in the secondary school. The overall aim of the textbook is to consolidate and extend the sum of knowledge that pupils acquired during the middle school.

- **At the Crossroads Design**

This textbook has been designed for learners who have already studied English for four years at the middle school level. The authors explained that the course book has been designed according to the relevant curriculum of the ministry of education in January 2005. It has found on the basis that these pupils have completed the four years of English in the new

middle school EFL syllabus. The textbook is intended for all streams and consists of five units that:

> **…are made to be thought-provoking through the treatment of related teenage issues like sports, food, health, the Internet and leisure. The learners explore these issues in relation to skills, functions and related strategies and language forms that fit in with the topic of each unit. Naturally, the emphasis in all five units falls on skills since the statement of outcomes in the syllabus is formulated in terms of what the learners can do with the language.**(At the Crossroads: Teacher's Book 2005:5)

- **Proposed Themes and Projects**

The following themes are suggested so as to facilitate the choice of the adequate strategies to go through the different discourse patterns and language functions illustrated in the different units and assign the pupils to possible translation of these themes into practical project works that constitute the bases of the Competency Based Approach. At the Crossroads consists of five units (see Table 1.10).:

Themes	Suggested projects
1. Intercultural Exchanges	- Writing a letter/ an e-mail / Creating a web page
2. Communication: The Press	- Making a survey
3. Environment /Pollution/	- Making a consumer guide
4. Innovation and Technology	- Making an invention profile
5. Famous People	- Writing a biography

Table 1.10: The Proposed Projects for Every Unit (Curriculum of English 1AS, 2005)

- **Distribution of Themes According to the Streams**

Every stream is assigned five themes to be covered during the school year, (see table 1.11). The order of the themes is required to establish a common basis of follow up for the whole secondary schools in Algeria.

Themes	Literary Stream	Scientific Stream
1. Intercultural Exchanges	+	+
2.Communication: The Press	+	+
3.Environment /Pollution/	+	+
4. Innovation and Technology	+	**To be combined**
5.Famous People	+	

Table 1.11: Distribution of Themes according to the Streams (Curriculum of English 1AS, 2005)

- **Time Load**

This proposed time load is conceived on the bases of a proposition of the effective number of weeks required to cover the proposed units. They are estimated to 27 weeks. Founding on such estimation, every unit, in the programme, may be covered in 22 hours, for the literary streams, and 20 hours for the scientific streams (see Table 1.12).

Streams	Time Load	
	Weekly	**Yearly**
Literary Stream	**4 h**	**108 h**
Scientific Stream	**3 h**	**81 h**

Table 1.12: The Time Load for each Stream (Curriculum of English 1AS, 2005)

- **Organization of the Textbook**

Each unit is structured as follows:

- **Preview:** It states the objective of each section

  SEQUENCE ONE: LISTENING AND SPEAKING

- **Anticipate:** pre-listening activities.

- **Listen and Check**: listening comprehension activities.

- **Say It Clear**: speaking activities.

- **Your Turn:** (*Individual and pair work*) listening and speaking activities.

  SEQUENCE TWO: READING AND WRITING

- **Anticipate:** pre-reading activities.

- **Read and Check**: reading comprehension activities.

- **Discover The Language**: focus on some language exponents.

- **Write It Right**: writing activities.

  SEQUENCE THREE: DEVELOPING SKILLS

- **Stop and Consider:** grammar, spelling, and pronunciation rules.

- **Sequence Four: Consolidation and Extension:** to expand   social skills.

- **Project Workshop: (*group work*)** pupils are assigned projects to carry out.

1.4.4.2 English in the Second Year Secondary School Syllabus

'Getting Through' is the intermediate stage of English language learning. It marks the period when pupils are '*getting through'* the passageway leading to their final year of the secondary education.

- **Getting Through Design**

This textbook has been designed for learners who have already studied English for four years in the middle school and one year in the secondary school. The second year of the secondary school is the stage when pupils are directed towards different streams (Science, Maths, Technology, Philosophy and literature, Literature and foreign languages…). The course book is organized in eight didactic units. Each unit deals with a specific topic suggested by the curriculum designers. Pupils have many opportunities to develop the three competencies of interaction, interpretation and production that are leading, gradually, to the building of the project.

- **Proposed Themes and Projects**

The following themes are suggested to help teachers to put forward the adequate strategies to go through the different discourse patterns and language functions. They illustrate the different units, and assign the pupils to possible translation of these themes into practical project works. '*Getting Through'* comprises eight units (see Table 1.13):

Themes	Suggested projects
1. Diversity	- Writing a life styles' profile
2. Peace and conflict resolution	- Writing a statement of achievement
3. Poverty and world resources	- Writing a charter against poverty
4.Technology and innovation	- Writing reports on scientific experiments
5. Fiction or reality	- Writing a story
6.Disasters and safety	- Writing about what to do in case of disasters
7.Management and efficiency	- Writing a business portfolio

Table 1.13: The Proposed Projects for every Unit (Curriculum of English 2AS, 2006)

- **Distribution of Themes according to the Streams**

The scientific streams are assigned four themes. The Philosophy and literature stream are allocated five themes while the Foreign Languages stream are allotted six themes within the school year (see Table 1.14).

Themes	M /Tech-M /Sc	G.E	Lit & Philo	Foreign Languages
1. Diversity			+	+
2. Peace and conflict resolution	+	+	+	+
3. Poverty and world resources	+	+	+	+
4. Technology and innovation	+			+
5. Fiction or reality			+	+
6.Disasters and safety	+	+	+	+
7. Management and efficiency		+		

Table 1.14: Distribution of Themes according to the Streams (Curriculum of English 2AS, 2006)

- **Time Load**

During second year, the didactic units are estimated to be covered within 27 weeks. Every unit, in the programme, may be gone through in 22 hours for the literary streams and 20 hours for the scientific streams (see Table 1.15).

Streams	Time Load	
	Weekly	Yearly
M /Tech-M /Sc Exp / GE	3 h	81 h
Lit & Philo / Foreign Languages	4 h	108 h

Table 1.15: The Time Load for each Stream (Curriculum of English 2AS, 2006)

- **Organization of the Textbook**

Each unit contains the following:

- **Preview:** It states the objective of each section

  SEQUENCE ONE: DISCOVERING LANGUAGE

- **Discovering Language** is the first rubric. It aims at engaging learners to do various reading tasks. It includes:

- **Grammar Desk** that the pupils can consult for help with the comprehension of the text,

- **P**r**actice:** It offers some activities that are designed to consolidate previously learned grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation items.

- **Say it Aloud and Clea**r: It enables pupils to develop their pronunciation skills,

- **Working with Words:** It focuses on vocabulary building.

  SEQUENCE TWO: DEVELOPING SKILLS

The **Developing Skills** rubric includes two main sections:

- **Listening and Speaking:** It deals with oral skills essentially.

- **Reading and Writing:** It focuses on writing skills.

- **Tip Box** It provides pupil with information about text construction.

- **Write it Out:** It consolidates activities that are focussing writing assignments

- **Putting Things Together:** It deals with the final task: the project.

- **Where Do We Go From Here?** It gives an opportunity, to the pupils, to practise self-assessment, and to decide on where they should intensify their learning efforts to try and eliminate weaknesses.

- **Exploring** their linguistic **Matters Further:** It includes three to five medium-length texts depending on units. They provide additional material related to each unit's topic.

1.4.4.3 English in the Third Year Secondary School Syllabus

At the level of 3AS, the EFL teachers bring in learners to a systematic study of discourse patterns and language functions set into definite themes. They are giving learners the opportunity to develop contents that are relating to their lives and backgrounds. By the end of secondary education, pupils are, hence, expected to gain a functional and thematic knowledge of English language that prepares them *"to interact with various language situations they will encounter in real life"* (New Prospects: Teacher's Guide, 2007:60).

- **New Prospects Design**

An overview of the third year English textbook '*New Prospects'* helps to explain, in a more explicit way, the English language learning at the level of the final year of the secondary education, the objectives of the textbook, and its design and organization as made clear by its designers:

> **New Prospects provides a large number of effective learning tasks through which pupils are brought to notice, reflect and analyse how English is used… Most of these tasks involve the use of discovery learning" (inductive learning), and are intended to enhance individual learning as well as learning with peers** (New Prospects: Teacher's Guide, 2007:59)

'New Prospects' has been, basically, designed for learners who have already four years instruction in English in the middle school level and two years at the secondary school. The textbook has come as a consequence of the competency based approach. It has complied with the new English syllabus for SE3 as set by the National Curriculum Committee of the

Ministry of national education in March 2006. The design of the textbook took into consideration three major criteria: The written mode of the *Baccalaureate* examination, the thematic orientation and the pedagogical requirements of all *Baccalaureate* streams.

- **Proposed Themes and Projects**

The following themes are suggested so as to facilitate the choice of the adequate strategies to go through the different discourse patterns and language functions. They illustrate the different units and assign the pupils to possible translation of these themes into practical project works that constitute the bases of the competency based approach. '*New Prospects'* contans six units dealing with the six main themes (see Table 1.16):

Themes	Proposed projets
1. Ancient Civilizations	- Rise and collapse of civilizations - Making the profile of an ancient civilization
2. Ethics in Business	- Awareness of and ability to deal with ethics in business - Writing a charter of ethics
3. Education in the World	- Understanding of educational systems in the world - Designing an educational prospectus
4. Advertising, Consumers and Safety	- Understanding the issues of consumption and safety in a modern society
5. Astronomy and the Solar System	- Exploring the solar system and learning about astronomy - Designing an astronomy booklet
6. **Feelings and Emotions**	- Exploring the realms of feelings ,emotions and humour - Writing a booklet of tips for coping with emotions

Table 1.16: The Proposed Projects for every Unit (Curriculum of English 3AS, 2007:137)

- **Distribution of Themes according to the Streams**

Every stream is assigned four themes to be covered during the school year, (see Table 1.17). The order of the themes is required to establish a common basis of follow up for the whole secondary schools in Algeria.

Themes	M /T-Maths / SC / GE	Lit & Philo / FL
1. Ancient Civilizations		+
2. Ethics in Business	+	+
3. Education in the World		+
4. Advertising, Consumers and Safety	+	
5. Astronomy and the Solar System	+	
6. Feelings and Emotions	+	+

Table 1.17: The Suggested Units for each Stream (Curriculum of English 3AS, 2007:137)

- **Time Load**

The proposed time load is performed according to the effective number of weeks required to cover the proposed units so as *"to instil in learners ease and confidence in their communicative use of English."* (New Prospects: Teacher's Guide, 3AS, 2007: 70). It is estimated to be covered within 27 weeks. On the basis of such an approximation, every unit may be covered in 22 hours for the literary streams and 20 hours for the scientific and technical streams (see Table 1.18).

	Time Load	
Streams	**Weekly**	**Yearly**
Lit & Philo / Foreign Languages	**4 h**	**108 h**
M /Tech-M / Sc. Exp / GE	**3 h**	**81 h**

Table 1.18: The Time Load for each Stream (Curriculum of English 3AS, 2007:137)

- **Organization of the Textbook**

New Prospects aims at developing pupils' competencies of interaction, interpretation and production that enhance all areas of the language through six graded units:

Each unit is structured as follows:

- Presentation of the project outcome ;

In **Part One** the sequences are as follows:

1. LISTEN AND CONSIDER

2. READ AND CONSIDER

They contain the following rubrics:

✓ **Language outcomes** (stating the linguistic objectives of every sequence)

✓ **Getting started:** The aim of this rubric is to introduce pupils to the topic through activating and accessing their prior knowledge as they first consider the thematic

pictures, discuss the topic with their peers and answer comprehension questions. It also prepares them to the next phase.

- ✓ **Let's hear it** (for the **Listen-and-consider** sequence)
- ✓ **Taking a closer look** (for the **Read-and-consider** sequence)
- ✓ **Around the text** (comprising grammar vocabulary ,pronunciation and spelling tasks related to the topic explored in the sequence.
- ✓ **Think, pair, share:** A rubric that trasfers the learnt items in the sequence into a written essay.

Part Two contains two other sequences:

3. LISTENING AND SPEAKING

4. READING AND WRITING

These two sequences are, also, patterned in a more or less similar way, and are subdivided into the following rubrics:

- ✓ **Skills and strategies outcomes** : This section states the communicative objectives of the unit .
- ✓ **Before listening** / **reading** : through this rubric the pupils are made prepared to understand an aural or reading text relying on activities that help them to predict the content.
- ✓ **As you listen / read :** A section where the pupils listen to the teacher or read the text and try to confirm or disconfirm the predictions made in the previous rubric.
- ✓ **After listening / reading :** This post lesson stage enbables the pupils to shape their understanding of the text and offers a variety of tasks to practise the speaking, reading and writing. skills
- ✓ **Say it in writing / writing development :** An importantg section that develops the pupils' skill of writing

Part Two ends up with the project outcomes.

1.4.5 Factors Causing EFL Failure in the Algerian Secondary School

In the Algerian school, the implementation of English language learning has been projected to develop pupils' linguistic competencies and initiate them to the challenges of 21st century education requirements. However, such an implementation did not accomplish the desired goals due to a variety of factors that have affected the teaching and learning of foreign

languages in the Algerian context. The following section will be devoted to discuss some of these difficulties that hinder the English language teaching in the Algerian secondary schools.

1.4.5.1 EFL Teachers Far away from Decision Making

Teachers are having the substantial responsibility of the teaching / learning situation in the classroom. Founding on this assumption, the teachers are the most qualified to put forward the strategic models of learning as they are the field practitioners. They are able to foresee all potential inhibitions to the learning process. If given enough freedom to participate in decision making, they would decide upon which learning method and strategy to apply for each specific level and stream. Nonetheless, this is not the case for the Algerian teachers as far as the Algerian school reforms are concerned. The teachers are just presented with the final framework to be applied. The ministerial recommendations require, then, short-term training to the teachers so as to be explained the overall reforms and general headlines of the approaches to be put into field practice as soon as possible. The 2016 '*second generation'* reforms are a very explicit example of such practices. A great majority of teachers have complained about the fact that they do not have any ideas about the intended objectives of the new elaborated text books nor their eventual field practice.

1.4.5.2 Pupils' Needs and Teaching Practices

As explained previously, every instructional level in the national educational system has been assigned clear objectives as well as definite pupils' entry and exit profiles. Such a practice specifies the potential needs of pupils at each stage of their learning process and the proposed teaching strategies to meet these needs. Seen under this perspective, the overall insight seems ideal, yet, an examination of the learning reality reveals that, actually, pupils come to the classroom to receive excerpts of knowledge, memorize them, and then replicate them in exams. Hence, both teachers and learners are urged to agree upon mutual bases that define common needs and interest in attending an EFL classroom as well as the most adequate means to satisfy these prerequisites that bring the pupils to the best of results.

1.4.5.3 Pupils' EFL Practice Opportunities

At the level of the secondary school, the teaching of English language is encountered with a number of limitations. The first is that English does not meet the same consideration by all pupils in school, especially, by those who have been streamed to scientific or technical branches due to its low coefficient and their weak linguistic background. The second relates to the teachers who find themselves under the load of a lengthy programme that gives no break for both the teacher and learners to pause and make a cumulative assessment of what have been learnt during the various didactic units. Furthermore, the Algerian schools are characterized by large classes of about 40 pupils for each class. Therefore, the immediate challenge, for teachers, is to face problems in allocating tasks, giving feedback, setting up communicative assignments as well as paying attention to classroom management. The third limitation is that most of the pupils are not familiar with English. They argue that they do not understand as long as all English lessons are taught, solely, in English without any use of translations namely in Arabic. They, also, feel quite distressed when using English for communicative purposes as its practice is too limited in the Algerian context, particularly, in rural areas. It is more related to classroom setting where the practical opportunities usually take form of written or oral assignments. The EFL teachers are quite aware of their learners' limited opportunities of language practice. For such an issue, they try to motivate them through suggesting different strategies of learning that can facilitate the practice of the target language outside the classroom.

1.4.5.4 Learning Assessment in the Algerian EFL Classroom

Both the teaching and learning processes go hand in hand with the procedures of evaluation and assessment. No progress can be reported in the EFL classroom without effective mechanisms of assessment. The common means of evaluating the pupils' progression, throughout the school year and all along the different didactic units , are clearly presented in the official syllabus. They are set as follows:

➢ **Diagnostic assessment:** It is a quite efficient tool for the EFL teachers, if used appropriately, to detect their pupils' weak points, right from the beginning of the school year. They can, therefore, try to elaborate remedies to enhance their pupils' level and improve their language learning.

➢ **Formative** *assessment:* It includes all means that EFL teachers use to gather information about their pupils' learning in order to improve instruction. They rely on:

- **The unit's assessment rubric:** In the newly designed textbooks, assessment is a basic stage. It is a fundamental part of the learning and teaching processes. It is set at the end of every single unit of the syllabus. It is an effective medium to help the pupils to elaborate a self-evaluation of their learning and enable them to transfer their acquired linguistic knowledge into the real world.

- **Pupils' oral performance in class:** Assessment, also, includes more informal indicators of pupils' progress. Their oral performance is a newly included mark in the overall English average at the end of the term. It evaluates their participation in the daily assignments. In addition, all pupils' group work, during the elaboration of the project outcome, is assessed by both the teacher and their peers.

➢ **Overall Assessment***:* It is an integral part of the evaluation mechanisms in each school. It is aimed at recording the general level and progression of the pupils during the three terms of the school year. The EFL pupils are assigned one formal test (for scientific and technological streams) and two tests (for the language and social studies streams) besides a final examination at the end of every term.

All such methods of evaluation and assessment are directed towards improving the teachers' strategies of teaching and the pupils' levels of language learning, yet, the sole focus on reading and written tasks, in preparation to the Baccalaureate exam, incite the pupils to neglect the listening and speaking skills of the language and concentrate on written exams and marks.

1.4.5.5 Pupils' Age and School Grade

The secondary school pupils meet difficulties in becoming proficient at the English subject. They show a general decline in motivation for foreign language learning as they advance in school grades (Kaplan & Maehr, 2002). There are several factors that are responsible for this turndown. Adolescents develop new interests of social nature. They, themselves, report that classes are boring and subjects are complex and uninteresting, resulting in a certain devaluation of learning and consequent demotivation (Vallerand, Fortier & Guay, 1997).

1.4.5.6 Pupils' Psychology

The psychological dimension has an important role in the language learning process. It diverges between positive facets such as motivation and constructive attitude and negative ones such as anxiety and depression. There is an agreement among language researchers that motivation is the primary motive leading learners to be autonomous and creative. In contrast, anxiety and depression may result in the delay of the learning process development. The secondary education level is a fertile context for adolescent learners' depression and anxious attitude for they feel that they are neither able to execute tasks at ease nor to behave in a normal way due to the school year ceaseless requirements and loads. Anxiety eliminates any attempt or opportunity to achieve two main factors to language learning success: Self-confidence and self-esteem.

1.4.5.7 Pupils' Beliefs and Attitudes towards Learning English

Gardner and Lambert (1959) affirmed that attitudes and beliefs can affect pupils' success in the learning of the target language. These attitudes, despite their type, have different sources that relate to the learners and their surroundings.

In relation to the Algerian context, the pupils develop their primary attitudes and beliefs towards English in their family environment. It is their parents who either motivate them to master the target language through positive attitudes or discourage them doing so through negative ones.

Other attitudes are formed in the learning setting where the pupils find support from their EFL teachers and peers. In fact, there are different teaching strategies that engage the pupils in meaningful learning situations. In this sense, the pupils construct a positive learning experience once they are communicated constructive expectations. They may develop positive self-perceptions concerning their abilities to learn the target language with more confidence and ease. In contrast, they may be marked by unconstructive learning experiences and, thus, conceive a negative attitude towards the target language.

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1.4.5.8 Teaching / Learning Setting

English language learning is most related to the teaching/learning setting that influences the classroom performance of both the teacher and pupils. Such influential factors may include:

➢ Overcrowded classrooms that impede EFL teachers' role in supervising and monitoring instruction.

➢ Poor teaching materials that rely on traditional methods and are still confined to the board and the textbook.

➢ Lack of teacher training that helps to apprehend the current approach

➢ Absence of correlation between teaching practices and learners' needs

Indeed, it is almost challenging to achieve an ideal teaching/learning setting. A well supervised and equipped EFL setting can, surely, help learners to achieve their goals and succeed in acquiring the target language.

1.5 Research Design and Methodology

This research study is aimed at identifying the relationship between secondary school adolescents' self-perceptions and their motivational orientations relating to their EFL academic achievement. The intent of this section is to describe the proposed methodology for such a research work. It includes a description of the study setting, research design, study sample, and proposed data collection methods, procedures, and statistical methods used for data analysis.

1.5.1 Research Design

The proposed case study employs a sequential explanatory mixed methods design to address the research questions. This design consists of two distinct interactive phases "*allowing quantitative methods to respond to qualitative conclusions, or vice versa"* in such a way that *"makes the link between purpose, questions, and methods stronger, and thereby increases validity*" (Crain-Dorough, 2009: 197) .Thus, this design proposes to examine the nature of relation that exists between adolescents' academic self-concept, motivational orientations, and academic achievement.

1.5.2 The Setting of the Study

The study is conducted at Benahmed   Bekhedda secondary school in Zemmora, in the wilaya of Relizane. The school comprises 24 pedagogical units with over 50 teachers in different subjects. Currently, the school employs five EFL teachers for over 600 pupils ranged from year one to year three. The school lacks materials for reference and self-study. There is a school library but there are few books for reference. Moreover, some facilities needed for learning such as computers, library internet and data shows are insufficient.

1.5.3 Sample Population

The sample population of the study comprises secondary school adolescents and their EFL teachers.

1.5.3.1 Pupils' Profile

The target participants, addressed in this study, are 87 informants issued from the 1st, 2nd and 3rd secondary school literary class study levels within the age range of 16-20. 60% of the participants live in Zemmora while the other 40% come from the neighbouring rural areas. The adolescent pupils, actually, are following their study at Benahmed Bekhedda secondary school in Zemmora. They represent the secondary education level, a terminal stage that engenders important decision-making for future expectations and professional careers.

1.5.3.2 EFL Teachers' Profile

This study includes four EFL teachers (1 male and 3 females) teaching at Benahmed Bekhedda secondary school. One teacher holds a 'Licence' degree in English while the three others hold a Master degree in English didactics. They are in charge of the three levels: First year, second year, and third year in all streams. All teachers are full time teachers with varying experience ranging from seven to twenty four years. The choice to include the EFL teachers, as participants in this case study, comes to crosscheck the adolescent pupils' responses to the different survey questionnaires as well as to their opinions and beliefs expresses during the different focus group sessions.

1.5.4 Sampling Procedure

Two major sampling techniques are used in the current case study. A purposive sampling technique is employed to select a representative sample of the subjects in this study among the secondary school population. The technique, also called judgment sampling, is described as the deliberate choice of an informant due to his/her qualities (Bernard, 2002). The second technique employs the stratified random sampling technique. It is a process of sampling in which each subgroup called strata is given equal chance to be selected randomly. It gives equal proportionate representation to each stratum (Dörnyei, 2007). Among nine pedagogical units, representing the different strata in our case, three pedagogical groups are chosen randomly. They embody the 1st, 2nd and 3rd secondary school class study levels within the age range of 16-20.

1.5.5   Data Collection Tools

Data collection goes through two main phases:

A/ First Phase: Quantitative Data Collection

To obtain more reliable answers to the study problematic, two questionnaires are used for quantitative data collection to measure one independent variable, one dependent variable, and two mediator variables. These are outlined as follows:

Independent Variable: *Academic self-concept*. It is measured using items drawn from the *'Self-Description Questionnaire'* (*SDQ-II*; Marsh, 1992).

Dependent Variable: *Academic achievement*. It is measured through the pupils' average scores in the examinations during the school year, collected from school records.

Mediator variables – In addition to the two main variables of the study, two mediator variables are considered. They are: *motivation* and *school engagement*. Both are measured through '*Academic Motivation Scale*:'–high school version (AMS; Vallerand et al., 1992). This instrument is divided into three subscales, reflecting amotivation, extrinsic motivation, and intrinsic motivation.

B/ Second Phase: Qualitative Data Collection

The study employs a semi-structured focus group interview for the qualitative data collection. Separate focus group samples will be drawn from the secondary school pupils'

sample. They are representing the 1st, 2nd and 3rd secondary school class levels. This data collection method, consisting of a semi-structured group interview process, is mainly employed to ''*encourage interaction among participants. It enhances the quality of the data, and elicits the student perspective''* (Barbour, 2005). Focus groups have, also, been suggested as an appropriate methodology with children and adolescent research participants, who may be reluctant to engage in conversation in individual interviews (Jamieson et al., 2002).

The EFL teachers' interview sessions intend to investigate their perceptions of the most efficient teaching strategies that are directed to motivate their pupils and change their attitudes towards learning the target language as to raise their self-concept and self-esteem in order to achieve better academic outcomes.

These tools are carried out in such a way to collect the necessary quantitative and qualitative data to contribute to a better understanding of the theoretical framework (see Figure 1.2):

DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

FIRST PHASE

SECOND PHASE

QUANTITATIVE DATA

QUALITATIVE DATA

| **Questionnaire (A) for Pupils** *Self-Description Questionnaire'* (***SDQ-II***; Marsh, 1992). | **Questionnaire (B) For Pupils** *Academic Motivation Scale*:'– high school version (AMS; Vallerand et al., 1992) | **Focus Group** A semi-structured group interview investigating adolescents' self-concept | **EFL Teachers' Interview** To investigate the most efficient techniques to boost pupils' English self-concept |

Figure 1.2: Data Collection Instruments.

1.5.6 Data Collection Procedure

The two survey questionnaires are delivered to the adolescent pupils in secondary school setting by the researcher, himself, who distributes and collects the completed instruments. To assure the adolescents' best understanding of what is required from them, the

questionnaires are written in English and explained in Arabic, step by step, to guarantee a maximum of cooperation and valid answers.

The secondary school adolescents' semi-structured group interviews are carried out in several sessions along the different terms of the school year. Pupils' scores in the different exams, along the school year, are reported from school records to allow the evaluation of their achievements in English learning and overall school subjects.

It is worth mentioning that all these research instruments are administered in the secondary school setting along the second and third terms of the school year 2017-2018.

1.5.7 Data Analysis

The survey questionnaires, completed by the respondents, will be coded according to (male/female; high /moderate /low achievement groups), then, analysed descriptively. According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2003), a descriptive statistics is a statistical technique that is used to analyse data by describing or summarizing the data from a sample. It is a technique that, basically, uses words, numbers, graphs or charts to show existing pattern or relationship. The Likert-type scale helps to present the analysed data using the frequency tables, means, and simple percentages. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (*SPSS*) version 19.0 will analyse the quantitative data from pupils' self-concept and motivation questionnaires. The first descriptive analysis will be performed to compute means and percentages of the pupils' academic self-concept, the second will employ the comparative descriptive analysis of data to evaluate the existing correlation between pupils' self-concept and motivation scales and their academic attainment as well as to assess gender differences on the pupils' motivational orientations and achievement. A qualitative analytic method will be used to examine the research data from the focus group. It is a thematic analysis, "*a process of segmentation, categorization, and relinking of aspects of the data prior to final interpretation*‖ (Grbich, 2007:16). It intends to interpret the major influence of self-concept and motivation on pupils' attitudes towards the target language and school engagement.

1.6 Conclusion

The current chapter was an attempt to go through the different components constituting the learning situation and investigation plan of the present study. It started by examining the status of English as a universal language and the direct repercussions of such a

global status to induce new reforms on the educational system of every country. It tried to explain the Algerian choice to adopt English as a second foreign language and efforts to adjust its educational EFL policy to concord with the new requirements of globalization. The fact that is, clearly, expressed through the educational reforms that the Algerian ministry of education started by the year 2003 and carried over a decade. New curricular approaches have been adopted in its educational system to meet the needs of the Algerian learners and enable them to establish clear links between what they, actually, learn in school and what they face in their daily lives. The chapter tried to uncover the many variables affecting the teaching and learning of the English language in Algeria, stressing, in particular, some of the most pertinent aspects and characteristics of adolescence. It shed light on the situation of Algerian adolescent pupils during their secondary education. It presented an overview on the position of the Algerian adolescents regarding the global challenges and their self-related perceptions of school and learning. In all, the chapter was meant to back up the present case study with a solid background that would pave the way to the following chapters.

CHAPTER TWO

Chapter Two

Theoretical Background on the 'Self' and Motivation Research

Chapter Two **_____** Theoretical Background on the 'Self' and Motivation Research

2.1 Introduction

Academic achievement has always been the subject of consideration of educationists and educational psychologists. A better understanding of the learning mechanisms has set up the core concern of researchers in a serious attempt to help learners to achieve satisfactory academic outcomes. It has been essential, then, to apprehend and explain the occurrence of learning, identify the major factors inhibiting this process, and thus, overcome learning difficulties to improve academic attainment.

Underachievement, in school setting, has been attributed to a multitude of factors including pupils' cognitive skills, relational variables, socio-economic status, and their performance in school setting. There is no doubt that these external factors are more likely to shape academic achievement, yet, a range of other internal factors have to be considered as well. Accordingly, contemporary psychological research has shown growing interest in the study of affective variables such as motivation, self-concept and related constructs. It was only three decades ago that these concepts began to be systematically investigated from social, psychological and educational viewpoints. This special interest has emerged out of the potential implications that internal factors such as academic self-concept and motivation can have on pupils' academic success. A great deal of those investigations focused on the domain of foreign language learning motivation. Such an inquiry increased as a direct consequence of the worldwide status that the English language has acquired during the previous decades. The educational psychologists have underlined motivation as an important variable in language acquisition.

This chapter explores the most significant theories and approaches that deal with the models of self-concept and motivation, as being the most cited factors that mark pupils' academic achievement. It studies the construct from different perspectives. The chapter presents the definitions of the terms. It examines the correlation between self-concept and the different types of motivation and academic achievement. It provides sample studies that have dealt with this relationship. It sheds light on the importance of raising pupils' academic motivation and internal interest in learning so as to achieve their pursued goals. It concentrates on the issue of academic underachievement and disinterest of pupils in school, particularly, during the period of adolescence. In all, the chapter reflects on some of the most influential factors that can affect adolescent pupils' English language learning motivation, academic self-beliefs, and school engagement.

2.2 Theoretical Background on the 'Self' Research

The notion of the *'self'* research has been a matter of interest to philosophers and psychologists for over the past decades. A great deal of debates has been engaged to examine the significance of the self-concept theory to impact on learners' academic achievement. These reflections have contributed, largely, to clarify the nature of the concept and its related constructs. For such an inquiry, it seems relevant to refer to some of the major philosophical and psychological theories of the *'self'*, over history, and identify the extent to which these studies have contributed to the contemporary research on self-concept and its implication in the academic attainment of pupils.

2.2.1 Brief Historical Development of the 'Self' Research

Bracken (1996) revealed that the first interest in *'self'* issues has existed since the time of antique philosophers in the interjection of *'know thyself'*. It was illustrated in the early works of Socrates, Plato and Aristotle. Socrates referred to the 'self' as the soul while Plato focused on the intellect and the rational part of the soul, where he tied the notion of the 'self' to cognitive principles. Aristotle, on the other hand, rejected Plato's rationalism claiming that the mind is higher than the soul, and that the mind is an independent substance implicated within the soul (Hattie, 1992).

The 'self' research, finally, started to obtain a grounded theoretical frame thanks to the pioneering works of William James (1890, 1892) who made a clear distinction between the two aspects of *'self'*: the subjective *"I"* as the knower and the empirical *"me"* as an object of self-creation which later was developed into the today's notion of self-concept (Hattie, 1992). He, also, was the first to suggest the hierarchical structure of the construct, distinguishing between three dimensions: (1) the *'material self',* being at the lowest level of the hierarchy, including body image as well as material possessions, (2) the *'social self'* comprising the characteristics given by others, and (3) the *'spiritual self'*, being on top of the hierarchy, comprising an individual's thoughts and moral judgments about him- or herself (Hattie, 1992, pp. 15–17).

Since the revolutionary works of James (1890), Cooley (1902) and Mead (1934), 'self' research has been a central theme in psychoanalysis, ego psychology, personality research, sociology and experimental social psychology. However, the established theoretical perspectives have been inaccurate, and sometimes contradictory in the use of *'self'* related

terms (Blyth & Traeger, 1983). Many researchers of this period used terms such as mind, soul and self.

Up until 1976, the *'self'* research viewed self-concept as a uni-dimensional structure and its measurement provided *"inconsistent, confounded and ambiguous results"* (Byrne & Gavin, 1996). Later, the number of theoretical models as well as self-concept measurement scales multiplied. However, the *'self'* research, at that time, was rather inconsistent in definitions and findings due to underdevelopment of the theoretical frame. As a result, most of the theories emerging from the 1950s were subject to critique. Marsh (1990a) explained:

> **The self-concept construct is one of the oldest in psychology and is used widely in many disciplines. Despite its popularity, reviews prior to the 1980s typically emphasized the lack of theoretical basis in most studies, the poor quality of measurement instruments, methodological shortcomings, and a general lack of consistent findings except, perhaps, support for the null hypothesis. This situation called into question the usefulness of the self-concept construct.** (Marsh, 1990a:77)

During the 1970s, the *'self'* research witnessed a great revolution thanks to the remarkable contribution of. Shavelson, Hubner, and Stanton (1976)'s seminal work on self-concept. The presented model was based upon an extensive review of the theoretical and empirical self-concept literature of the time. Shavelson qualified self-concept as being multifaceted, hierarchical, stable and different from other constructs (Shavelson & Bolus, 1982). The first model of Shavelson et al. (1976) was expanded by models of Song and Hattie (1984) as well as Marsh and Shavelson (1985).

The model of self-concept, developed by Shavelson et al, not only resulted in the rebirth of self-concept research but also provided a theoretical and methodological blueprint for the development and validation of several self-concept instruments (Marsh, 1990).

2.2.2 The Development of the Theoretical Frame of Self-concept

The development of the theoretical frame of self-concept has gone through a set of models that sought to explain the construct. The first models, prior to the 1980s, suggested a uni-dimensional and undifferentiated model of self-concept. Marsh (1990b) clarified, *"Prior to the 1980s, reviews of self-concept research noted a lack of theoretical models for defining and interpreting the construct and the poor quality of instruments used to assess it"* (p 623). In a serious attempt to remedy to the theoretical and methodological deficiencies, in self-concept research, other models, subsequent to the 1980s, emerged to insist on the

multidimensionality of self-concept first developed by William James' (1890) research (Bracken, 1996).

2.2.2.1 Model of Shavelson, Hubner, and Stanton (1976)

Shavelson et al. (1976) reviewed existing research along with the self-concept instruments and developed a multifaceted, hierarchical model of self-concept. According to the model, self-concept is defined by seven major features: *"**Seven features can be identified as critical to the construct definition. Self-concept may be described as: organized, multifaceted, hierarchical, stable, developmental, evaluative, and differentiable.** (Shavelson et al., 1976, cited in Marsh, 1990, pp. 83-84)*

Shavelson et al. (1976) presented their hierarchical model in which general self-concept appears at the apex and is divided into academic and non-academic self-concepts at the next level. Academic self-concept is divided into self-concepts in particular subject areas (e.g., mathematics, English). Non-academic self-concept is divided into three areas: Social self-concept, which is subdivided into relations with peers and the significant others, emotional self-concept that relates to particular emotional states, and physical self-concept, which is subdivided into physical ability and physical appearance. Further subdivisions are hypothesized so that, at the base of the hierarchy, self-concepts are of limited generality, quite specific, and closely related to actual behaviour (Marsh, 1990a:84) (see Figure 2.1)
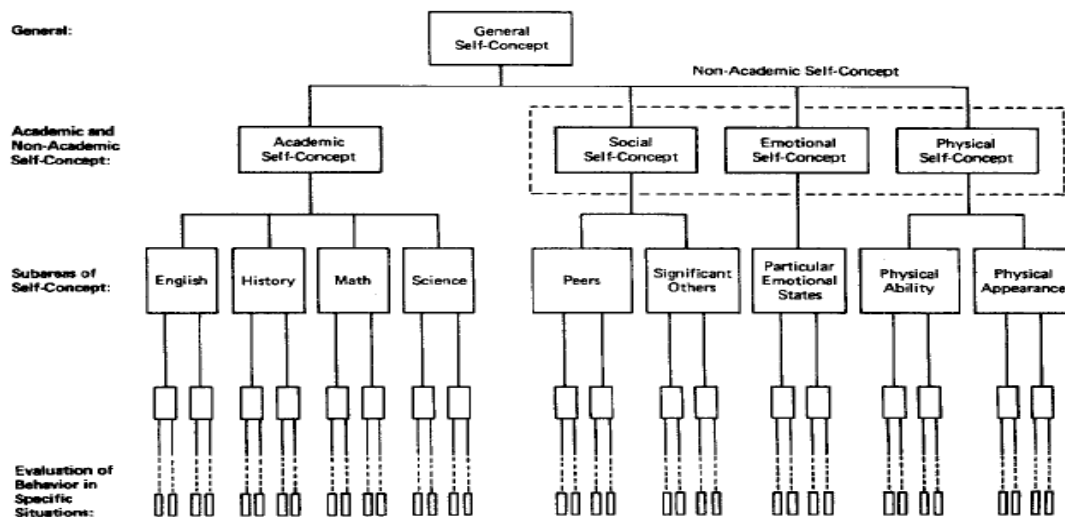
Figure 2.1: One Possible Representation of the Hierarchical Organization of Self-concept, as posited in the original model of Shavelson et al. (1976) (Marsh, 1990a:84)

Though the model contributed significantly to the self-concept research and resulted in the development of the Self-description Questionnaire (SDQ), it was found to be weak.

Marsh (1990b) advanced, ***"The self-concept facets and the structure proposed by Shavelson et al. were heuristic and plausible, but they were not validated by research in their review"***. (p.623). Commenting on this problem, Byrne (1984) noted, ***"Many consider this inability to attain discriminant validity among the dimensions of self-concept to be one of the major complexities facing self-concept researchers today"*** (pp.449-450). Marsh, Martin, and DeBus (2001), further, explained:

> **The strong hierarchical structure posited by Shavelson and colleagues required math and English self-concepts to be substantially correlated so that they could be incorporated into a single higher-order academic self-concept, but the small correlations actually observed implied that any hierarchical structure must be much weaker than anticipated.** (p. 150)

As a direct response to these appraisals, to the model of Shavelson et al.(1976), a new revision has been elaborated to generate Marsh and Shavelson's model of of academic self-concept.

2.2.2.2 Model of Marsh and Shavelson (1985)

On the basis of the existing findings of Shavelson et al's (1976) model, Marsh and Shavelson (1985) developed a more differentiated model and suggested further subdivisions of the academic portion of the original model. Marsh (1990b) clarified:

> **This final model was consistent with Shavelson et al.'s (1976) assumption that self-concept is hierarchically ordered, but the particular form of this higher order structure was more complicated than was previously proposed. This led to the Marsh/Shavelson revision of the Shavelson et al. model. The revision differs from the original Shavelson et al. model primarily in that there are two higher order academic factors, Math/ Academic and Verbal/Academic, instead of just one.** (p 623) (see Figure 2.2)
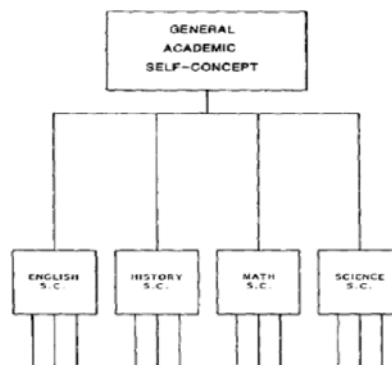
Figure 2.2: The Academic Portion of Shavelson et al's Original Model. (Marsh, 1990b: 624).

The Marsh/Shavelson model was meant to distinguish between general math and general verbal self-concepts. The domain-general academic self-concept was considered subordinate to general math and general verbal self-concepts (Brunner et al., 2010). Referring to Figure 2.3, both groups contribute to general school self-concept and are more or less related to group-specific subjects. Thus, math self-concept is represented as related to math, physical science, biological science, economics and business self-concepts as well as partially associated with geography and history self-concepts. Verbal self-concept, on the other hand, is represented as related to English, foreign languages, history and geography self-concepts and partially associated with economics and business self-concept as well as biological science self-concept. Though the model is focused rigorously on academic self-concept, it supports firmly the argument that self-concept is a complex and multifaceted construct (Hattie, 1992).
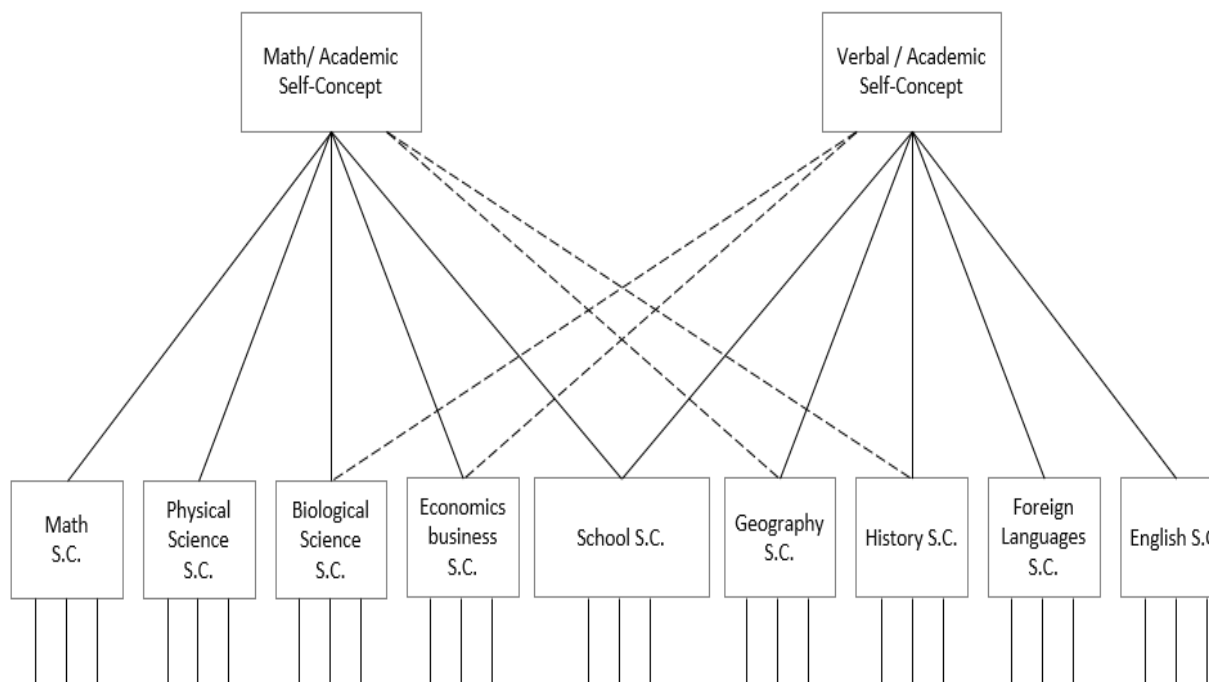
Figure 2.3: An elaboration of Marsh and Shavelson's (1985) revision (Marsh, 1990b:624).

Marsh and colleagues found that math and verbal self-concepts were nearly uncorrelated (Marsh, Byrne, & Shavelson, 1988). Therefore, Marsh (1986) developed the internal/external frame of reference (I/E) model to explain the near-zero correlation between math and verbal self-concepts.

- **The Internal/External Frame of Reference (I/E) Model (1986)**

According to the internal/external frame of reference model, the self-concepts of academic school subjects are formed in relation to two different frames of reference processes: the external and the internal frames of reference (Möller, Pohlmann, Köller, & Marsh, 2009). Within the external frame of reference, pupils compare their accomplishments in specific school subjects with the accomplishments of their peers whereas within the internal frame of reference, pupils compare their own accomplishments in one particular school subject with their accomplishments in other school subjects (Möller et al., 2009) (see Figure 2.4)
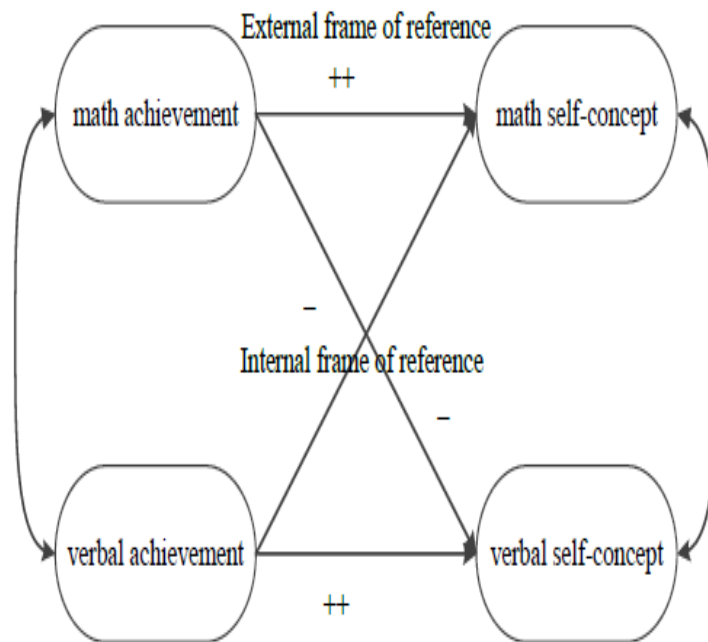
Figure 2.4: Internal/External Frame of Reference Model (Marsh & Hau, 2004)

Marsh and Hau (2004) concluded that, within the external comparison process, it was hypothesized that good math skills would lead to higher math self-concepts, and good verbal skills would lead to higher verbal self-concepts. On the other hand, the internal comparison process postulated that good math skills would lead to lower verbal self-concepts, and good verbal skills would lead to lower math self-concepts. Subsequently, Marsh proposed a frame of reference model called *'The Big-Fish-Little-Pond Effect'* (*BFLPE*) (Marsh & Parker, 1984) as a further interpretation of the external frame of reference effects in educational settings.

- **The Big-Fish-Little-Pond Effect' (BFLPE) Model (1984, 1987)**

Marsh and Parker (1984) developed *'The Big-Fish-Little-Pond Effect'* paradigm to understand the formation of ASC in school settings. They claimed that BFLPE is a hypothesized relation between academic self-concept, individual ability (or achievement), and school average ability (or achievement). According to the BFLPE model:

> **Students compare their own academic ability with the academic abilities of their peers and use this social comparison impression as one basis for forming their own academic self-concept. A negative BFLPE occurs when equally able pupils have lower academic self-concepts when they compare themselves to more able pupils and higher academic self-concepts when they compare themselves with less able students.** (Marsh, 2007:48) (see Figure 2.5)
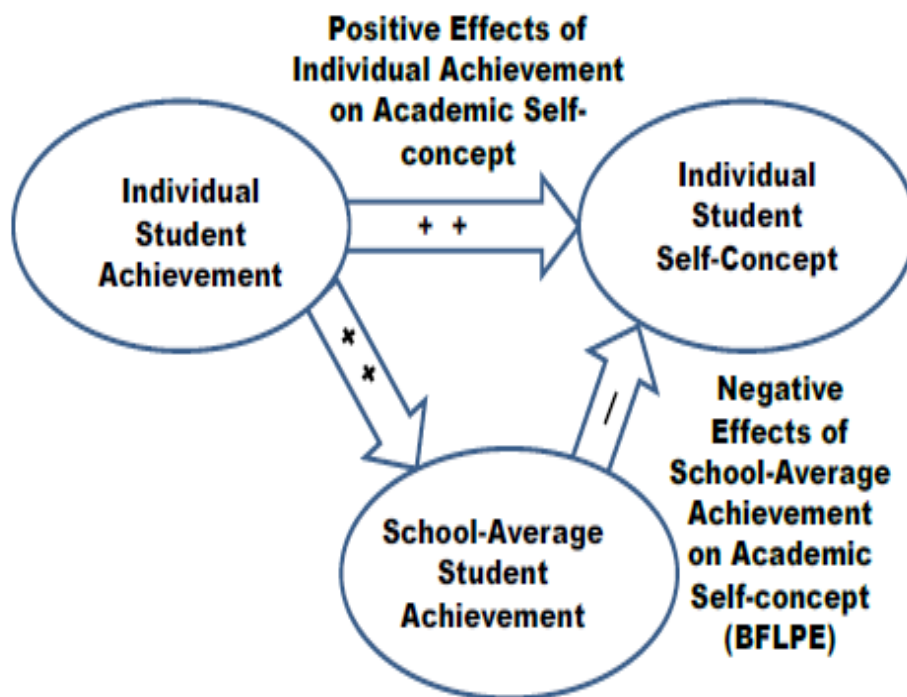
Figure 2.5: A Conceptual Model of the (BFLPE) Model (Marsh & Hau, 2003:369.)

The BFLPE model relates academic self-concept, defined as one's knowledge and perceptions about one's academic ability (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003), to individual and school or class-average achievement. The model, as shown in Figure 2.5, suggests that individual ability and academic self-concept are both positively associated with academic self-concept, but that school- and class-average ability are negatively related to academic self-concept.

According to this model, one's academic self-concept partly depends on one's own ability and partly on the ability of other pupils in one's class or school. This reference to classmates' academic achievement makes the essence of the BFLPE model, as it postulates that pupils use this frame of reference as one basis for forming their academic self-concepts (Seaton &.Craven, 2011:108). Thus the BFLPE model predicts that attending high-ability or academically selective schools has a negative effect on pupils' academic self-concepts (Seaton, Marsh, & Craven, 2010).

The BFLPE model has been critiqued for its excessive emphasis on one aspect of social comparison and exclusion of other intervening factors. Dai and Rinn (2008) appraised the BFLPE in terms of its theory, methods, and empirical findings. They contended one of the most problematic aspects of the BFLPE paradigm stating, ***"the BFLPE reflects only part of a much larger picture of how individuals make social comparisons in academic settings***" (Dai and Rinn, 2008).

- **The Dimensional Comparison Theory Model (2013)**

Following the process of development, Möller and Marsh (2013) extended the I/E model to incorporate a more general theoretical framework. The theoretical founding was referred to as Dimensional Comparison Theory (DCT). Möller and Marsh proposed an additional comparison process, dimensional comparisons, in addition to the two frames of reference for forming self-perceptions: Temporal comparisons (how current accomplishments compare with past performances) and social comparisons (comparison with the accomplishments of others in one's immediate context; e.g., classmates in one's school or class). They emphasized, ***"Although social comparison and temporal comparison theories are well established, dimensional comparison is a largely neglected yet influential process in self-evaluation"*** (p. 544, cited in Marsh, Kuyper et al., 2014)*.* The DCT is based on how accomplishments in one domain compare with those in different domains. They theorized that DCT predicts strong contrast effects only for contrasting domains that are at opposite ends of the theoretical continuum of ASC (e.g., the negative effect of math achievement on VSC), but much weaker negative contrast or even positive assimilation effects for complementary domains that are close to each other (e.g., positive effects of math achievement on physics self-concept; positive effects of native language on foreign language self-concept). (Möller & Marsh 2013, cited in Marsh et al, 2014, pp. 327-328) (see Figure 2.6).
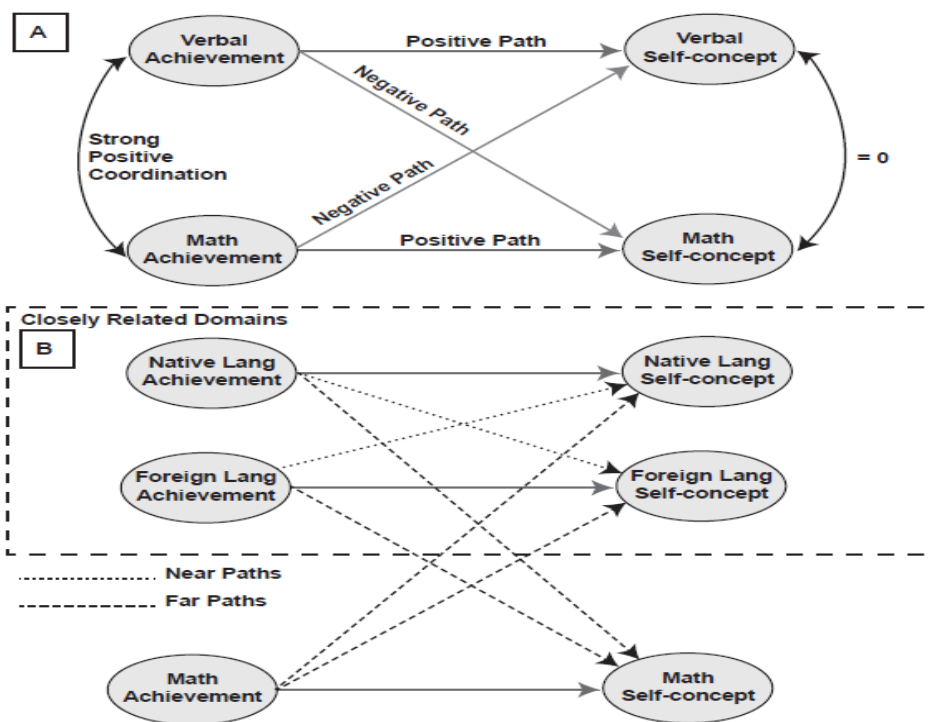
Figure 2.6: Juxtaposing the Internal/External Frame of Reference (I/E) Model (**A**) and the Dimensional Comparison Theory (DCT) Model (**B**). (Marsh, et al., 2016).

Recent studies (e.g. Marsh, Kuyper et al., 2014; Jansen et al., 2015; Marsh, Lüdtke et al., 2015) have been designed to test DCT theoretical predictions based on a comprehensive range of academic domains. Marsh et al, (2016) explained:

> **All these studies provide clear support for the critical prediction that paths from achievement to ASC, based on near comparisons, were less negative than those based on far comparisons. These results have important implications for theory, research, and practice..** (Marsh et al, 2016)

The findings of these studies have extended self-concept theory and provided firm foundations for further research.

2.2.2.3 Model of Song and Hattie (1984)

Song and Hattie (1984) developed another model exploring the relationships between the various facets of self-concept and academic achievement. They included social factors into the model. As displayed in Figure 2.7, general self-concept is subdivided into: academic

self-concept, social self-concept, and presentation of self. The academic self-concept further is split into: achievement, ability, and classroom self-concepts, the social self-concept comprises peers and family self-concepts while presentation of self relates to physical self-concept and confidence in self. In a sub-order, ability and achievement self-concepts symbolize the perceptions of achievement in particular subject areas (e.g., mathematics, language, social studies and natural science) the fact that reflects the causal ordering in the relationship between self-concept and achievement. The nature of this association will be tackled, extensively, in section 2.2.7.3.
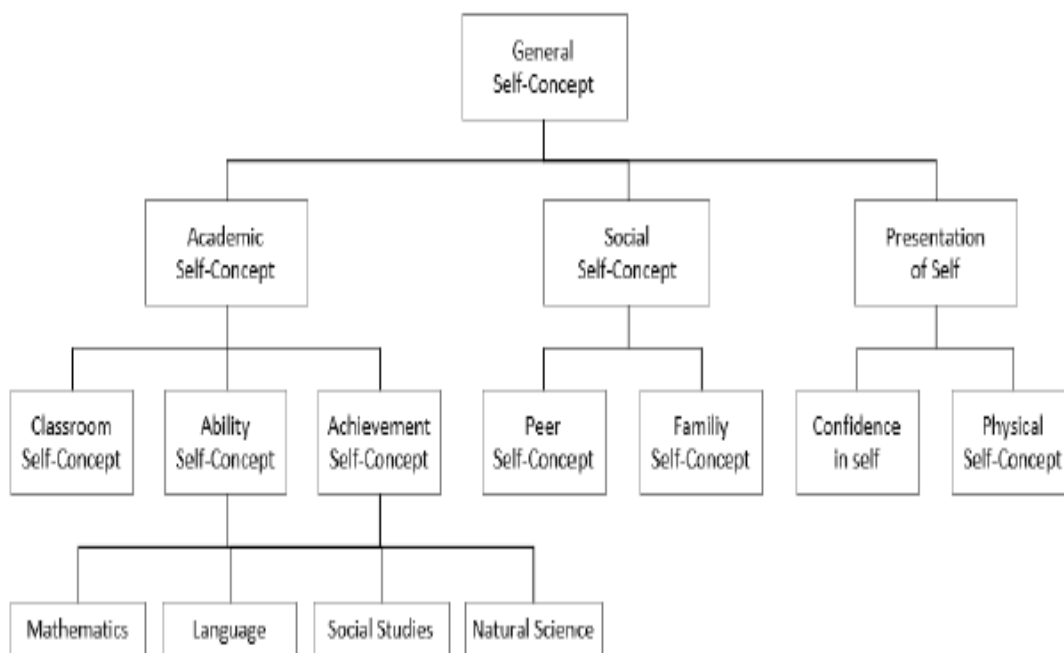
Figure 2.7: The Structure of Self-concept according to Song and Hattie (Song & Hattie, 1984:1270)

Commenting on the empirical bases of the above mentioned models, Hattie (1992) concluded that differences between the model of Song and Hattie (1984) and that by Shavelson et al. (1976) were rather small while the revision performed by Marsh and Shavelson's (1985) model were necessary for improving the original model.

Currently, advances in the research methods, related to the self-concept construct, have contributed to the elaboration of stronger theoretical models, improved methodology, and the invention of psychometrically sound instruments of self-concept measurement (Marsh & Köller, 2003).

2.2.2.4 The MSCS Hierarchical, Multidimensional Model of Self-concept (1992)

Since the seminal work of Shavelson et al. (1976), self-concept has become widely accepted as a multidimensional construct. Bracken (1992) proposed six specific domains: social, competence, affect, physical, academic, and family. These domains have gained common acceptance as foundational domain-specific self-concepts (see Figure 2.8).

Figure 2.8: Multidimensional Self-Concept according to Bracken's (1992) MSCS Hierarchical Model (Bracken, 2009:92)

In Bracken's (1992) Venn diagram, as illustrated in Figure 2.7, the MSCS hierarchical, multidimensional model of self-concept is represented with global self-concept shown at the centre and six context-dependent domains overlying with the centre, contributing to global self-concept but remaining relatively independent. The six important context-dependent domains are largely independent but overlap with the other domains to create subdomains (Bracken, 1992, cited in Bracken, 2009:92). The six self-concept domains, as defined by Bracken (2009) are: *academic self-concept (*how a person feels about himself or herself within a school or academic setting), *affect self-concept (*different affective states experienced by the individual), *competence self-concept* (a person's evaluation of his or her ability to get their basic needs), *family self-concept (*how people feel about themselves as members of a family), *physical self-concept* (how a person feels about himself or herself as a physical person. This includes one's physical appearance, health and physical limitations, and prowess), and *social self-concept* (how a person feels about his or her ability to interact with others, participate socially, and be accepted within social settings) (pp. 92-93).

2.2.3 The definition of Self-concept

Current researchers in both educational and developmental psychology have long been interested in the *'self'* research for adolescent learners and its possible correlation to their academic success. Despite the great amount of literature that has been devoted to it, it is difficult to find a universally granted definition of the term. Each of the studies elaborated during the past decades have attempted to define the concept separately and more distinctively. This section proposes to list some of the most agreed upon definitions of self-concept used in contemporary literature.

Purkey (1970) defined the 'self' as "*a complex and a dynamic system of beliefs which an individual holds true about himself, each belief with a corresponding value*" (p.7). Accordingly, Rosenberg (1979, cited in Bong & Skaalvik, 2003) designated self-concept as being *" the totality of the individual's thoughts and feelings having reference to himself as an object"* (p. 7). In an attempt to amalgamate operational definitions of self-concept studies, Shavelson et al. (1976) identified 17 conceptual definitions in their meta-analysis. They provided a definition of self-concept that forms the theoretical foundation of contemporary self-concept research. They stated:

> **In very broad terms, self-concept is a person's perception of himself. . . . We do not claim an entity within a person called "self-concept." Rather, we claim that the construct is potentially important and useful in explaining and predicting how one acts. One's perceptions of himself are thought to influence the ways in which, he acts, and his acts in turn influence the ways in which he perceives himself."** (p 411)

Similarly, Marsh and Shavelson (1985) extended, further, the definition of self-concept to include the role of environment and significant others to shape individuals' perceptions *"that are formed through experience with and interpretations of one's environment. They are influenced by evaluations by significant others, reinforcements, and attributions for one's own behaviour"* (p.107). In concordance with the definition of Marsh and Shavelson, Bracken (1992) considered self-concept as *"a multidimensional and context-dependent learned behavioural pattern that reflects an individual's evaluation of past behaviours and experiences, influences an individual's current behaviours, and predicts an individual's future behaviours"* (p.10). Stedman's Medical Dictionary (2004) characterized self-concept as *"the product of one's reflectivity; it is concept of the individual of himself as a physical, social and moral and existing being"*. In sum, self-concept is the person's

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perceptions of him or herself. It is multidimensional, hierarchal, and multifaceted. It is not innate but rather constructed by the individual through interaction with the environment.

The research on the 'self' and related topics has resulted in a large amount of definitions, a huge body of related constructs and theories as well as measurement instruments.

2.2.4 The Structure of Self-concept

Self-concept consists of academic, social, physical and transpersonal self-concepts (Huitt, 2004). In the model of Shavelson et al. (1976), general self- concept is represented as divided into academic and non-academic self-concepts (see Figure 2.9):

A Model of General Self- Concept
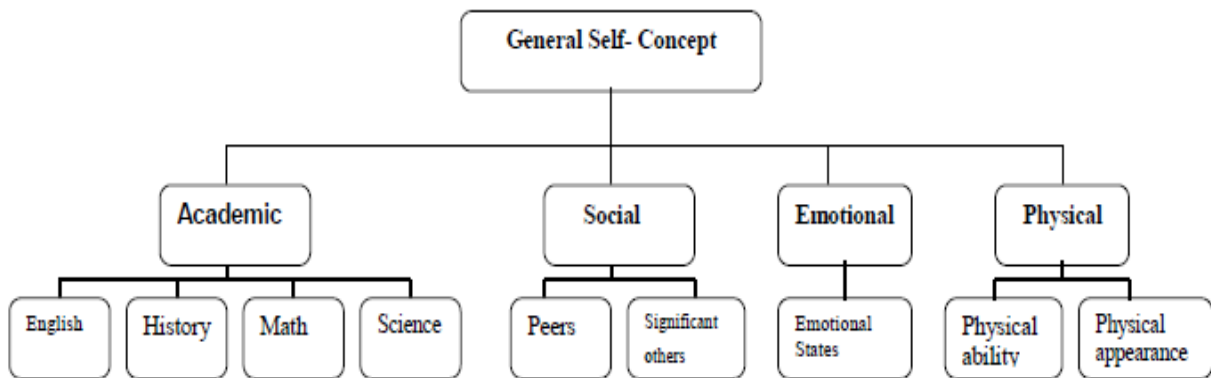
Figure 2.9: A Model of General Self-concept according to Shavelson et al.(1976), cited in Hattie, 1992)

The general self-concept is composed of four self-concept domains: the academic, social, emotional and physical self-concepts. The academic self-concept is divided, further, into second order specific subject self-concepts such as English, History, Mathematics, and Science. Social self-concept, on the other hand, covers peer and significant others self-concepts. Emotional self-concept refers to specific emotional states. Finally, the physical self-concept consists of physical ability and physical appearance self-concepts

2.2.4.1 Academic Self-concept (ASC)

Academic self-concept is an important component of the general self-concept. It is defined as the perception and evaluation that a pupil has or does about his or her academic

abilities. For Brunner (2010), academic self-concept refers to mental representations of one's abilities within school or academic settings, or in relation to one's academic progress (Brunner et al., 2010). The recent studies on academic self-concept have reinforced the theory that it constitutes one of the most important variables in the academic domain, due to its significant influence on academic achievement, and expectations of pupils. Additionally, it helps to create various cognitive and self-regulative strategies which reflect on academic performance (Zimmerman, 2000; Schunk & Pajares, 2009).

Academic self-concept is a construct that comprises cognitive, affective and behavioural components. The cognitive aspect of the pupils' self-concept reflects their perceptions and beliefs about their abilities in an academic domain. The evaluative component on the other hand, known as self-esteem, reflects the pupils' appraisal and emotional assessment of their abilities, and the behavioural aspect of pupils' self-concept, known as self-efficacy, consists of their self-representation of successful performance in a particular scholastic ability domain (Dermitzaki & Efklides, 2000).

Many empirical studies have stressed the major differences between pupils with high academic self-concept and those with low academic self-concept. Pupils with high academic self-concept value their own abilities, accept challenges, take risks, and try new things (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003). Moreover, they possess a higher motivation to complete difficult academic tasks and set higher goals (Pintrich et al, 1993). In this sense, most pupils with high academic performance show high academic self-concept (Schunk et al, 2005). Pupils showing low academic self-concept exhibit less confidence in their academic aptitudes. They undervalue their talents and avoid situations that cause anxiety (Ommundsen et al., 2005). They have less cognitive and motivational resources than pupils with positive self-concept, the fact that is reflected on low academic performance (Möller, & Pohlman, 2010). Consequently, it is very important to take into account the perception and evaluation that an adolescent has or does in relation to his/her abilities in order to measure his or her academic self-concept and scholastic achievement.

While general self-concept is not necessarily related to academic development, academic self-concept is an important determinant of positive educational outcomes, such as effort, aspirations and academic achievement (Green et al., 2006; Green, Liem, et al., 2012; Yeung, 2011).

2.2.4.2 Social Self-concept

Vast arrays of definitions have been proposed to delineate social self-concept. Brewer (1991) termed it as *"involving the extension of the self beyond the level of the individual"* (p.476) and as *"a sense of self related to others"* (Brewer & Gardner, 1996). The social self-concept is often related to social categories. It underlines the connection of the self to the social world. It *"depersonalizes the self-concept whereby 'I' becomes 'we'"* (Brewer 1991:476). Byrne and Shavelson (1996) expounded that a global social self-concept splits hierarchically into two major facets: Social self-concept as it relates to the family (parents, brothers, sisters) and social self-concept as it relates to the school environment (same sex and opposite sex peers and teachers).

In educational setting, the development of a positive academic self-concept is compatible with the development of a positive social self-concept. In this perspective, social self-concept reflects the degree to which adolescent learners consider their academic effectiveness along with the tight feeling that they are accepted, respected and appreciated by others. "*Important developmental tasks of adolescents are to build up positive relationships with peers and a commitment towards academic goals*" (Fend, 2005, cited in Preckel et al,, 2013). Learners who perceive themselves as more accepted by others, especially peer groups, are also more likely to perceive themselves as more socially skilled (Berndt & Burgy, 1996).

2.2.4.3 Physical Self-Concept

The physical aspect of self-concept relates to concrete physical characteristics such as gender, height, and weight (Huitt, 2004). Shavelson et al (1976) defined it as *"a person's perceptions of himself formed through experience and interpretations of his environment related to his physical domain"*.

The psychological effects of individuals' physical self-concept and their implications on their subsequent behaviour have been the major concern of psychologists during the late decades. A positive physical self-concept develops in an individual who has a positive perception of his corporal ability. Mwamwenda (1995) clarified that the reactions to the physical attributes such as appearance, body size, maturity and activities dependent on physical skills will influence the self-concept.

Physical self-concept is part of general self-concept. It comprises physical ability and physical appearance self-concepts. According to Carl Rogers (1959), the self-concept has

three different components: (1) the view one has of himself (***Self-image***), (2) how much value one places on himself (***Self-esteem or self-worth***), and (3) what one wishes he was really like (***Ideal self***). The adolescents' physical self-image is based on their perception of the norms that are accepted as the standard by their peer group.

2.2.5 Self-Concept and Related Self-Belief Constructs

There has been much debate over the relative merits of the array of terms such as self-esteem, self-concept and self-confidence as well as other expressions related to the self (Leather. 2013). According to Mruk (2006), "***the many terms used lead to confusion and definitional chaos. There is so much variation that defining the self involves entering a "definitional maze" that causes considerable confusion***" (Mruk, 2006:10, cited in Leather. 2013). Shavelson et al. (1976) criticized research associated with self-concept studies because of the lack of consistency. They stated that the definitions of self-concept are imprecise and vary from one study to the next (p. 408).

Researchers have conceptualized self-belief constructs (e.g., self-concept, self-esteem, self-efficacy, self-confidence, competency) in different ways and from a variety of theoretical perspectives. Marsh et al (2003) stated:

> **In the social sciences, particularly in the motivation and self-belief areas, researchers tend to focus on their preferred constructs, paying relatively little attention to testing how (or if) they differ from other constructs. This leads to jingle-jangle fallacies** (Marsh, Craven, Hinkley, & Debus, 2003),

Hattie (1992) stated that some authors used self-concept and the related constructs interchangeably, using synonymously such notions as: **"*self, self-estimation, self-identity, self-image, self-perception, self-consciousness, self-imaginary and self-awareness*"**. When it comes to self-esteem, another list of terms emerges, including **"*self-regard, self-reverence, self-accepting, self-respect* and *self-worth, self-feeling* and *self-evaluation***" (Hattie, 1992, p. viii, cursive in original). This confusion often results in a wide range of correlation results between self-concept and other constructs. Table 2.1 represents a classification of self and self-related constructs:

'Finding out' about self	Evaluation of self	Development of self
Self-awareness	Self-confidence	Self-development
Self-discovery	Self-assurance	Self-realisation
Self-knowledge	Self-esteem	Self-actualisation
Self-confrontation	Self-respect	Self-discipline
	Self-worth	Self-help
		Self-expression

Table 2.1: Classification of Self and Self-Related Constructs (Royce, 1987).

For the sake of bringing more directness to the study, the following section attempts to clarify the distinction between some of these different 'self' related terms and their relationship to self-concept.

2.2.5.1 Self-esteem

In psychological literature, the term self-esteem has been often used as synonym to self-concept, self-confidence as well as self-efficacy. Shavelson et al's multidimensional and hierarchical model of self-concept (1976) termed global self-concept and self-esteem interchangeably (see Figure 2.10):
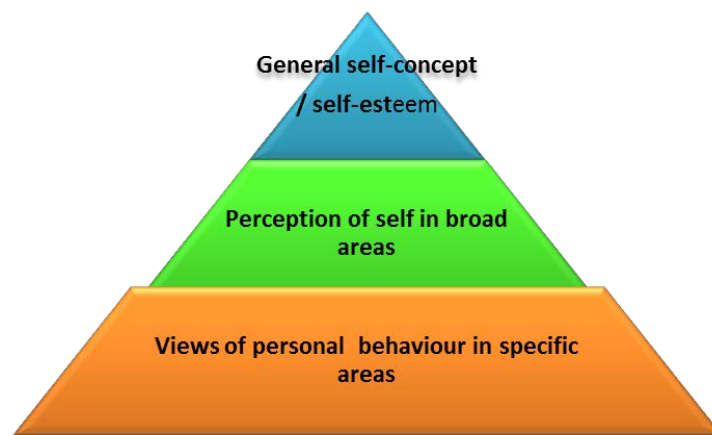
Figure 2.10: Global self-concept and Self-esteem in Shavelson et al's Hierarchical Model of Self- Concept (1976)

Self-esteem reveals a person's overall assessment or appraisal of of his or her own worth   and encompasses an individual's beliefs and emotions. It is a judgment of oneself as well as an attitude towards the self (Mruk, 2006, cited in Leather. 2013). As a global judgment of the self, self-esteem can be described as the valence of feelings towards oneself (Campbell, 1996). In relating it to the construct of self-concept, Dermitzaki and Efklides (2000) stated, "***It is the evaluative component of self-concept which reflects one's evaluation, including emotional assessment or appraisal of the self as a cognitive being,***

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individual's likes and dislikes and feelings of self-acceptance". The relationship between self-esteem and self-concept is best described by Campbell et al. (1996):

> **Although high self-esteem people have positive, well-articulated beliefs about the self, the prototypic low-self-esteem person does not, in contrast, have a well-defined negative view of the self. The self-concepts of low-self-esteem people are better described as, evaluatively, neutral and, more important, are characterized by relatively high levels of uncertainty, instability, and inconsistency** (p. 142).

In an educational setting, both the association of a positive self-concept and high self-esteem are predicting academic motivation and success. According to Harter (1993), high self-esteem is important not only for learners' academic achievement but also for their long-term general well-being and personal development. Research has demonstrated that self-esteem can affect such diverse areas as school adjustment, scholastic achievement, school behaviour and emotional adjustment (Martinez & Semrud-Clikeman, 2004).

2.2.5.2 Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy, a term first coined by Albert Bandura in 1977, is a construct that has been developed to distinguish beliefs about one's capability to successfully achieve specific goals (Huang, 2011). Bandura (1982) defined perceived self-efficacy as *"judgments of how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations"* (p. 122). Eccles and Wigfield (2002) characterized self-efficacy as an individual's confidence in his or her *"ability to organize and execute a given course of action to solve a problem or accomplish a task"* (p. 110). Individuals' self-beliefs can vary in different contexts or activities. They help determine the amount of their effort displayed on an activity, the degree of their perseverance in front of obstacles and how much resilient they will be (Bandura, 1986, cited in Pajares & Schunk 2001).
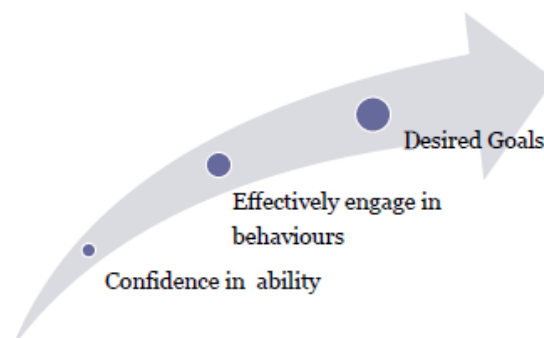
Figure 2.11: Self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977)

Bong and Skaalvik (2003) emphasized that   self-efficacy and self-concept constructs have much in common: an emphasis on perceived competence, a multidimensional and hierarchical structure, content specificity, and the prediction of future performance, emotion, and motivation.

In the academic context, self-efficacy is the self-representation of successful performance in a specific domain, and pupils with positive self-representation create and visualize scenarios of successful achievement (Bandura, 1986, 1989; Schunk 1987 cited in Dermitzaki & Efklides, 2000)**.**   Pupils with higher self-efficacy beliefs ***"set higher goals, use more cognitive and metacognitive strategies, and persist longer"*** (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990, cited in Alderman, 2004).

2.2.5.3 Self-confidence

Self-confidence, an important dimension of self-concept, is ***"the belief in our ability to perform tasks successfully, produce results and reach goals"*** (Dörnyei, 1994). Self-confidence is "***a self-perceived measure of one's belief in one's own abilities which is dependent upon contextual background and setting"*** (Perry, 2011).

Some researchers (e.g. Bandura, 1997; Shrauger & Schohn, 1995; Grundy, 1993) suggested that self-confidence and self-efficacy are different but they are conceptually close to each other. They proposed that self-confidence could be general or situation-specific whereas self-efficacy is situation-specific. The theory of self-efficacy has often been used as a theoretical basis for many self-confidence researches in different areas (Akın, 2007, cited in Sari et al, 2015).

Self-confidence has been widely researched in academic setting, in the last decades. It has been suggested to affect pupils' academic performance. Renchler (1992) stated that individuals perceive their success or failure according to the level of their self-confidence, that self-confidence is established in the early stages of a person's development, and it is shaped to a large extent by the significant others. Moreover, Pajares and Schunk (2001) argued that confident individuals anticipate successful outcomes, and approach difficult tasks as challenges to master rather than threats to avoid. In contrast, high self-confidence can sometimes result in the underestimation of a weak opponent which could result in inadequate alertness, lack of focus, and/or carelessness (Kouli et al., 2010). It was also stated that it can be self-deceptive when individuals tend to give a biased interpretation of their previous

performances, and overestimate their abilities believing themselves to be more able than they actually are (Benabou & Tirole, 2002).

2.2.6 Self-concept: Developmental Considerations

Self-concept is not innate. It starts in the early months of life and is modelled and remodelled according to the different repeated experiences of an individual, particularly with significant others (Bracken, 2009). In this vein, Purkey (1988) stated, *"the self-concept is learned, and no one is ever born with a self-concept"*. Bracken (2009) qualified self-concept as developmental in the sense that as a person ages his or her behaviours and consequent self-views become increasingly crystallized within individual domains and increasingly differentiated across domains. He declared:

> **Because children experience somewhat consistent outcomes *within* similar environmental contexts, and somewhat inconsistent outcomes *across* different environmental contexts, these differential learning experiences accumulate and lead to well-defined, differentiated, domain-specific self-concepts. Thus, self-concept domain differentiation begins sometime during infancy and continues to develop through adolescence, and incrementally throughout adulthood reference**. (Bracken, 2009:96).

2.2.6.1 Self-concept Acquisition

Bracken (1992) claimed that the various cognitively oriented self-concept models failed to bring a clear explanation for how self-concept is acquired or modified (p.94). Therefore, he used a behavioural learning theory model to explain how children acquire self-concept as a function of their direct and indirect interactions with environmental factors. According to Bracken, individuals receive positive or negative feedback about their behaviour or attributes from two feedback modes: directly from their personal experiences (i.e., *Personal perspective*) and indirectly from other individuals within their environment (i.e. *Other perspective*) (p 94) (see Figure 2.12).
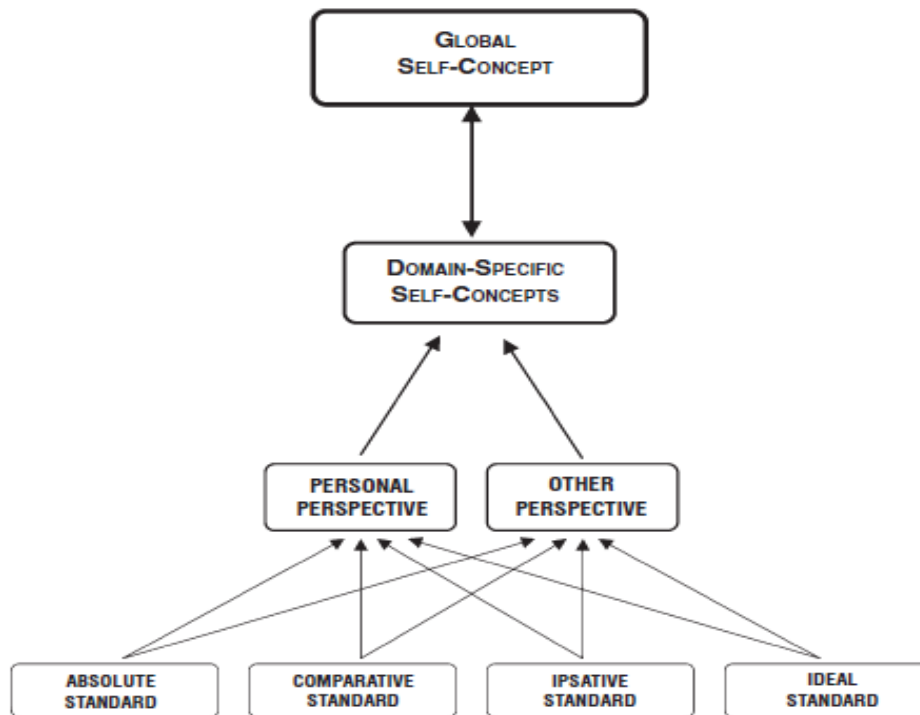
Figure 2.12; Self-concept Behavioural Acquisition Model (Bracken, 2009:95)

In Bracken's model, people receive feedback about their performance or characteristics, from their environment, either directly (*Personal Perspective*) or indirectly (*Other Perspective*). The recorded information is evaluated according to four evaluation standards that include the **absolute** (a fairly objective personal evaluation based on directly observable outcomes), **comparative** (in comparison to a group's performance), **ipsative** *(the* evaluation of performance in one area as compared to other areas), and **ideal** *(*employed when an ideal level of accomplishment is used as the standard of comparison by the individual or by others). Figure 2.12 portrays the manner in which these standards and perspectives influence the development of children's domain-specific self-concepts (Bracken, 2009 pp. 95-96).   .

2.2.6.2 Self-concept in Adolescence

The present research work reflects over the development of adolescents' self-perceptions and beliefs during that critical period of their life. It considers, more particularly, the development of academic self-concept in educational contexts.

In very general terms, self-concept is defined as an individual's self-perception. This perception is formed through "***attitudes, feelings, and knowledge about abilities, skills, appearance, and social acceptability***" (Byrne, 1984:429). Self-concept develops and refines with growing age and increasing experience (Bracken, 1992). Children begin to develop a

sense of self by learning to distinguish themselves from others. The first step in the development of self-concept is self-recognition, which is evidenced by young children fascination with looking at themselves in the mirror ***"Hey, I recognize you; you're me!"*** (Eggen & Kauchak, 1997). Self- recognition gradually shift from defining oneself through external characteristic to defining oneself through internal characteristics in middle and late childhood. (Santrock, 1997).

Similarly, Bukatko and Daehler (1995) specified:

The period of adolescence has sometimes been viewed as filled with stress and uncertainty about self, riddled with sudden and frequent mood shifts, a time dubbed as the identity crisis. Adolescents often engage in new ways of behaving and thinking that develop greater self-sufficiency, independence, and expressions of familiarity with others as they approach the teen years (Bukatko and Daehler, 1995: 453),

The attempt to define oneself in adolescence is the most significant and marking task of this period of life. Several studies provide proof that, especially, during that developmental period of life, self-concept is quite unpredictable in level and stability (E.g. Brinthaupt & Lipka, 2002). Woolfolk (2001)   indicated that, during adolescence, feelings of self-worth are more closely tied to physical appearance and social acceptance (p.75). Chaplin and John (2007) claimed that the physical changes lead children to become highly critical of their previously constructed self-concept.

On the report of Harter (1999), self-concept, during adolescence, splits into a number of identities that vary as a function of social context. Adolescents have different self-concepts around their parents, close friends, significant others, and peers as well as at work, on the athletic team, and in the classroom (p. 227). Adolescents' social orientation shifts from the family to the surrounding (Steinberg & Morris, 2001). In this process, school life constitutes an integral part in the life of adolescents as it becomes the most time-consuming activity as well as a place for their social contacts (Harter, 1999:227) where teachers and peers serve for comfort and attachment (Steinberg & Morris, 2001). This makes adolescents, particularly, vulnerable to peer-acceptance or rejection (McLachlan, Zimmer-Gembeck, & McGregor, 2010).

This combination of physical, social, emotional and cognitive changes that mutually affect each other makes adolescence a critical time for the development of the notion of self and identity and therefore of self-concept (Hattie, 1992).

2.2.6.3 Adolescents' Academic Self-perceptions

During the past decades, a great array of research has been devoted to investigate how pupils form their self-concept (e.g. Purkey, 1970; Blatchford, 1992; Keith & Bracken, 1996).

In educational setting, pupils develop academic self-perceptions that are ***"derived from experiences with the social environment as information is supplied by significant others in the home, school and community"*** (Hattie, 1992). They, constantly, need to evaluate their performance in relation to social frames of reference that indicate to pupils what they are capable of and what qualities they possess in particular situations (Hau, Kong, & Marsh, 2000). Such standards could be (a) social comparisons with others in their context (e.g., classmates in schools), (b) externally established standards of excellence (which are probably based on a form of social comparison against a 'generalized' other (Marsh, Trautwein, Lüdtke & Köller, 2008), (c) temporal comparisons based on past performances in the same domain which may or may not involve social comparison (Marsh & Martin, 2011; Martin & Liem, 2010), (d) dimensional comparison relative to performances in another domain (Marsh, Lüdtke et al, 2015), and finally (e) feedback from significant others that probably involves one of the above mentioned frames. Pupils, also, compare their self-perceived academic abilities in one facet (such as mathematics) with another one (such as English) and this internal process is the second basis from which self-concept formation occurs. This process of comparison is sometimes referred to as an internal frame of reference (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2002). In considering both the external and internal frames of reference, it is possible that pupils with high ability in both English and mathematics may, in fact, have a negative self-concept in mathematics because they perceive that they are better at English (Moller, Strewblow, & Pohlmann, 2006).

As a matter of fact, all pupils have high and low academic self-beliefs of their perceived academic abilities.

2.2.7 Correlates Related to Self-concept

Many researchers have investigated the relationship between basic human characteristics (e.g. age, race, and gender) or conditions (e.g. disabilities, achievements) and self-concept. Below are some of the common human characteristics that have been studied in

relation to self-concept development and constitute the conceptual framework of the present study.

2.2.7.1 Age Effects in Self-concept

The relationship between age and self-concept has long been debated. Predictions about whether self-concept development is influenced by chronological age have been proposed from a variety of theoretical perspectives. Some research investigations have found self-concepts of adolescents to be more positive than children's self-concepts (McCarthy & Hoge, 1982; O'Malley & Bachman, 1983; Demo, 1992); others have concluded that self-concept remains relatively stable across the age span (Dusek & Flaherty, 1981; Osborne & LeGette, 1982; Marsh, Parker, & Barnes, 1985). While other research studies have concluded that self-concept diminishes during adolescence (Roid & Fitts, 1988).

Shavelson et al. (1976) hypothesized that self-concept becomes more differentiated with age. Recent progress in the measurement of young children's self-concept (e.g. preadolescent primary school pupils (SDQ-I), adolescent high school pupils (SDQ-II), and late adolescents and young adults (SDQ-III)) has revealed that children can reliably differentiate between multiple dimensions of self-concept at an earlier age than originally postulated (Marsh, Craven, & Debus, 1991; Crain, 1996; Craven, McInerney, & Marsh, 2000).

In her seminal work, Wylie (1979) determined that there was no convincing evidence for any age-related effect, positive or negative, in global self- concept between the ages of 6 and 50, especially when better known and better quality self-concept instruments were employed (Wylie, 1979 cited in Bracken, 2009). In contrast to Wiley's analyses, Marsh (1989) proposed a curvilinear model of global self-concept development. It postulated that global self-concept becomes increasingly more positive during childhood and then less positive during preadolescence, followed by improved self- concepts in early or middle adolescence, adolescence and early adulthood. There is evidence that self-concept of young children is positive until they reach middle childhood when it starts to decline through adolescence then levels out, finally increasing through early adulthood (Craven et al., 2000). Crain (1996) concluded, ***"Longitudinal research may well uncover clinically meaningful age-related differences in children's views of themselves, but for now, it seems warranted to say that age is essentially a weak moderator of domain specific self-concepts at best"*** (Crain, 1996:403; cited in Bracken,2009).

In educational contexts, it has been noted that as pupils grow older their academic self-concept becomes more stable (Guay, Marsh, & Boivin, 2003). In a study by Liu and Wang (2005), it was noted that academic self-concept tends to decline from early to mid-adolescence and also extends to adulthood. Academic self-concept varies as pupils move through grades in which their academic self-concept tends to rise in the direction of their academic achievement (Jacobs, Lanza et al. 2002; Liu & Wang, 2005), whereas other studies highlight that it tends to become weaker (Marsh & Yeung, 1997; Marsh et al., 2002)

2.2.7.2 Gender Effects in Self-concept

Studies considering gender differences in terms of self-perceptions and beliefs in the development of self-concept, during adolescence, have led to quite inconclusive results. Some researchers have reported more positive global self-concepts among males than females (e.g. Allgood-Merten & Stockard, 1991; Feather, 1991) whereas others reported virtually no differences (e.g.Greene & Wheatley, 1992; Mullis, Mullis, & Normandin, 1992; Wilson, 1998).

In a review of gender differences in self-concept, Crain (1996) concluded, ***"differences in domain-specific self-concepts of boys and girls tend to run along gender-stereotypic lines"*** (Crain, 1996: 412, cited in Marsh, 1998). Researchers have reported a trend for gender differences in domain-specific dimensions of self-concept, most notably the area of physical self-concept favouring males than females who report lower level of self-appreciation and self-esteem (e.g. Dusek & Flaherty, 1981; Marsh et al., 1984). Socially, gender related differences are consistent with sex stereotypes (e.g. higher sociability among females than males and a higher appreciation for own achievement among boys than girls). Several studies on gender differences in academic self-concept have reported that males and females possess different beliefs about their academic competencies (e.g. Marsh, 1989; Wigfield et al. 2002), with boys who tend to have higher academic self-perceptions in science courses while girls have higher academic self-perceptions in non-science courses (e.g. Marsh, 1989; Harter, 1999). Jacobs, et al. (2002) highlighted that gender differences in academic self-perceptions start as early as elementary school and remain stable through adolescence to adulthood.

There are several reasons why males may report more positive self-concepts than females in some unique self-concept domains (Kling, Hyde, Showers, & Buswell, 1999). These reasons include the favourable relationship between self-concept and masculine gender

roles for both males and females (e.g., Marsh, 1987; Orlofsky & O'Heron, 1987) and less emphasis on physical appearance among males (e.g., Mendelson, White, & Mendelson, 1996; Wood, Becker, & Thompson, 1996)

Nevertheless, research evidence supports the contention that positive self-concepts do not know age, race, or gender boundaries (Bracken, 2009).

2.2.7.3 Self-concept and Academic Achievement

Academic achievement is one of the most pressing educational topics. This close apprehension is mostly linked to the deep concern of educational psychologists to come up with possible issues to help understand pupils' academic self-perceptions and develop their academic performance. Broadly defined, academic achievement is ***"the measured ability and performance level of a learner in a school, subject or particular skills"*** (Phillipson & Phillipson, 2007). Park and Kim (2010) explained:.

> **Academic performance is the outcome of education, the extent to which a student, teacher or institution has achieved their educational goals. It is commonly measured by examinations or continuous assessment but there is no general agreement on how it is best tested or which aspect is most important procedural knowledge** (Park & Kim, 2010).

The association between self-concept and pupils' performance, in educational settings, has been a major focus of inquiry for many decades. It has been widely examined in numerous studies (e.g. Marsh & Yeung, 1997; Wach et al., 2015; Arens et al., 2016). In fact, educational psychology has been concerned with investigating the different types of relationships, both associative and predictive, that exist between self-concept and academic performance (Marsh & Seeshing, 1997). In support of self-concept, as a significant educational factor, research has shown that self-concept is linked to various educational outcomes such as academic effort, coursework selections, educational aspirations and academic achievement (e.g. Marsh, 1990c; Marsh & Craven, 1997; Marsh & Hau, 2003). The main subject of debate, among researchers, has been whether prior academic self-concept influences academic achievement or prior academic achievement causes subsequent academic self-concept (Marsh & Köller, 2003). Marsh et al. (2002) considered this to be similar to the ***"chicken-egg"*** question. Early research (e.g. Purkey, 1970; Wylie et al., 1979) stressed the persistent and significant relationship between self-concept and academic achievement. Purkey (1970) confirmed, ***"Change in one seems to be associated with change in the other"*** (pp. 123-124). Although research has well established the relationship between academic self-

concept and achievement, there is little agreement about the causal ordering of these constructs. Three distinct models regarding the causal ordering between ASC and academic achievement have been proposed. They are the Self-Enhancement Model, the Skill-Development Model, and the Reciprocal Effects Model (see Figure 2.13):
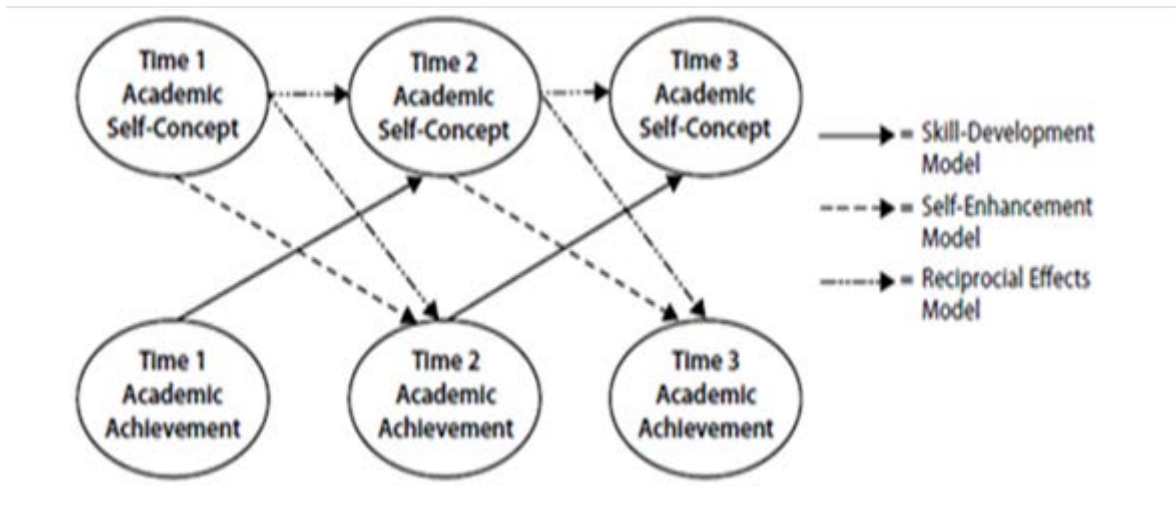
Figure 2.13: Hypothesized Causal Relationships in the Skill-development, Self-Enhancement, and Reciprocal Effects Models (Rosen et al., 2010:119)

(1)The Self-Enhancement Model

The model hypothesizes that the primary causal path is from academic self-concept to academic achievement (Calsyn & Kenny, 1977; Green et al, 2006; Valentine, Dubois., & Cooper, 2004). Thus, academic achievement is the consequence of academic self-concept. In practical terms, teachers' feedback that aims to make a pupil feel better rather than focus on results of his or her work is suggested to be more profitable (Barker, Dowson, & McInerney, 2005).

(2) The Skill-Development Model

This model implies that academic self-concept emerges as a consequence of academic achievement. Thus, the predominant causal path is from academic achievement to academic self-concept (Calsyn & Kenny, 1977; Green et al., 2006). In practice, this approach results in recommendations for teachers to focus on constructive feedback, based on results, but is not necessarily expressed in a way to make a student feel good about the accomplished work (Barker et al., 2005).

Several research studies have implemented the self-enhancement and skill development models to probe the existing relationship between academic self-concept and

academic achievement (e.g. Baumeister et al., 2003, 2005; Valentine & Dubois, 2005; Pinxten et al., 2010). Nevertheless, neither the self-enhancement model nor the skill development model has found adequate empirical support (Pinxten et al., 2010).

(3) The Reciprocal Effects Model

In a review of existing research, Marsh (1990c) argued that a majority of this research was methodologically unsound and inconsistent with self-concept theory. Hence, he proposed the reciprocal effects model of academic self-concept (REM) as an integration of both theoretical models in a kind of a compromise between the skill development and self-enhancement controversy.

This model postulates that academic self-concept and academic achievement are reciprocally related and mutually reinforcing. That is, prior self-concept affects subsequent achievement and prior achievement affects subsequent self-concept (Guay, Marsh & Boivin, 2003). Marsh et al (2002) affirmed that the model has major implications for the importance placed on academic self-concept as a means of facilitating other desirable educational outcomes, as well as being an important outcome variable. REM has been widely supported by most researchers (e.g. Muijs, 1997; Marsh & Yeung, 1997; Marsh, et al., 2001; Guay et al., 2003; Pinxten et al. 2015). In this perspective, De Fraine (2007) asserted, "***This reciprocal effects model tends to be more realistic and is widely supported by most researchers***". Marsh and Martin (2011) suggested:

> **If teachers enhance students' academic self-concepts without improving achievement, then the gains in self-concept are likely to be short-lived. However, if teachers improve students' academic achievement without also fostering students' self-beliefs in their academic capabilities, then the achievement gains are also unlikely to be long lasting. If teachers focus on either one of these constructs to the exclusion of the other, then both are likely to suffer. Hence, according to the reciprocal effects model, teachers should strive to improve simultaneously both academic self-concept and achievement**. (p. 72)

The development in the statistical methodology measures used to test REM has generated full support for the generalizability of the findings over age, nationality, different self-concept instruments, and different ways of measuring achievement (e.g. Valentine, DuBois, & Cooper, 2004; Marsh & Craven, 2006; Marsh, 2007; Marsh & Martin, 2011; Huang, 2011). Based on similar findings, in a subsequent meta-analysis, Huang (2011)

concluded, *"As high self-concept is related to high academic performance and vice versa, intervention programs that combine self-enhancement and skill development should be integrated"* (p. 505).

Baumeister et al (2003) challenged REM in an influential review commissioned for *'Psychological Science in the Public Interest'*, arguing that efforts to boost pupils' self-esteem *"are of little value in fostering academic achievement or preventing undesirable behaviour"* (p. 84). In a critique of these claims, Marsh and Craven (2006) argued that these conclusions were problematic in the context of recent advances in methodological and theoretical understandings of self-concept. In particular, Baumeister et al.(2003, 2005) relied on a uni-dimensional perspective that emphasized self-esteem, largely ignoring the research based on a multidimensional perspective focusing on academic self-concept. They stated, *"From a multidimensional perspective it is reasonable that esteem would have little or no relation with academic achievement, even though ASC and achievement are reciprocally related"* (Marsh & Craven, 2006)

Other studies (e.g. Valentine & DuBois, 2005 ; Guay, Ratelle, Roy, & Litalien ,2010; Areepattamannil ,2012) supported this model. They suggested the existence of additional personal and environmental variables that mediate the relation of both self-concept and academic performance. Valentine and DuBois (2005) noted that the developed theoretical models of academic self- concept including the reciprocal effects model do not explicitly take into consideration the effects of other pertinent factors in explaining the relations between academic self-concept and academic achievement. They advanced, *"one of the limitations of the model is non-inclusion of potentially important mediators in the association of self-related beliefs and achievement".*

Founding on the conclusion by Valentine and DuBois (2005), the purpose of the present case study seeks practical techniques of improving Algerian adolescent learners' self-perceptions, in secondary school academic settings, through the application of the REM model including the potential mediation of motivation and school engagement in the association of adolescents' self-related beliefs and academic achievement. Such an endeavour is more reinforced by the enhancement of both constructs to sustain longer term improvement in school performance and academic success.

2.2.8 Self-Concept Change during Adolescence

Self-concept is developed by an individual through interaction with his/her environment. "***Individuals' self-concepts are not necessarily static entities; they change over time with new experiences and roles***" (Gore & Cross, 2011). This dynamic aspect of self-concept is important because it indicates that it can be modified or changed (Franken, 1994) who stated:

> **There is a growing body of research which indicates that it is possible to change the self-concept. Self-change is not something that people can will but rather it depends on the process of self-reflection. Through self-reflection, people often come to view themselves in a new, more powerful way, and it is through this new, more powerful way of viewing the self that people can develop possible selves** (p. 443).

All along the period of adolescence, self-concept change occurs on the basis of a multitude of aspects. Hence, the distinction between these considerations is quite helpful to define self-concept change:

- *Lower- order Self-concept Change vs. Higher-order Self- concept Change*

Gore and Cross (2011) defined lower-order self-concept change as individuals' variation in self-content on the basis of their relationships. Whereas change at a higher-order level postulates that people predominately define themselves on the basis of their relationships at one occasion, then later define themselves in terms of their skills and abilities (p 136). Thus, individuals' self-concept may change from being focused on close relationships towards a generalized focus on their abilities and skills.

- *Self- evaluation Change vs. Self-structure Change*

Self-evaluation change is a modification in individuals' affective response to themselves (Gore & Cross, 2011). Dunning and Cohen (1992) explained that in many cases, people experience a positive shift in their self-perceptions rather than a negative one, but this does not necessarily qualify as a change in the self-concept. Self-structure change, on the other hand, describes the degree to which the cognitive associations among self-aspects are integrated with each other or compartmentalized from each other (Gore & Cross, 2011). Often, content-related self-concept changes as a result of an adaptive response to changing life events and commitments (Sedikides 1992), whereas self-structure change is often the result of minimizing the impact of stress and salient negative experiences, such as

compartmentalization between positive and negative self-dimensions (Showers et al. 1998; Showers, 2002).

- *Content vs. Structure*

According to Campbell et al (2003), there is an important distinction between the content and the structure of the self-concept. The content includes all the information that people gather about themselves and the way they evaluate it. This allows them to answer questions such as *'Who am I?'* and *'How do I evaluate myself?'* The structure of the self-concept, on the other hand, refers to the architecture of the self-schema (Campbell, Assanand & Paula, 2003)

- *Self-concept Clarity*

Self-concept Clarity (SCC) is one of the conceptualizations that describe structural integration of the self-concept. Campbell et al (1996) defined SCC as *"the extent to which the contents of an individual's self-concept (e.g., perceived personal attributes) are clearly and confidently defined, internally consistent, and temporally stable"* (Campbell, Trapnell, Katz, Lavallee & Lehman, 1996:141). There is much empirical evidence that SCC is related to psychological adjustment. *"It gauges the stability of the self-concept, as it comprises how consistently an individual perceives himself or herself"* (Campbell, 1990). Self-concept clarity correlates positively with self-esteem, positive affect, and extraversion, and negatively with depression, anxiety, neuroticism (Campbell et al., 1996, 2003),

However, the clarity and stability of the self-concept are changeable, and adolescence is a key period for investigating patterns of change and stability in self-concept clarity (Crocetti & Van Dijk, 2016) because *"the cognitive gains and individuation issues of adolescence are thought to play a significant role in the development of self-concept during adolescence"* (Miyatomo et al., 2000). Indeed, *"it is during adolescence that the search for an enduring sense of "self" turns into a core developmental task"* (Erikson 1959, 1968),

Thus, during adolescence, individuals may rethink their previous sense of self and experiment with new roles and life plans to find a set of goals and values that fit their aspirations and potentials (Crocetti & Van Dijk, 2016).

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2.2.9 Adolescent Learners' Academic Self-concept Change

The previous section considered the different parameters that induce people's general self-concept change over time and situations. The present section deals mainly with the academic component of adolescent learners' self-concept change as well as the different factors contributing to it.

More contemporary research, in the field of self-concept, has been directed towards academic self-concept and its development (e.g. Byrne, et al, 1996; Gordon, 1997; Guay et al, 2003; Trautwein et al., 2006; Brunner et al, 2010; Van den Berg, & Coetzee, 2014). Broadly defined, academic self-concept is *"a student's self-perception of academic ability formed through individual experiences and interactions with the environment"* (O'Mara, Marsh, Craven & Debus, 2006; Valentine, DuBois & Cooper, 2004). According to Sanchez and Roda (2003), self-concept becomes not only more specific but also more subject to change. Liu and Wang (2005) advanced, *"pupils' academic self-concept tends to decline from early to mid-adolescence as this can be a difficult phase of self-questioning and adjustment".* Guay et al. (2003) contended this view stating, **"as *elementary pupils grow older, their academic self-concept becomes more stable. Also, the relation between academic self-concept and achievement becomes stronger with age".* Several studies have suggested that academic self-concept is closely tied to adolescents' academic achievement and that academic performance has significant implications for adolescents' self-concept (e.g. Kobal & Musek, 2001; Denissen, Zarrett, & Eccles, 2007). Many of these studies stressed the impact of both positive and negative feedback on adolescents' self-concept as well as on their academic achievement. Yet, there are some conflicting results regarding the academic self-concept/achievement relationship for pupils in secondary schools. Some research studies have found that this correlation becomes weaker (Marsh & Yeung, 1997) whereas others have found a stronger correlation between academic self-concept and achievement as pupils move through the grades (Marsh et al., 2002). De Fraine et al (2007) have suggested that the causal direction of academic self-concept and achievement vary with age and that the academic self-concept of younger pupils is more likely to be influenced by school performance: *"As they enter higher grades, academic self-concept and achievement are more likely to influence each other"* (De Fraine et al, 2007).

2.2.10 Factors Influencing the Development of Academic Self-concept

During the last decades, a great amount of research studies have been devoted to investigate and explain the construct of pupils' academic self-concept and its direct implications on their school performance. Numerous factors affecting academic self-concept have been identified in a serious attempt to understand pupils' uneven academic achievement. They include influences such as: (a) successes and failures in the school curricula, (b) ease or difficulty with which information is acquired, (c) the pupils' overall cognitive abilities and comparatively, the abilities and achievement of their peers, (d) the pupils' relationship with teachers and peers within the school setting, and (e) recognition of pupils' accomplishments and acceptance of their ideas, contributions and share within the school setting.

According to Ormrod (2008), three main factors impact pupils' academic self-concept: (a) their own prior behaviours and performance, (b) the behaviours of other individuals towards them, and (c) the expectations that others hold for their future performance.

a) **Pupils' Prior Behaviours and Performance**

Self-concept is a hypothetical construct that helps explain and predict an individual's behaviour. It includes elements of reciprocity, where individuals' actions influence their self-perceptions and perceptions of self, in turn, influence their actions (Hardy, 2013). To some extent, pupils' academic self-perceptions affect their behaviour. Marsh and Craven (2006) explained that pupils' self-assessments are influenced by how successful their actions have been in the past and that they often gain initial insights about their general competence in a domain from their successes and failures in particular activities. Over time, pupils' specific self-efficacies, for various tasks and activities, contribute to their more general sense of self (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003; Schunk & Pajares, 2004).

b) **Behaviours of Others**

Pupils' self-perceptions are shaped by behaviours of others in at least two ways. First, how they evaluate themselves depends to some extent on how their own performance compares to that of other individuals, especially peers (Marsh & Hau, 2003). Dweck (2000) stated that adolescents' self-perceptions, in particular, are affected by how others behave towards them. Ormrod (2008) explained the kind of impression that parents' behaviour can cause to their children saying:

> **Parents who accept their children as they are and who treat their children's interests and problems as important are likely to have children with positive self-concepts and high self-esteem. Parents who punish their children for the things they cannot do, without praising them for the things they do well, are likely to have children with low self-esteem** (Ormrod, 2008).

Similarly, teachers play such an important role to communicate positive feedback to their learners. Their encouraging behaviours, undoubtedly, have a significant effect to boost their pupils' academic capabilities and foster more positive self-concepts. They convey high expectations for children's performance and offer support and encouragement for the attainment of challenging goals (Eccles, Jacobs, et al., 1989). Meanwhile, peers communicate information about children's social and athletic competence, perhaps by seeking out a child's companionship or ridiculing a child in front of others (Ormrod, 2008).

c) Group Membership and Expectations for Pupils' Future Achievements

Membership, in one or more groups within the classroom or school setting, can impact pupils' sense of self. In general, pupils are more likely to have high self-esteem if they are members of successful groups (Harter, 1999; Wigfield, Eccles, & Pintrich, 1996). Some cultures encourage children to take pride in the accomplishments of their families as well as, or perhaps even instead of, their own accomplishments (Olneck, 1995).

Adolescent learners tend to have more positive self-concepts if the parents and teachers have high expectations for the accomplishment of challenging goals. When parents and teachers expect children to achieve academically, those children are more likely to have confidence in their own academic capabilities (Ormrod, 2008).

2.3 Theoretical Background of Motivation in Foreign Language Learning

The present section constitutes the second pillar of the study's conceptual framework. It explores the most significant theories and models that deal with the field of motivation, as being one of the most cited factors that affect scholastic performance as well as mediating the association of pupils' academic self-beliefs and academic achievement. It examines the construct from different perspectives and investigates the correlation between the different types of motivation, pupils' self-concept and academic attainment. It presents sample studies that have dealt with this relationship so as to shed light on the importance of raising pupils' academic self-perceptions and motivation in learning to achieve their pursued

goals. It concentrates on the problem of academic underachievement and disinterest of pupils in school, particularly, in the period of adolescence by making a close reflection on some of the most influential factors that can affect language learning motivation and, therefore, school achievement.

2.3.1 Academic Motivation

The issues of pupil motivation in education, in general, and secondary education, in particular, and its significant effect on both their academic self-perceptions and achievement across childhood through adolescence are seen as ***"an imperative aspect of effective learning"*** (Elliot and Dweck, 2005, cited in Kaplan & Maehr ,2007). Indeed, many psychologists and educators consider it as the most essential drive for pupils to get along with successful school learning. ***"It involves positive aspects of education that make pupils engage positively with the school"*** (Wang & Holcombe , 2010) and ***"the willingness of the pupils to engage and complete school tasks without being compelled to do so or without expectations of punishment or reward"*** (Fan & William, 2009). Academic motivation is among the most decisive determinants of pupils' success or failure in school (Hidi and Harackiewicz, 2000). Despite the uncontested position of motivation in learning, there is, in fact, no agreement on the exact definition of motivation. The complexity of the concept resides in its ***"endeavours to explain individuals' actions and behaviour"*** (Dörnyei, 2000). The problem, as Dörnyei asserted, is not the lack of theories to explain motivation but rather the abundance of theories and models. The numerous researches into motivation could not bring an end to the confusion. Brophy (1998) defined motivation as a theoretical construct that is used to explain the initiation, direction, intensity and persistence of behaviour. The concept of motivation is, therefore, used to explain the degree to which pupils invest attention and effort in various pursuits as well as what ***"gets them going, keeps them going, and helps them finish tasks"*** (Pintrich, 2003:104). On the same way, Greenberg and Baron (2003) defined it as: ***"The set of processes that arouse, direct, and maintain human behaviour towards attaining some goal".*** (p. 190). *Motiv*ation explains ***"why people decide to do something, how hard they are going to pursue it and how long they are willing to sustain the activity"*** (Dörnyei, 2001:7). Ryan and Deci (2000b) asserted, ***"To be motivated means to be moved to do something".*** Unlike unmotivated pupils who have lost drive and inspiration to act, motivated pupils are energized and activated to the end of a task to allow goals to persist, and lead to choosing or preferring a particular behaviour.

There has been a great deal of divergence among researchers about the nature of motivation and how the motivational processes are operating. However, most professionals agree that the presence of motivation is the indicator of effort, persistence, and achievement. Plenty of theories have been promulgated to explain the concept of motivation as well as its direct implications on pupils under academic settings. The current study will found on the self-determination empirical outcomes as they, better, illustrate the objectives of the present research work.

2.3.2 Self-Determination Theory (SDT)

The self-determination theory is *"one of the most influential theories in motivational psychology"* (Dörnyei, 2003)**.** It is a **"***macro-theory of human motivation, emotion, and development that takes interest in factors that either facilitate or forestall the assimilative and growth-oriented processes in people***"** (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009:134). It has been first proposed by Deci and Ryan (1985). Deci and Ryan (2008) advanced:

> **SDT addresses such basic issues as personality development, self-regulation, universal psychological needs, life goals and aspirations, energy and vitality, nonconscious processes, the relations of culture to motivation, and the impact of social environments on motivation, affect, behaviour, and well- being** (Deci and Ryan ,2008:182)

Deci, Connell, and Ryan (1989) explained that being self-determined means *"to experience a sense of choice in initiating and regulating one's own actions"* (p 580). SDT consists of five inter-related mini-theories (Deci & Ryan, 2002): Cognitive evaluation theory, organismic integration theory, causality orientations theory, goal contents theory, and basic needs theory (see Figure 2.14).
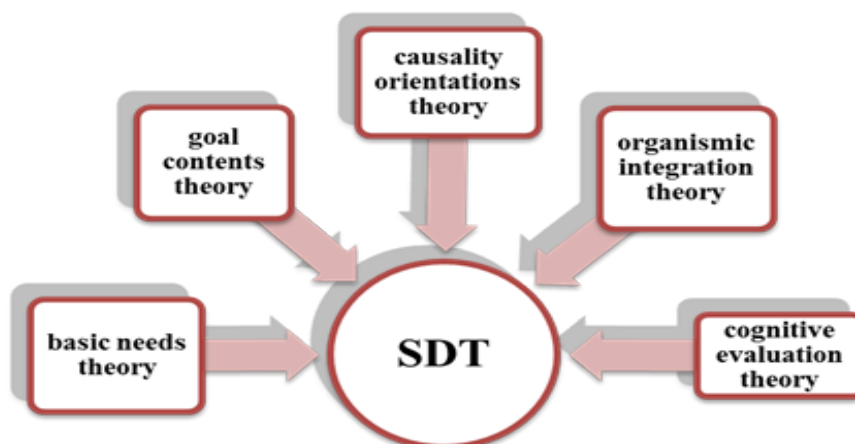
Figure 2.14: The five Inter-Related Mini-Theories of SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2002)

Cognitive evaluation theory explains the effects of extrinsic factors or social contextual events (e.g. evaluations, imposed goals, praise, rewards) on intrinsic motivation, behaviour, and experience (Deci & Ryan, 1985). It is most useful for studying behaviour for which people exhibit some interest or motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). Organismic integration theory proposes that externally regulated behaviours can be transformed to self-regulated behaviours (Deci & Ryan, 2002). It addresses the concept of internalization especially with respect to the development of extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Causality orientations theory describes how people incorporate social influences into their motivational styles (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2002). Goal contents theory explains the impact of intrinsic and extrinsic goals on human motivation and wellness. Finally, basic needs theory specifies a set of universal basic psychological needs that are essential nutriments for human beings' optimal development and functioning, psychological and physical health and social wellness (Deci & Ryan, 2002).

The self-determination theory puts more emphasis on the qualitative, rather than, quantitative differences in motivation. This finding is reiterated by Deci and Ryan (2008) who revealed that the theory focuses on types, rather than merely on the amount of motivation, paying particular attention to autonomous motivation, controlled motivation and amotivation as predictors of performance and well-being outcomes (p 182).

SDT distinguishes, essentially, between autonomous motivation and controlled motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Autonomous motivation involves acting with a full sense of volition and choice. It encompasses both intrinsic motivations an extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000). Controlled motivation, in contrast, involves acting with a sense of pressure or demand and includes external regulation and by contingencies that have been partially internalized (i.e., introjected regulation) (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000). There are different types of autonomous and controlled forms of motivation.

2.3.3 Types of Motivation

Early research, on motivation, has investigated the construct primarily as a uni-dimensional concept. Deci & Ryan (2008) affirmed, *"many historical and contemporary theories of motivation have treated motivation primarily as a unitary concept, focussing on the overall amount of motivation that people have for particular behaviours or activities"* (p. 182). SDT conceives motivation to be multidimensional in nature (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Levesque, Copeland, Pattie, and Deci (2011) stated:

> **Distinctions between the different types of motivation allow researchers to explain a considerable range of human behaviours and experiences. Understanding these various forms of motivation, also, enables researchers and practitioners to identify antecedents that will foster these different types of motivations and the consequences that may follow these motivated behaviours.** (p. 17, cited in Areepattamannil, 2011)

The self-determination theory distinguishes between different types of motivation based on the different reasons or goals that give rise to an action (Ryan & Deci 2000b:55). The three types of motivation are namely intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and amotivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000, 2008).

2.3.3.1 Intrinsic Motivation

Deci and Ryan (1985) asserted that motivation can be distinguished into intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. They explained that some motivation may originate from inside or outside an individual. Intrinsic motivation refers to "*people's spontaneous tendencies to be curious and interested to seek out novelty and challenges and to exercise and develop their skills and knowledge, even in the absence of operationally separable rewards*" (Di Domenico & Ryan , 2017:2), i.e., it is a kind of motivation that is driven by an interest or enjoyment in the task itself (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). It is self-determined and experienced as freely chosen and emanating from one's self, not done under pressure from some external force (Brophy, 1998). Over the past four decades, experimental and field research guided by self-determination theory has found intrinsic motivation to predict enhanced learning, performance, creativity, optimal development and psychological wellness (Ryan & Deci, 2017, cited in Di Domenico & Ryan , 2017). Actually, a growing body of evidence suggests that intrinsically motivated learners set different learning strategies than those who are subject to extrinsic drives. In his research, Lepper (2005) concluded that the learners who are intrinsically motivated are keen in using strategies that require more effort and that enable them to process information more deeply. They, also, prefer tasks that are more challenging and are willing to put in greater amounts of effort to achieve their learning goals. In fact, if they feel that they are under pressure, to accomplish their academic activities, their internal interest is decreased. In the present study's context, intrinsic motivation refers to the pupils' inherent interest in English language learning, school engagement, and internal desire to attain academic success.

Vallerand and his colleagues (1992) proposed a tripartite taxonomy of intrinsic motivation: intrinsic motivation to know, intrinsic motivation to accomplish things, and intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation (Vallerand, Blais, Briere, & Pelletier, 1992). Intrinsic motivation to know refers to the desire to perform an activity for the enjoyment one receives while exploring, understanding, and learning new things (Vallerand, 1997). Intrinsic motivation to accomplish things, on the other hand, refers to the desire to perform an activity for the pleasure and satisfaction that one receives from accomplishing or creating new things or from surpassing oneself (Vallerand et al., 1992). Finally, individuals who participate in an activity for the pleasure and satisfaction derived while experiencing pleasurable, intellectual or physical sensations are intrinsically motivated to experience stimulation (Vallerand et al., 1992).

2.3.3.2 Extrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic motivation, in contrast, refers to "***the performance of an activity in order to attain some separable outcome and compliance with an external regulation, control or any social influence***" (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). Vallerand and Ratelle (2002) referred to it as a "***broad array of behaviours having in common the fact that activities are engaged in not for reasons inherent in them, but for instrumental reasons***" (p. 42). Explicitly, when the only reason for language learning is to gain something outside the activity itself, such as pleasing the teacher, passing an exam, obtaining reward or any other reason that has very little to do with the task itself, the motivation is likely to be extrinsic. Here, the pupils are not interested in the activity itself, they care only about gain. Unlike intrinsically animated learners, pupils who have extrinsic motivation see their behaviour dictated by external factors that play on their goal orientations and decision making.

SDT provides the ***Organismic Integration Theory*** (OIT), another sub-theory, in the attempt to explain, plainly, extrinsic motivation, OIT recognizes a continuum that distinguishes extrinsic motivations based on how internalized the motivation is for the individual and on the degree of perceived autonomy (Ryan & Deci, 2000b) There are four types of extrinsic behavioural regulation: external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). Moreover, SDT maintains that these four types of extrinsic behavioural regulation can be situated along a self-determination continuum, with external regulation representing a complete lack of self-determined

motivation and integrated regulation representing the most self-determined form of extrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000b) (see Figure 2.15).
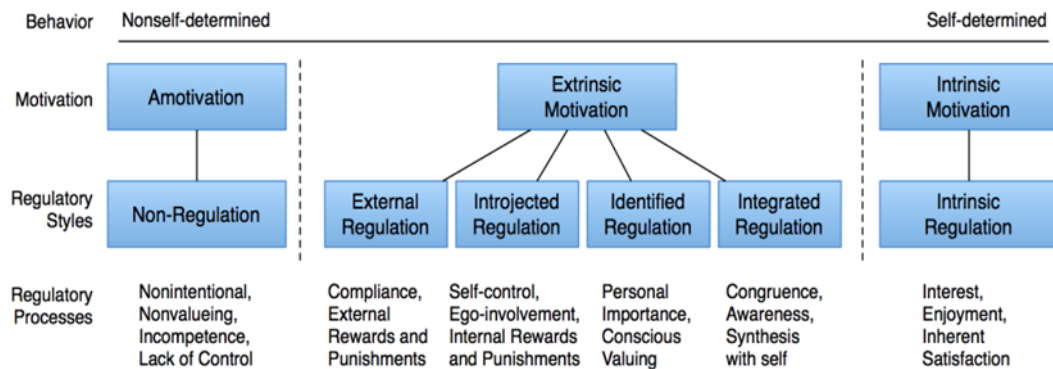
Figure 2.15: The OIT Taxonomy of Types of Motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000b)

External regulation refers to the least self-determined form of extrinsic motivation. Such behaviours are performed to satisfy an external demand or obtain an externally imposed reward contingency (Ryan & Deci, 2000b:62). Introjected regulation describes a type of internal regulation that is still quite controlling because people perform such actions with the feeling of pressure in order to avoid guilt or anxiety or to attain ego-enhancements or pride (Ryan & Deci, 2000b:62). A more autonomous, or self-determined, form of extrinsic motivation is identified regulation. Here, the person has identified with the personal importance of behaviour and has, thus, accepted its regulation as his or her own (Ryan & Deci, 2000b:62). Finally, the most autonomous form of extrinsic motivation is integrated regulation. Integration occurs when identified regulations have been fully assimilated to the self. This occurs through self-examination and bringing new regulations into congruence with one's other values and needs (Ryan & Deci, 2000b:62).

2. 3. 3.3 Amotivation

Deci and Ryan (1985) defined amotivation as ***"the relative absence of motivation that is not caused by a lack of initial interest but rather by the individual's experiencing feelings of incompetence and helplessness when faced with the activity"***. Ryan (1995) defined it, further, stating:

> **At the far left is amotivation, which is the state of lacking an intention to act. When amotivated, a person's behaviour lacks intentionality and a sense of personal causation. Amotivation results from not valuing an activity, not feeling competent to do it, or not believing it will yield a desired outcome** (Ryan ,1995 cited in Ryan & Deci, 2000b:61) .

Amotivated pupils experience feelings of ineffectiveness and expectancies of uncontrollability. They perceive their behaviour as caused by forces out of their own control. They feel incompetent and start asking themselves why they go to school. Eventually, they may stop participating in academic activities; instead, they are the source of annoyance and discipline problems to others (Vallerand et al., 1992).

In summary, intrinsically motivated pupils learn the language because of the inherent pleasure in doing so. They are expected to maintain their effort and engagement in the learning process, even when no external rewards are provided. Pupils with higher academic intrinsic motivation have been found to be more competent in school, with greater academic achievement, more positive perceptions of their academic competency, lower academic anxiety, and less extrinsic motivation (Gottfried, Gottfried, Cook, & Morris, 2005).

2. 3.3.4 Achievement Motivation

Achievement motivation is another key construct in understanding pupils' academic achievement. Its original definition was from Atkinson (1964) who defined it as the comparison of performances with others and against certain standard activities. Colman (2001) delineated achievement motivation as a social form of motivation involving a competitive desire to meet standards of excellence. It is, thus, the way through which pupils wish to obtain higher standards. Motivation is generally regarded as the drive to achieve goals and the process to maintain the drive. It provides an important foundation to complete cognitive behaviour, such as planning, organization, decision-making, learning, and assessments (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). It is an inner desire for achieving certain goals, in our case study, learning a foreign language effectively. Pupils who are disengaged from school work and are not motivated to succeed will not work hard and perceive academic tasks as a waste of time and effort as their expectations are directed, elsewhere, far away from school assignments.

2.3.4 The Relationship between Academic Self-concept, Motivation and Academic Achievement

One of the most persistent contemporary concerns, in educational psychology, is the question as to whether pupils' self-perceptions of their academic abilities and motivational drives predict their academic achievement. Interest, in this issue, has grown among education researchers and school professionals because they have long recognized that pupils' beliefs

about their academic capabilities play an essential role in their motivation to achieve (Zimmerman 2000:82). Researchers have used diverse motivational approaches, such as attribution theory (Weiner, 1979), expectancy-value theory (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002 ; Eccles, 2005), achievement goal theory (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996; Maehr & Zusho, 2009), and self-efficacy theory (Schunk & Pajares, 2009) to examine the relationship between academic motivation and academic achievement. Deci and Ryan's (1985, 1991, 2000) SDT motivational approach remains one perspective that appears, particularly, pertinent for the study of this association (Areepattamannil, 2011). Thus, the main objective of the present study is to test the mediating role of academic motivation in the relation between academic self-concept and achievement from a self-determination perspective of academic motivation.

Rodriguez (2009) explained that academic self-concept regulates learning and determines pupils' motivational orientation (p. 534). In addition to that, the findings of Rodriguez (2009) have suggested that academic self-concept could determine motivational orientation among pupils. Cokley et al. (2001), in turn, reported a positive and significant correlation between academic self-concept and intrinsic motivation. Michie et al. (2001) stated that pupils with high levels of academic self-concept had more intrinsic motivation to proceed with higher education. In sum, these studies suggested that the association of self-concept and achievement is important to be both considered in educational research, furthermore, they insisted on the mediating role of motivation on such an association (Valentine et al. 2005; Guay et al., 2010; Areepattamannil , 2012). Hence, Green et al. (2006) argued that it was critically important to develop an all-encompassing framework to examine the combined and unique effects of both self-concept and motivation on each other and subsequent academic achievement. Cokley (2003, 2007) confirmed this when stating that research on academic self-concept is considered as an important component of research on academic motivation. In stressing the role of pupils' self-perceptions in relation to motivation and academic performance, Lau and Chan (2001) advanced, ***"academic self-concept has an important impact on students' expectancy of success and directly affects their motivation"*** (p. 418). Furthermore, the motivational factors determine the goals towards which people aspire as well as the way in which they seek out, process, and use information (Collier, 1994:8, cited in Alderman, 2004:11). Motivation is an important factor in the development of children's resiliency, which is the ability to bounce back successfully despite growing up in adverse circumstances (Gordon, Padilla, Ford, & Thoresen, 1994). According to Alderman

(2004), motivation is often described as having three functions: (a) energizing or activating behaviour, (b) directing behaviour, and (c) regulating persistence of behaviour (p.23).

Both educational and developmental psychologists expressed a pronounced concern towards achievement motivation. Wigfield and Eccles (1992) indicated that achievement motivation refers *"to motivation in situations where individual's competence is an issue. It tries to explain people's choice of achievement tasks, the quality of task engagement and persistence on those tasks"*. In this vein, Klose (2008) asserted:

> **Achievement motivation is influenced by those factors that affect student's perceptions of their relationship to the achievement setting. Several internal and external factors contribute to the student's motivational orientation in the classroom. These include organizing the relationship between effort and ability, understanding the classroom reward structures, balancing academic mastery and social competence, and choosing tasks of appropriate difficulty** (Klose 2008: 12).

Guay et al. (2010) tested the relationships among academic self-concept, autonomous academic motivation, and academic achievement. They tested the additive effects of both autonomous academic motivation and academic self-concept on academic achievement. Their study proposed three models (see Figure 2.16).
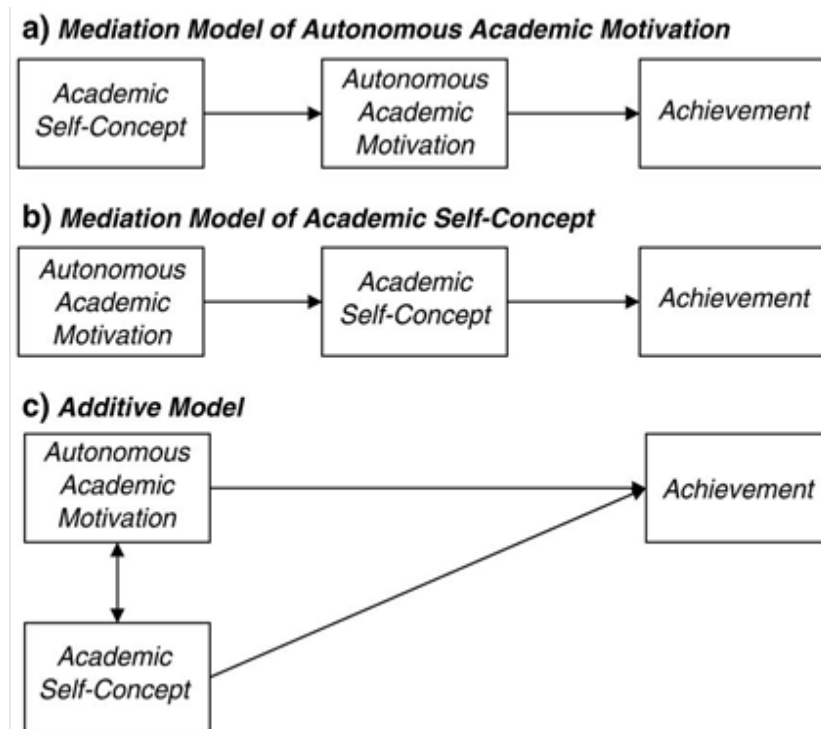
Figure 2.16: Conceptual Models of Relations among Academic Self-Concept, Autonomous Academic Motivation, and Achievement (Guay et al. 2010:646).

The first model, based on SDT and self-concept theory (Marsh, 2007), proposes that autonomous academic motivation mediates the contribution of academic self-concept to academic achievement (see Figure 2a), i.e. pupils who feel competent when performing academic tasks will experience an increase in academic motivation and ,thus, will achieve higher scores on their assignments and exams (Guay et al. , 2010) .The second model posits that academic self-concept plays a meditational role between autonomous academic motivation and achievement (see Figure 2b). Highly motivated pupils are more likely to develop a positive academic self-concept, and consequently improve their school performance (Guay et al., 2010).

The third model is an additive model. It posits that both perceived academic competence (or self-concept) and autonomous academic motivation are associated with academic achievement, i.e. pupils need to perceive themselves both to be competent and motivated to achieve academically (Guay et al., 2010) (see Figure 2c).

To sum up, the important mediating role of motivation in regards of pupils' academic self-perceptions and scholastic performance has been a subject of agreement to the great majority of educational researchers. As the present study is directed to consider Algerian adolescent learners' academic self-beliefs and motivation to learn English, the following section proposes to explore language learning motivation.

2.3.5 Language Learning Motivation (LLM)

In the context of foreign language learning, motivation plays an important part. Gardner (1985) defined language learning motivation (LLM) as ***"the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity"*** (p.10). He believed that language learning motivation requires a learner to ***"devote considerable effort to achieve a particular goal",*** and as such to ***"experience satisfaction in the activities associated with achieving this goal"*** (Gardner & McIntyre, 1993:2). In the absence of effort, learning will remain a wish or desire. This process of transforming the desire into reality has been described as *motivational intensity*.

Language learning motivation is, indeed, a basic tool to language learning success. In such an issue, Dörnyei (2005) argued, ***"Motivation provides the primary impetus to initiate learning the L2 and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process"*** (p. 68). Gardner (2005) affirmed;

> **Pupils with higher levels of motivation will do better than pupils with lower levels because they will expend more effort, will be more attentive, will be more persistent, will enjoy the experience more, will want more to learn the material, will be goal directed, will display optimal levels of arousal, will have expectancies, and will be more self-confident with their performance** (p. 5).

However, it is also considered to be one of the most complex concepts in second language acquisition (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

2.3.5.1 Historical Conceptualizations of Language Learning Motivation (LLM)

Contemporary language learning motivation research has been the outcome of long decades of cross-questioning and investigation. Dörnyei and his colleagues (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015) divided the development of LLM theory and research into three historical phases. The first phase started with the socio-educational model. It was the social-psychological period mostly dominated by the works of Gardner and associates in Canada (see Gardner, 1979, 1985, 2010). Gardner and his colleagues viewed second language learning as a socio-culturally motivated phenomenon, and their initial conception of motivation advocated integrative motivation as the core construct of the motivation to learn a second language (Dörnyei, 2005). They emphasized the role of affective factors stating that motivation is a function of 'integrativeness', aptitude, attitudes towards the learning situation, and instrumentality (Gardner, 2001). The socio-educational model dominated LLM research from the late 1950's to the 1990's. With the rise of the third millennium and rapid globalization, concepts as attitudes towards the target language speakers and their culture and '*integrativeness*' have begun to lose their original explanatory power (Ueki & Takeuchi, 2013). Dörnyei (2010) noted that the interactions in English between so-called native and non-native speakers, along with those between only native speakers, comprise only a portion of global communication today. Contemporary learners of English conceive English, simply, as a communication tool that helps the smooth transition into the new global era. They are in no case obliged to identify to a particular culture or community in the sake of learning the language (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). They stated:

> **Due to the huge 'motivational renaissance' of the 1990s and the current state of flux in educational psychology with the move towards more complex dynamic views of motivation "talking about integrative and instrumental orientations has a rather historical feel about it"** (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011: xi).

By the beginning of the 1990s, language learning motivation research shifted into a new phase, described as the cognitive–situated period (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). The LLM concept moved to contemporary cognitive and educational psychology. This shifting landscape adopted self-determination theory, attributions theory, and self-efficacy theory as alternative models (Boo et al., 2015).

The third phase marked the beginning of the third millennium. Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) characterized this period by the shift to socio-dynamic perspectives. In fact, this phase has put *"emphasis on the dynamic nature of motivation and its temporal variation"* (Dörnyei, 2005:83). This new perspective considers motivation to be dynamic with continuous changes and approached through the examination of *"its relationships with individual learner behaviours and classroom processes"* (Dörnyei, 2005: 83). Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) expressed, *"We need to take care not to portray researchers . . . as part of a coordinated, focused movement, when it was more the case of various diverse concerns emerging at a similar time"* (p. 80). The *'L2 Motivational Self-System'* (L2MSS) has been the current dominant adopted model by Dörnyei and his colleagues in 2005. The model has developed the bases of the previous models. It has its roots in the concepts of *'Possible Selves'* (Markus & Nurius, 1986) and the *'Self- discrepancy theory'* (Higgins, 1987).

The following section deals with the current period that Dörnyei and Ryan's (2015) historical analysis characterized as the emerging socio-dynamic period.

2.3.5.2 Contemporary Conceptualizations of Language Learning Motivation

As mentioned in the above section, the beginning of the 21st century has marked a new era in the study of language learning motivation. The growing globalization and technological revolution have influenced everyday life. Their impact is apparent in all domains in general and education in particular. Being a key component of instruction, language learning, nowadays, is witnessing an extraordinary move in methods and models highly visible in the new approaches that researchers have adopted currently.

New conceptions to language learning motivation have been developed in an attempt to understand the dynamic and ever-changing nature of motivation as well as the subtleties behind today's foreign language learners of English. In this regard, Dörnyei (2005) proposed the *'L2 Motivational Self System Framework'* (L2MSS). He introduced it as a model that *"represents a major reformation of previous motivational thinking by its explicit utilisation of psychological theories of the self, yet its roots are firmly set in previous*

research in the L2 field" (Dörnyei, 2009a:9). In this perspective, Dörnyei focused on the notion of self, arguing that it is a *"reconceptualization of L2 motivation as part of the learner's self-system"* (Dörnyei, 2009a).

The proposed L2 MSS model consists of three main constituents: the L2 ideal self, the ought-to L2 self and the L2 learning experience. According to Dörnyei (2005), *the L2 ideal self* is intrinsic in nature and is related to integrative and instrumental motivation. It is a vivid representation of what the language learner aspires to, and is seen as the most *"powerful motivator to learn an L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between the actual self and ideal selves."* (Dörnyei, 2009a: 29). *The ought-to L2 self* includes "*the attributions a person believes they should have in order to meet expectations or avoid negative outcomes, which is associated with extrinsic motivational orientations* (p. 29). *The L2 learning experience* component includes the "*situated, executive motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience, [and involves] the impact of the teacher, the curriculum, peers, and the experience of success"* (p. 29).

Dörnyei et al (2015) analysed many of the research community's proposals concerning the dynamic paradigm during the first decade of the new millennium. They advanced:

> **By the end of the 2010s, it had become noticeable that while there was a growing body of literature on complex dynamic systems within SLA contexts, very little of this work was empirical in nature. In other words, scholars spent much more time *'talking'* about research in a dynamic systems vein than actually *'doing'*** (Dörnyei et al., 2015:1).

As a result of the growing uncertainty in dynamic systems research*,* Dörnyei and his associates initiated a large-scale project exploring the 'researchability' of dynamic systems. 40 scholars from three continents agreed to participate. The Interested scholars, first, met at the 2013 convention of the American Association of Applied Linguistics in Dallas, Texas, where a well-attended colloquium was co- organised by Dörnyei and MacIntyre to showcase the goals that the project had set out to achieve (Dörnyei et al., 2015:5). The outcome of long discussions gave birth to new language learning motivation perspectives in developing the complex dynamic system theory (CDST).

In referring to the origins of non-linear system dynamics, Dörnyei et al.(2015) stated that it was introduced into second language acquisition (SLA) research under various rubrics such as chaos theory (Larsen-Freeman, 1997), emergentism (Ellis & Larsen-Freeman, 2006), dynamic systems theory (De Bot, Lowie & Verspoor, 2007) and complexity theory (Larsen-

Freeman & Cameron, 2008). In an application of the system dynamics perspective to the field of language learning, De Bot et al. (2007) explained, *"Language can be seen as a dynamic system, i.e. a set of variables that interact over time, and that language development can be seen as a dynamic process"* (p.7).

Dörnyei (2014) clarified that the term **'dynamic system theory'**, originally, borrowed its concept from the field of natural sciences and that the operational objective was to explain the complex and changing nature of language learning in general. He stated that the adopted process is *"bringing the social science more in line with the description of many world phenomena studied by the natural science"* (Dörnyei, Ibrahim & Muir,2014:24). According to the theory, there is no linear relationship between input (e.g. motivation) and output (e.g. achievement) *(*Dörnyei, 2014). On describing this non-linearity, Dörnyei (2014) reasoned, *"A huge input can sometimes result in very little or no impact while at other times even a tiny input can lead to what seems like a disproportionate 'explosion'* (p.:82).

Larsen-Freeman (2015), in her article entitled '*Ten Lessons from Complex Dynamic System Theory'*, mentioned that this new perspective to language learning motivation has been adopted by several researchers who have argued that the CDST model is in a better position to account for language learners' motivation in that it takes into account various factors involved in motivation and their interrelationships over time and space. The main features of the CDST, as listed by Dörnyei et al.(2015), are (1) the 'multi-faceted complexity' of language learning and learners' internal and external factors that influence the learning process, (2) focus on individual learners, (3) merging qualitative and quantitative methods (mixed method), and (4) emphasis on change and development, which involves longitudinal research. (Dörnyei et al., 2015, pp.3-4). Reframing the perspective, Dörnyei, et al.(2015) insisted on the role of individual differences (**IDs)** in language learning motivation stating that the dynamic conception of mutually interacting IDs *"reflects a broader move both within personality psychology and the specific field of SLA towards regarding the individual as well as the attributes within the individual in terms of a complex dynamic system"* (Dörnyei et al.,2015, cited in Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015:11)

Supporters of the complex dynamic system theory of motivation believe motivation should not be considered as a state but rather as a process in which various factors interrelate in an unpredictable way (e.g. Dörnyei et al., 2014; Larsen-Freeman, 2015; Verspoor, 2015). They claimed that the linear approach adopted, in most contemporary researches on motivation, do not comply with the multi-faceted, complex and dynamic nature of language

learners' motivation (Larsen-Freeman, 2015). Clarifying the major topics developed by the new motivation research lines of study, Alderman (2004) stated:

> **Current motivational topics focus around self-focused thoughts. Social-cognitive theory, which assumes a reciprocal relationship among an individual's cognitive and emotional processes, environmental and social factors, and the behaviour or performance of the person, is the primary basis for this text.** (Alderman, 2004:23)

For such a concern, a *'dynamic turn'* in SLA is needed (de Bot et al., 2007). Future research will be directed towards considering motivation from the micro level and account for *"an ontological shift, moving the unit of analysis from the isolated component to the system as a whole"* (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015:11).

Considering the huge advances in the field of language learning motivation, some critics (e.g., Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Sugita McEown et al., 2014; Boo et al., 2015) have pointed out some limitations in previous research. For instance *"no conceptualisation of motivation, to-date, has been able to theorize the fullness of such a construct"* (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011:4). Most of this research has *"conceptualized motivation as a conscious process in which learning English, rather than other languages, is examined within a relatively short duration and using rather 'simplistic' research designs"* (Boo et al., 2015: 156), and thus, *"making cross-theoretical comparisons problematic"* (Sugita McEown et al., 2014).

Current investigations on motivation adopt a new line that expands the parameters of research. It considers, more in depth, individual differences (IDs) factors that could potentially account for motivation variability, such as aptitude, motivation, learning styles, learning strategies, and anxiety (Dörnyei, 2005). This new approach is an alternative to the 'modular' view of IDs which used to be assumed fixed. Learners' characteristics are *"dynamically changing both in responses to context and time and as a result of their interaction with each other"* (Dörnyei, 2009b:231). Thus, the recent perception of motivation can be put forward as questioning *"why, how long, how hard, how well, how proactively, and in what way the learner is engaged in the learning process"* (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015:6). Furthermore, emotions, that were *'kept in the shadows'* of language learning discussions in favour of other variables (Garrett & Young, 2009: 209), are recently witnessing a renewal in interest. Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) stressed this fact when describing emotions as *"the greatest omission"* (p. 9) among individual difference variables, leading the field to suffering from an *"emotional deficit"* (p. 10).

To date, most research on language motivation has, at least implicitly, assumed that the learner is a rational individual who is able to recognize and articulate what motivates him or her (Al-Hoorie, 2017). Recently, mainstream motivational psychology has seen a revival in the interest in unconscious motivation, as an increasing number of psychologists are starting to realize the importance of unconscious motivators (Al-Hoorie, 2015).

Current approaches to motivation need to adopt longitudinal studies for the sake of demonstrating the long-term motivation. De Bot (2012) enunciated:

> **Motivation to learn a language can vary from one moment to another and may be influenced by different types of motivation on different timescales. Long-term motivation may come from career plans, short-term motivation from the wish to pass an exam, an even shorter-term motivation from the wish to express a view in class. The motivation at different timescales interacts with other processes and may vary in strength over time.** (De Bot, 2012:36).

In this vein, Dörnyei, Henry, and Muir (2016) developed the notion of Directed Motivational Currents (DMCs) that they described as flow-like experiences that extend over diverse tasks unified by an overall goal. DMCs are *"unique motivational surges that span over longer timescales and that are not necessarily enjoyable in themselves, as pleasure is derived from the end goal that is external to the activity"* (Al-Hoorie, 2016:6).

In adopting a multi-faceted complex theory perspective in the study of motivation, Dörnyei and his associates (2015) have inaugurated a new era in language learning motivation. Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) anticipated that this new perspective has the potential to keep language motivation researchers busy for the next decade (p. 102).

2.3.6 Motivation and Academic Achievement

The explanation and prediction of the existing correlation between motivation and academic achievement is at the core of all educational motivation theories (Meece, Anderman, & Anderman, 2006). Although a substantial body of research has investigated motivation theories and generated a considerable knowledge on the construct, it has failed to provide clear conclusions on how motivation is predicting academic achievement. In fact, many studies investigating this relationship have shown a significant correlation between these two constructs. For instance, Gottfried (1995) studied the impact of motivation on academic achievement, as well as the differences of gender in the level of intrinsic motivation. The study sample comprised 166 high school pupils. The results of the study indicated the presence of statistically significant positive relationship between motivation and

all of the internal perception of self-efficacy and academic achievement. The results, also, indicated no statistically significant differences between males and females in the level of intrinsic motivation. Guay and Vallerand (1997) examined the relations among perceived competence, autonomy, and academic motivation, and their effect on academic achievement for 9th and 10th grade French-speaking pupils in Canada. Results from the studies supported the motivational model of academic achievement based on SDT. Pupils' perceived competence and autonomy were found to have a positive influence on their academic motivation and, further, predicted their academic achievement. Covington and Miller (2001) elaborated a study to search the relationship between motivation, extrinsic rewards and academic achievement on a sample of 164 university pupils in the university of Illinois-USA. The study found that pupils' intrinsic motivation decreases with the presence of extrinsic rewards such as praise or grades. Results of the study, also, pointed to the existence of a positive relationship between intrinsic motivation and academic performance. Lepper, Corpus and Iyengar (2005) made a similar study to investigate the impact of age differences in intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and the relationships of each to academic outcomes among a sample of 178 pupils from secondary schools in Pennsylvania. The study revealed the existence of a positive relationship between intrinsic motivation and academic achievement. Extrinsic motivation showed few differences across grade levels and proved negatively correlated with academic outcomes. Ratelle, Guay et al. (2007) explored pupils' autonomous, controlled, and amotivated types of motivation, and tested their impact on academic outcomes. The findings revealed that pupils with high levels of autonomous motivation and low levels of controlled motivation presented better academic outcomes than those presenting low levels of autonomous motivation and high levels of controlled motivation. The findings, furthermore, suggested that pupils tend to learn better when they are autonomously or intrinsically motivated. Guay, Ratelle, & Chanal (2008) reviewed the research on the relation between autonomous academic motivation and academic achievement and concluded that there is some support for the fact that prior autonomous academic motivation predicts subsequent academic achievement. More contemporary studies (e.g. Erten, 2014; Momanyi et al., 2015 ; Gupta & Mili, 2016 ; Akhtar et al.,2017 ; Omari et al., 2018) tend to agree on the important role of intrinsic motivation to produce positive academic outcomes without denying the effects of extrinsic motivation on learning outcomes as well. Ryan and Deci (2000a) emphasized this fact declaring that many of the tasks that pupils are required to perform, in academic settings, are not inherently interesting or enjoyable (p.55) and therefore instructors

need to motivate their learners using some extrinsic reward and external encouragement to learn and achieve academically. Even though, many studies (e.g. Wolters, Yu, & Pintrich, 1996; Lepper et al., 2005; Becker, Mcelvany & Kortenbruck, 2010) have demonstrated that pupils who are extrinsically motivated are more likely to have lower academic achievement and to engage in surface learning, nevertheless, the role of extrinsic motivation is not to be neglected in the process of instilling academic motivation in pupils for positive academic outcomes.

On the other hand, there are other studies which suggest that correlations between motivation and achievement are fairly low. In fact, studies investigating this relationship consistently revealed weak correlations between these two variables. For instance, in a study conducted by Pintrich et al. (1993) for the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ), the average correlation between the six motivational beliefs scales and academic achievement was $(r = 0.17)$. Subsequent studies by Wolters and Pintrich (1998) and Wolters (2004) showed similar results (average correlations between motivational beliefs and achievement: $r=0.17$ and $r=0.19$ respectively), suggesting that correlation between motivation and achievement is low. Halawah (2006) examined the effect of motivation, family environment, and student characteristics on academic achievement. The sample comprised (388) secondary school pupils (193) males and (195) females from Abu Dhabi district, UAE. Data were collected through a Likert-type instrument to measure level of motivation, while academic achievement was measured by using pupils' grade point average (GPA). Results demonstrated that the relationship between academic achievement and motivation ($r=0.07$) was very small and the relationship between achievement and family environment ($r=0.15$) and motivation and family environment ($r=0.19$) were statistically significant still partially small. The results of these studies, though mentioned in motivation literature, are in no case undermining the role of motivation which is still being presented as a powerful predictor of students' academic achievement (Zimmerman, 2008).

In addition to the profusion of research investigating the direct correlation of motivation and academic achievement, some researchers explored the mediating role of academic motivation and academic self-concept in academic achievement. In a longitudinal study, Guay et al. (2010) tested the relationships among academic self-concept, autonomous academic motivation, and academic achievement for 925 French-speaking adolescent pupils (404 boys and 521 girls) in the province of Quebec in Canada. They attempted to determine the mediating role of motivation in the association between academic self-concept and

academic achievement. They tested the additive effects of both autonomous academic motivation and academic self-concept on academic achievement. The findings revealed that autonomous academic motivation mediated the relation between academic self-concept and academic achievement. Areepattamannil (2012) examined the mediating role of academic motivation in the relationship between school self-concept and school achievement among 355 Indian immigrant adolescents in Canada and 363 Indian adolescents in India. Correlation analyses revealed the mediating roles of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in the association between academic self-concept and school achievement for Indian immigrant adolescents in Canada, while intrinsic motivation, solely, mediated the relations between self-concept and school achievement for Indian adolescents in India. Amotivation was not a significant mediator for both the Indian immigrant adolescents in Canada and Indian adolescents. In sum, the findings of many current empirical investigations (e.g. Van den Berg & coetze, 2014; Sikhwari, 2014 ; Korantwi-Barimah, 2017; Klapp, 2017; Izuchi & Onyekuru,2017) do confirm the significant correlations between academic motivation, self-concept, and academic achievement and emphasize the mediating role of motivation to effect pupils' subsequent achievement and drive to improve in academic school subjects.

In the field of foreign language learning, most researchers agreed that the level of motivation to learn a foreign language is related to the learners' achievement in language. It is believed that *"without sufficient motivation no other factor on its own can ensure students' achievement"* (Ghenghesh, 2010:128). It is necessary to clarify that language learning is being measured through achievement which is defined as *"something that has been done or achieved through effort and hard work"* (Webster's dictionary of English). Gardner (1985) explained, *"When teachers or researchers assess a student's level of development in the second language, they focus, in a complex way, on the combination of structural knowledge and skill and often on communicative competence* (p.12).

In a study carried by Li and Pan (2009) on the relationship between LLM and achievement, a survey of English majors in Qingdao Agricultural University, involved 65 juniors from two classes, divided into three groups: low achievers, moderate achievers and high achievers according to their TEM-4 grades. Most of them began to learn English when they were in junior middle school. When they accessed   university, there were not so many differences in their records of exam. Then, they chose English as their major for various motivations. Analysis of the results revealed that extrinsic motivation influenced both high and low achievers. It was, also, found out that high achievers had greater intrinsic motivation

than lower ones (p.124). This statement is also in line with Ellis (1994, cited in Li & Pan, 2009) in that learners with a positive attitude have a compelling purpose for learning, which is an intrinsic force to learn a language and those learners will achieve more than the others.

Recently, the new directions to approach pupils' motivation in the field of language learning have introduced new variables related to pupils' self-perceptions in academic settings. For instance, Dörnyei (2014) claimed that *"a major source of any absence of L2 motivation is likely to be the lack of a developed ideal self"* (p. 33). In a study to demonstrate the effect of pupils' positive academic self-perceptions on L2 achievement, De Fraine et al. (2007) examined the development of academic self-concept and language improvement in a Flemish-spoken context where Flemish is the first language. The findings of the study revealed a positive relationship between participants' academic self-concept and their L2 achievement. Erten and Burden (2014), in their turn, investigated the relationship between academic self-concept and L2 achievement in a Turkish context where English is a foreign language. The results of the study suggested that there is a positive association between academic self-concept and L2 achievement. In his study including university level pupils who were majoring at an English medium program, Öz (2016) established a positive relationship between the participants' L2 self and L2 performance. The study concluded that the ideal L2 self, as an individual difference variable, contributes to the improvement of L2 success.

In sum, the primary role of motivation to lead to language learning success is supported by ample evidence (e.g. Csizer & Lukacs, 2010 ; Papi, 2010; Dörnyei, 2014; Huang, Hsu & Chen, 2015). Several researchers have, also, suggested that only motivation directly influences academic achievement and all other external factors affect achievement only through their effect on motivation (Tucker, Zayco, & Herman, 2002).

2.4 Competence-Related Beliefs, Motivation and Academic Engagement during Adolescence

Adolescence is a critical age. It is often a stressful period during development because it involves a transition from childhood to adulthood and self-sufficiency (Smith, Cowie, & Blades, 1998, cited in Pajares & Urdan, 2006:45). As the primary subjects of this study are secondary school adolescent learners, this section proposes to examine the adolescents' overall academic related self-beliefs, motivational orientations and school engagement.

2.4.1 Adolescents' Academic Self-Related Beliefs vs. Academic Engagement

Engagement in school and self-concept are two main constructs to explain pupils' school adjustment (Skinner, Kindermann, & Furrer, 2009). In his study related to the development of young adolescents' motivation and achievement, Ryan (2001) noted that adolescents' academic self-related beliefs and school engagement, mutually and positively, predict extent of school adjustment. He advanced that the relation between self-concept and engagement may change during adolescence.

One of the main concerns of teenagers, during puberty, is their sense of competence and being able to accomplish different tasks and activities. Such concern includes their *"ability beliefs, expectancies for success, and self-efficacy" (*Wentzel & Wigfield, 1998:156). To express their academic abilities and succeed in school assignments, adolescents develop diverse self-regulatory skills, such as goal setting, time management, and self-evaluation capacities (Zimmerman 2000). They adopt powerful strategies to enhance various forms of learning, such as help-seeking, study habits, retrieving information, reading, writing, and test preparation. In this vein, Chen et al (2013) emphasized the importance of an individual's sense of competence as being a critical psychological construct that leads to success in educational settings (Chen, Yeh, Hwang and Lin, 2013).

Due to the specific features of the teenage years*,* adolescents are in a continual evaluation of their competence in different areas. In sum, Elliot and Dweck (2005) defined competency self-perceptions as:

> **a basic psychological need that has a pervasive impact on daily life, cognition and behaviour, across age and culture … an ideal cornerstone on which to rest the achievement motivation literature but also a foundational building block for any theory of personality, development and well-being.** (p. 8)

In educational context, Guay et al (2003) noted that as pupils grow older their academic self-related perceptions become more stable. In a study by Liu and Wang (2005), research findings demonstrated that as pupils move through grades, their academic self-concept tends to rise in the direction of their academic achievement (Liu & Wang, 2005; Jacobs et al. 2002); whereas, other studies highlighted that it tends to become weaker (Marsh & Yeung, 1997; Marsh et al., 2002).

Since adolescence is a period of change and that academic achievement, at this stage, can have significant implications on employment and career opportunities, many pupils, during secondary education, start to worry about their possibilities and plans for their future

careers and realize that, with respect to their age, potential failure and disappointment are at the end of their schooling process. This leads to confusion and little motivation towards school and learning. The unwillingness to learn and demotivation have been associated with boredom as well as poor concentration in class and underachievement. Hidi & Harackiewicz (2000) declared:

> **Research over the last two decades has indicated that adolescents' academic motivation declines over time. . . . Recent studies show that as children get older, their interests and attitudes towards school in general, and towards specific subject areas such a mathematics, art and science, tend to deteriorate.** (Hidi & Harackiewicz, 2000:151, cited in Alderman , 2004)

Many researchers such as Yeung and McInerney (2005) carried out studies to measure the impact of age differences on motivation and academic engagement. They have investigated changes in goal orientations and motivation in pupils aged 12-18 in a Hong Kong context. Findings, at one time point, were that the level of motivation of the 7th grade pupils was significantly higher than that of the 9th grade pupils, which again was higher than the level of motivation of the 11th grade pupils, the fact that demonstrates the decline of motivation of adolescents along the years. They stated, "*It is reasonable to assume that adolescence is a period of time when motivational values, goal orientations, and sense of self are being defined, redefined, challenged, adopted, changed, or abandoned*" (Yeung & McInerney, 2005)

Nonetheless, many researchers recorded that this decline is subject to gender differences. Indeed, several studies demonstrated that, on average, girls do better in school than boys. Girls get higher grades and complete high school at a higher rate compared to boys (Jacobs & Eccles, 2002). Research findings revealed that personality and motivation were found to play important roles in explaining gender differences in school attainment (Steinmayr & Spinath, 2008).

At the secondary school level, pupils need maximum guidance, motivation and supervision to enhance their performance and raise their aspirations to compete with peers. It is the terminal phase to adolescents' school course and their transitional stage to the world of adulthood and important decision making.

2.4.2 Achievement Goals during Adolescence

Researchers, in the field of educational psychology, have developed a variety of theories seeking to understand pupils' academic self-perceptions, motivation and engagement in learning activities, particularly, during adolescence when the pupils' level of motivation starts to decrease (Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008, cited in Mansfield, 2010). Over the last 30 years, goal theory has emerged as one of the most outstanding theories of motivation and school adjustment (Midgley, 2002). According to goal theory, pupil motivation is influenced by their orientation to a type of goal achievement, understood as the reason or purpose in performing tasks and in the application of effort, influencing the quality of their involvement (Kaplan & Maehr, 2007). Achievement goal theory claims that pupils bring different kinds of goals into the classroom (Ames, 1992). These goals have been used to develop understandings about their cognition, behaviour and affect in learning contexts. They focus on developing competence (***mastery goals***) or demonstrating competence (***performance goals***) or avoiding showing incompetence (***performance-avoidance goals***) (Ames, 1992). Achievement goals are essentially what give an activity purpose or meaning (Kaplan & Maehr, 2007). They are directing pupils' achievement-related behaviours along with regulating their motivational orientations and attitudes towards learning and school in general (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996).

Adolescent pupils are influenced by a range of multiple goals that have been shown to influence their motivation and engagement to the different school assignments. They are comprised namely in achievement goals (mastery, performance, performance-avoidance goals, social goals, and future goals

Mastery goals involve developing competence and increasing ***"knowledge and understanding through effortful learning"*** (Murphy & Alexander, 2000:28). They are related to numerous favourable educational outcomes, for instance, involving deep learning strategies, persistence, intrinsic motivation, or academic interest (Hulleman, Schrager, Bodmann & Harackiewicz, 2010). They involve developing competence and increasing knowledge and understanding through vigorous learning. They represent the purposes that pupils perceive for engaging in achievement-related behaviour, such as the desire to develop competence and achieve success (Ames, 1992). Adolescent pupils hold mastery goals when their aim is to truly master the learning task. Pupils who are mastery-oriented are

characterized with high cognitive engagement, high levels of self-efficacy, interest in challenge and problem solving (Anderman, Maehr, & Midgley, 1999).

Performance goals typically reflect *"a desire to gain favourable judgements and avoid negative judgements of one's competence"* (Murphy & Alexander, 2000:28). They are more typical to adolescents. They are associated with high levels of achievement, but also with surface approaches to learning and focus on external rewards (Midgley, Kaplan, & Middleton, 2001). Pupils who are performance-oriented focus on rote memorizing towards preparing for tests rather than necessarily learning material thoroughly. They engage in various forms of cheating, ego-protective behaviours such as self-handicapping or defensive pessimism, and negative attitudes towards learning and oneself as a learner (Martin, Marsh, & Debus, 2001). In addition, they experience both the positive emotions such as deep learning strategies, and intrinsic motivation increase as well as the negative emotions such as anxiety and jealousy. (Vosloo, Ostrow & Watson, 2009; Lee, McInerney, Liem & Ortiga , 2010).

Performance-avoidance goals, on the other hand, are defined as the aim to avoid the demonstration of normative incompetence (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996) which is another facet of the adolescents' deep concern of their self-concept and self-image. It is a situation where pupils try to avoid work and minimize the amount of effort they put into task. Performance avoidance goals have a negative influence on achievement related behaviours, resulting in shallow processing, poor retention, and self-handicapping strategies such as procrastination and reluctance to seek help (Midgley & Urdan, 2001). Performance-avoidant pupils often rely on someone else to complete their work. They simply engage in off-task behaviours, tuning out from lessons, copying the work of peers, frequently seeking teacher or peer help, or attempting to negotiate less demanding assignments (Dowson & McInerney, 2001).

In addition to achievement goals, adolescents adopt other goals that influence their desire to do well. Brophy (2004) expressed:

> **Goal theorists have been expanding their purview on goal content, studying other kinds of goals besides achievement goals. These studies indicate that pupils often adopt other goals in addition to or instead of learning goals or performance goals** (Brophy, 2004:97)..

Adolescent pupils seek, also, to accomplish social goals. Such goals include their (a) desire to comply with the social requirements of the classroom, including following rules and instructions, (b) desire to form and maintain good friendships at school, and (c) desire for

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acceptance and status within the peer group (Anderman, 1999). It is a direct response to their new social orientation where peer group assume an importance to adolescents in different ways.

Both achievement goals and social goals are associated with the actual vision of the adolescent pupils to perceive their future expectations. Indeed, wanting to realize future goals, such as to have a good job, materialistic possessions, financial means, be successful, pursue a particular career or carry further studies at university, is almost determinant to promote pupils to want to do well at school (Miller & Brickman, 2004).

Adolescents' self-perception of academic assignments, inherent engagement in school, and academic achievement are closely related to the type of goals they set for themselves in order to achieve competence in their academic work. Moreover, their discernment of their social responsibility, following rules in the school environment and attaining status in their peer group (Anderman & Kaplan, 2008).

2.5 Conclusion

Chapter two has set up the theoretical framework within which the current research study is conducted by defining a number of key issues related to foreign language learning. In this review of literature, the main focus has been put upon the role of pupils' academic self-perceptions and motivation that have been considered, by most educational, social and motivational psychologists, as important non-cognitive correlates of academic achievement as well as major influential factors in successful second/foreign language learning. The section has, also, reviewed the major models related to both academic self-concept and motivation. It has insisted on the fact that despite of the great advances reached in this particular field, researchers have been constantly confronted with the subtle nuanced associations between academic self-concept and academic achievement, and between academic motivation and academic achievement. Moreover, little research has been devoted to the mediating role of academic motivation in the relationship between academic self-concept and academic achievement. Therefore, a delineation of self-concept, its different theoretical frames and components as well as a description of early and contemporary conceptualizations of language learning motivation have been considered to be essential in explaining the nature and scopes of the constructs. The chapter has been concluded with an outline of a number of moderator factors, namely the pupils' competence-related beliefs, motivation and academic engagement along with their achievement goals during adolescence that proved to be

elemental to understand their effects on adolescent learners' language learning motivation, school adjustment and performance.

CHAPTER THREE

Chapter Three

The Field Work and Data Analysis

3.1 Introduction

The present chapter is thoroughly devoted to the empirical stage of this case study as it is the most important part in this work. At this level of research, investigation takes place, and the research hypotheses are submitted to test. The chapter offers a broad description of the main tools used in this study, namely, the pupils' questionnaires and focus group and EFL teachers' interview besides a comprehensive analysis of the results obtained from the different instruments and their interpretations. In fact, the investigation of the interrelated research questions gave birth to both quantitative and qualitative data and has led to partial conclusions drawn at the end of each investigating tool.

3.2 Methodology and Philosophy Guiding the Study

A thorough apprehension of the different methods employed in social science research, in general, and the area of second and foreign language research, in particular, is imperative to achieve the research goal. In this vein, Bryman (2012) advanced that research procedures and instruments reflect the researcher's particular visions of the world and how he/she comes to know the world. More explicitly, the researcher's philosophical outlook plays a significant role in determining the adopted methods that guide the study (Wilson & MacLean, 2011).

3.2.1 Methodological Design and Research Paradigm of the Study

McMillan and Schumacher (2006) indicated that the research design helps to describe how the study is conducted. It indicates the general plan, namely, how the research is set up, what happens to the subjects, and which methods of data collection are used (p. 22). Thus, the main objective of setting a design is to specify a plan for generating empirical evidence that can be used to answer the research questions. To test the research hypotheses, established in the general introduction, a case study is conducted. The rationale behind this research strategy is that it would allow describing, analysing, and interpreting the facts in an institution of general education. Brown and Rodgers (2002) described the case study as a kind of research that *"comprises an intensive study of the background, current status, and environmental interactions of a given social unit: an individual, a group, an institution or a community"* (p. 20).

The purpose of the present case study is (a) to examine the relationships among academic self-concept, academic motivation, and academic achievement for a sample of

Algerian adolescent learners in an academic setting and (b) to explore their academic self-perceptions, motivation and engagement in learning activities. The research study, thus, required the use of a mixed methods research design. The process of data analysis is carried out basing upon quantitative and qualitative methods. In recent years, the area of second and foreign language research has shifted from quantitative methodology, for the sake of credibility and validation, towards a more frequent use of qualitative work. Dörnyei (2007) pointed out the benefits of combining both quantitative and qualitative methods. He advanced:

> **We gain better understanding of complex phenomenon by converging numeric trends from qualitative data and specific details from qualitative data. Words can be used to add meaning to numbers and numbers can be used to add precision to words**. (Dörnyei, 2007:45)

For the sake of defining a valid research, the most recommended method is to follow the research paradigm. Klenke (2016) pointed out, "*Each paradigm makes assumption about the nature of reality and assumes that the values, a researcher brings to selection of method, participants, data collection, analysis and interpretation influence the research process*" (Klenke, 2016, cited in Dhanapati, 2016). The current study employs pragmatism as its philosophical basis, which is considered as the best paradigm for justifying the use of mixed methods research (Morgan, 1998; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003). Bryman (2006) commented:

> **One of the chief manifestations of the pragmatic approach to the matter of mixing quantitative and qualitative research is the significance that is frequently given to the research question. In doing so, it clears the path for research that combines qualitative and quantitative research** (p. 118).

The pragmatic paradigm aims at depicting the weaknesses in the study and strengthening them by using a mixed method approach (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Referring to Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003)**,** pragmatism is "*a deconstructive paradigm that debunks concepts such as 'truth' or 'reality' and focuses on 'what works' as the truth regarding the research questions under investigation*" (p. 713). In this regard, relating quantitative data to qualitative data, as clarified by Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003)**,** "*provides better inferences and minimizes unimethod bias"*. Therefore, the present study employs a sequential explanatory mixed method design to address the research questions. According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2007), an explanatory sequential design consists of, first,

collecting quantitative data and, then, collecting qualitative data to help explain or elaborate on the quantitative results. Ivankova, Creswell, and Stick (2006) explained the rationale for this model stating, ***"The quantitative data and their subsequent analysis provide a general understanding of the research problem. The qualitative data and their analysis refine and explain those statistical results by exploring participants' views in more depth"*** (p. 5) (see Figure 3.1)
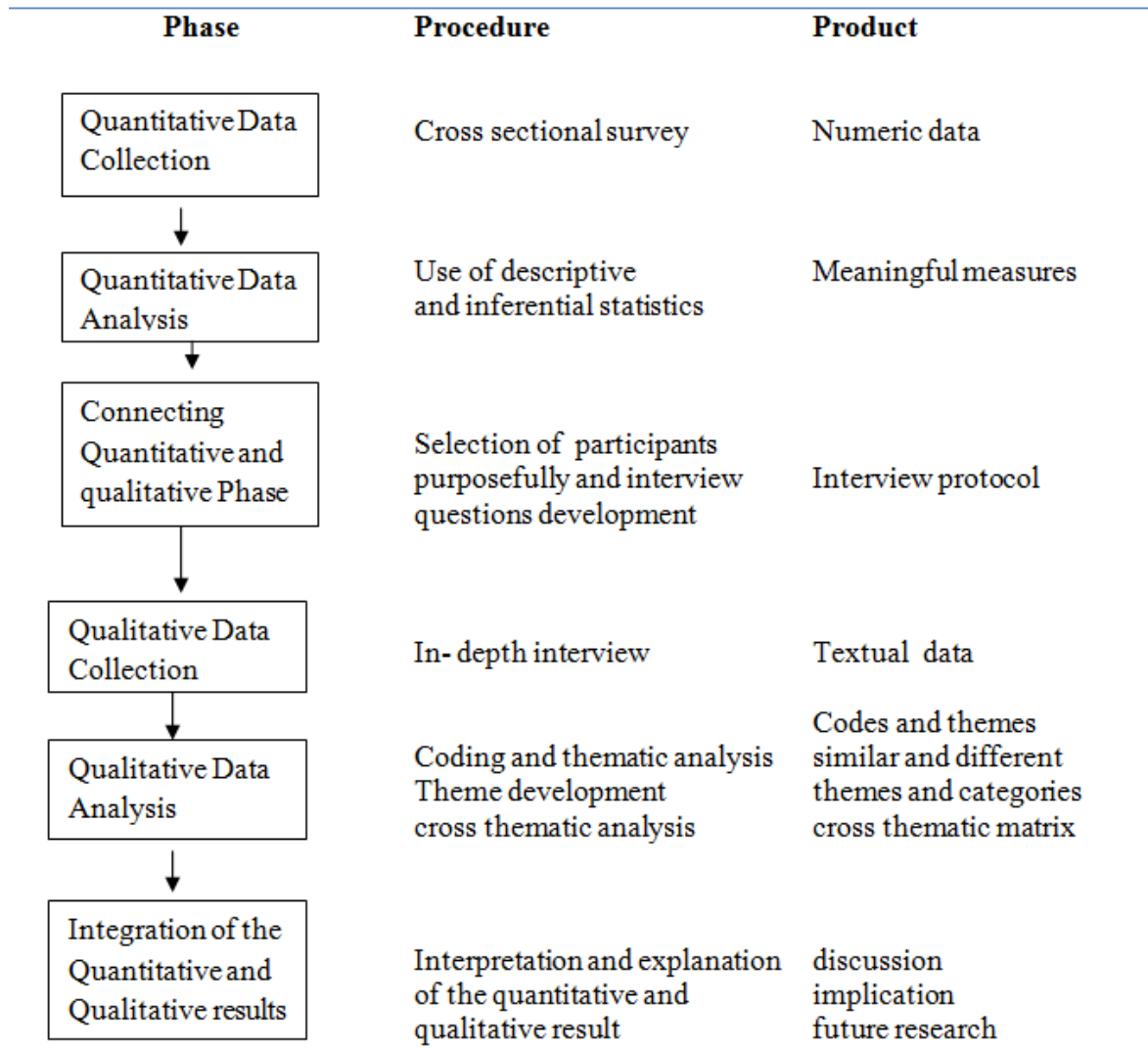
Figure 3.1: Visual Model for the Sequential Explanatory Mixed Method Design. (Ivankova et al., 2006)

3.2.2 Setting, Participants, and Sampling Procedure

The present case study is carried out at Benahmed Bekhedda secondary school in Zemmora, the researcher's home village, where he has been teaching for a period of over 25 years, the fact that has helped him to constitute a clear vision of the actual teaching and

learning of English as a second foreign language. The apparent conclusion, drawn from this experience, underlined pupils' general decline in English language learning year after year.

The school comprises 24 pedagogical units with over 50 teachers of different subjects. Currently, the school employs five EFL teachers for over 600 pupils ranged from year one to year three. The school lacks materials for reference and self-study. There is a school library but there are few books for reference. Moreover, some facilities needed for learning such as computers, library internet and data shows are still insufficient.

The researcher has employed a purposive sampling, as a first step, to select a representative sample of the subjects in this study. This technique, also called judgment sampling, is described as the deliberate choice of an informant due to his/her qualities. Simply put, *"the researcher decides what needs to be known and sets out to find people who can and are willing to provide the information by virtue of knowledge or experience"* (Bernard 2002). The characteristics of the literary streams seem more adequate to serve as a basis to test the hypotheses of this study. The preliminary choice of the suitable population has been supported by a variety of criteria: (a) the pupils' motivation in learning English, being a primary subject, (b) the high coefficient of the subject and the importance given by pupils to English in comparison to the other subjects, (c) the pupils' academic aptitudes, and finally (d) the amount of effort realized by pupils to achieve in this subject.

The second step in choosing the appropriate sample has been to choose three separate pedagogical units denoting the three study levels of the secondary education. The researcher has employed the stratified random sampling technique. It is a process of sampling in which each subgroup is given equal chance to be selected randomly. It gives equal proportionate representation to each stratum. Among nine pedagogical units, representing the different strata in our case, three study level groups have been chosen randomly. They embody the 1st, 2nd and 3rd secondary school literary class levels within the age range of 16-20. 60% of the participants live in Zemmora while the other 40% come from the neighbouring rural areas. The adolescent pupils, actually, are following their study at Benahmed Bekhedda secondary school in Zemmora. They represent the secondary education level, a terminal stage that engenders important decision-making for future expectations and professional careers. The participants' gender and level of study are shown in Table 3.1:

	1stYear	2ndYear	3rdYear	Total	Percentage
Gender					
Male	13	11	10	34	39.09
Female	18	18	17	53	60.91
Total	31	29	27	87	100.0

Table 3.1: Pupils' Level and Gender

3.2.3 Research Instruments

The survey strategy is popular in social sciences. It is associated with deductive research approach. According to Collis and Hussey (2013), the deductive approach is:

> **based on empirical observation and theory generated on conceptual and theoretical structure. Generally researcher intends to test a theory by collecting the fresh data from respondents and observes the findings by applying various statistical tests. This method is generally recommended for specific studies in which researcher works on particular concept by creating assumptions and then verifying those assumptions**. (Collis & Hussey, 2013, cited in Rahi, 2017).

In this research strategy, information is collected by pre-designed questionnaire or interviews. In the case of language learning evaluation, a balanced approach between quantitative and qualitative methods can help researchers find relevant data about their object of study. According to Marshal and Rossman (2006), a case study *"may entail multiple methods: interviews, observations, document analysis, even surveys"* (p. 56).

The choice of research instrument is guided by the type of study being conducted and the research questions (Clark-Carter, 2001). This study, therefore, adapted standardized questionnaires for the first phase of data collection to survey the adolescent pupils. The second phase consisted of semi-structured interviews based on the participants' responses to the questionnaires.

3.2.4 Data Collection

The study required two phases of data collection; quantitative data collection (i.e., survey questionnaires) followed sequentially by qualitative data collection (i.e., interviews).

3.2.4.1 First Phase: Quantitative Data Collection

To obtain more reliable answers to the study problematic, two questionnaires were used for quantitative data collection. They were outlined as follows:

- *Pupils' Self-Description Questionnaire (SDQII)*

The first instrument of research, used in this study, was the pupils' Self-Description Questionnaire (see Appendix A). This tool was started with a pre-section about the pupils' demographic information including their gender, age and secondary study level along with two parts. Part A, dealing with the pupils' academic aptitudes, required the respondents to describe their level in both English and overall school subjects besides, reporting their English average and overall GPA for the two first terms of the academic year 2017 /2018. Part B dealt with the pupils' self-description. It contained 10 items adapted, to the Algerian context, from the Self- Description Questionnaire (SDQII) developed by Marsh and colleagues (1992) to measure English and mathematics self-concept among adolescents. The modified version assessed only 10 items out of 102 from the original scale. It emphasised the academic aspects of English self-concept. Founding on several studies (e.g. Marsh & Yeung, 1997), Marsh and colleagues suggested that research measuring academic self-concept should be domain-specific since specific aspects of SC correlate more highly with corresponding academic achievement. The scale has been widely used and is reported by many scholars and researchers to have high validity and reliability values. The section was designed to elicit pupils' academic self-perceptions in learning English. The academic self-concept (ASC) scale, used in the study, consisted of two subscales (AC and AE) to measure pupils' academic competence and academic effort. The academic competence subscale measured pupils' perceptions towards their English academic ability and the academic effort subscale was used to assess their interest in English schoolwork. The items were rated on a scale ranging from 1 = *Definitely False* to 5= *Definitely true*.

- *Pupils' Academic Motivation Scale: High School Version (AMS)*

The second instrument of research, used in this study, was set to measure the pupils'academic motivation scale (see Appendix B). It employed the Academic Motivation Scale–high school version (AMS; Vallerand et al., 1992). This measure of motivation was, originally, developed in French, namely 'Echelle de Motivation en Education (EME). The

AMS is the English translation of the original EME (Vallerand et al., 1992, 1993). Based on the self-determination theory, developed by Ryan and Deci (2000), this 28-item instrument was divided into three subscales reflecting intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and amotivation. Actually, the research study has adopted a modified version of AMS. This tool was started with a pre-section about the pupils' demographic information along with two parts. Part A: pupils' motivation in learning English where they were required to give their opinions by degrees of agreement about learning the English language according to a 5 point Likert scale type. Part B included 9 items designed to gather information about pupils' reasons why they go to school. The items were rated on a scale ranging from 1 = *Does not correspond at all* to 5= *Corresponds exactly.*

3.2.4.2 Second Phase: Qualitative Data Collection

For the sake of qualitative data collection, the study employed follow-up focus group interviews for the pupils and semi-structured interview sessions for their EFL teachers. Interviews bring the researcher closer to the respondents and help the exploring of participants' attitudes, beliefs, opinions and preferences, unlike the questionnaire, which maintains a degree of distance between researcher and respondents (Bryman, 2012). Semi-structured interviews occur in the middle position between the structured interview, where responses are highly controlled, and the in-depth interview where responses are open-ended to a certain extent. It is a flexible tool for data collection in the form of conversation, wherein the questions are predetermined but can be modified depending on the responses of the participants (Robson, 2011).

Discrete focus group samples were drawn from the secondary school pupils' sample. They represent the three levels: 1st, 2nd and 3rd secondary school class study levels. Purposive sampling is the most appropriate sampling strategy in this situation (Wilson & Maclean, 2011). This data collection technique, consisting of a semi-structured group interview process, is mainly employed to encourage interaction among participants, enhance the quality of the data, and elicit the pupils' perspective (Barbour, 2005). Merton, Fiske, and Kendall (1990) stated:

> **A focus group should not be so large as to be unwieldy or to preclude adequate participation by most members nor should it be so small that it fails to provide substantially greater coverage than that of an interview with one individual** (p. 137).

Focus groups have also been suggested as an especially appropriate methodology with children and adolescent research participants, who may be reluctant to engage in conversation in individual interviews (Jamieson et al., 2002). Concerning the teachers' interviews, the procedure involved the four EFL teachers practising at Benahmed Bekhedda secondary school.

These tools were carried out in such a way to collect the necessary quantitative and qualitative data to contribute to a better understanding of the conceptual framework.

3.2.5 Data Collection Procedure

The pilot study is a significant aspect of the research design process for it allows the practicability of the instrument to be tested and the validity and reliability of the items to be determined (Cohen & Duun, 2011). This process involves assessing the clarity of the items, eliminating ambiguities, identifying omissions, evaluating the comprehensibility of the instructions and obtaining general feedback (Bryman, 2012).

3.2.5.1 Piloting the Survey Questionnaires

After obtaining permission, to conduct the study and to administer the questionnaires at Benahmed Bekhedda secondary school, the researcher delivered the two survey questionnaires to the pupils in classroom setting. The questionnaires were administered to the different study year levels separately. The participants were recommended to answer the items individually since the questionnaires required the pupils' personal opinions. They were explained the objectives of the study and assured that their identities and the results would be treated confidentially. All of the pupils, in each study year, received the same instructions and input. The questionnaires were distributed to the pupils on the last week before spring holidays so that that it would be the best way to ensure pupils' optimum cooperation. To assure pupils' best understanding of what was required from them, the questionnaires were written in English and explained, gradually in Arabic, to guarantee a maximum of cooperation and valid answers. The respondents were asked, at first, to mention their gender; age, and study years on the questionnaire in order to match the academic achievement scores to the appropriate participant.

The pupils were asked to specify their reaction to each item by encircling the appropriate corresponding number in the spaces provided. They were explained that these

questionnaires were not tests; therefore, there were neither right nor wrong answers. The adolescent pupils had simply to express their opinions. They were counselled that the different items of the questionnaires were quite supportive to relate their academic abilities in English learning and overall school subjects. They were, also, requested to demonstrate uprightness in expressing their responses to each item. The questionnaires required, approximately thirty minutes to complete. At the end of the sessions, all questionnaires were collected after being completed by the pupils who were warmly thanked for their highly appreciated cooperation and participation.

3.2.5.2 Conducting the Pupils' Follow-up Focus Group Interviews

The sample, for the interview phase, was derived according to the results of the analysis of the questionnaires. The interview sessions did not require a large sample of respondents, in the study, since the aim was to explore pupils' self-beliefs about their academic abilities in learning English besides some of the factors that could influence their scholastic performance. Thus, the pupils whose scores identified them as either underachievers or overachievers were invited to participate in the different focus groups. The researcher, purposefully, designed groups in regard to pupils' gender and academic achievement, i.e. the researcher made sure to obtain the three achievement groups along with both sex participants within the same focus group. A total of three focus group interviews have been conducted: one focus group session with each secondary school class level. Each focus group comprised four participants (2 males and 2 females representing the different achieving groups) (see Table 3.2). The participants, who gave their consent to participate in the focus group interview sessions, were explained that participation was voluntary, and that they were free to withdraw from the study at any time without any consequences. They were informed that they were not obliged to answer any questions that they find unpleasant or which make them feel uncomfortable. They were, also, explained that a pseudonym will replace their names on all data that they would provide to preserve their anonymity. The purpose of the study was, then, expounded to their satisfaction.

The interviews were carried out in several sessions along the last term of the school year 2017/2018 at a time that was convenient to all of the participants. Every focus group session lasted for approximately 40 minutes.

An interview guide (see Appendix C) was designed to guide the interviews. The researcher, being the interviewer, led the focus group sessions. An EFL teacher proposed to be present to be note-taker. Clark-Carter (2001) suggested that since the quality of information depends mainly on the interviewer, he/she is required to motivate the participants in order to reduce the interview effect while establishing an effective rapport. Therefore, it is important for the interviewer to structure the questions in a way that the participant can understand in order to obtain adequate responses that are easy to analyse (Bryman, 2012). For this reason, the questions were made in a way to avoid ambiguity and confusion among the participants. Light refreshments and soft drinks were made available so that to generate a stress-free atmosphere.

	1ˢᵗYear Level		*2ⁿᵈYear Level*		*3ʳᵈYear Level*	
	Male	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**
Focus Group # 1	2	2	2	2	2	2
Focus Group # 2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Focus Group # 3	2	2	2	2	2	2

Table 3.2: Focus Group Participants

3.2.5.3 Conducting the EFL Teachers' Semi-Structured Interviews

By the time, the principal focus of the study was on the pupils' perspectives to consider their self-beliefs about their academic abilities; the teachers' interviews (see Appendix D) were conducted in such a way to crosscheck the adolescent pupils' responses to the survey questionnaires. Interviews were conducted in the teachers' respective classrooms shortly after the last term exams. Each session lasted approximately 40 minutes and was captured through handwritten notes.

The interview sessions focused on the EFL teachers' respective insights on their teaching methods, learners' aptitudes and motivation to learn the target language. All teachers expressed their deep appreciation of this opportunity to share their thoughts and reflections of their experiences and teaching methods.

3.2.5.4 Pupils' Academic Achievement Scores

The Pupils' academic achievement scores, used in this study, have been the actual respondents' results obtained during the different examinations of the school year 2017/2018.

The data represented the average scores of each pupil in English and overall GPA. The score in each subject was graded 100%, of which 60% was based on the scores of the standardized tests, continuous assessment, and project oral presentations while 40% embodied the examination results. The two scores were obtained for each participant and the average was designed as their academic achievement scores. Although the criteria of test items differ, in the school, from teacher to teacher, they were derived from the same curriculum and moderated by a common standard of assessment norms imposed by the ministry of education.

3.2.6 Data Analysis

The first phase of data analysis began with the analysis of quantitative data collected from the survey questionnaires. The second phase focused on the analysis of qualitative data gathered from pupils' follow-up focus group interviews and EFL teachers' semi-structured interviews.

3.2.6.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

The preliminary phase incorporated the statistical analyses of the items related to the conceptual variables of the study, namely, self-concept and motivation. The different items from the survey questionnaires were coded according to a Likert-type scale. The classification, in terms of gender (male/female) and achievement groups (high /moderate /low achievers), enabled the interpretation of pupils' scores. The items were designed in a 5 point likert form to illustrate the intensity of the sample's responses in a linear direction, from definitely false to definitely true. The average response score, used in categorising the data into positive and negative, was a mean score of 2.5. Correspondingly, any value greater than 2.5 was perceived as positive while any score equal to or less than 2.5 was considered to be negative. Considering the negative items, the action is inversed, that is, any value greater than 2.5 was perceived as negative while any score equal to or less than 2.5 was considered to be positive. These categorisations were done based on the recommendations of Pallant (2001) regarding the interpretation of descriptive statistics. The scores on both conceptual variables are classified in Table 3.3:

Conceptual Variables		Likert Scale Values	Questionnaires' items	
Self-concept scale	**Low**	1.0 - 2.0	**Positive items**	**HEAC :**1, 2, 10 **HEAE :**4, 6, 9
	Moderate	2.0 - 3.0		
	High	3.0 - 5.0	**Negative items**	**LEAC:**3, 5 **LEAE:** 7 ,8
Motivation scale	**Low**	1.0 - 2.0	**Positive items**	**IM :** 1, 3, 5 **EM:** 2, 7, 8
	Moderate	2.0 - 3.0		
	High	3.0 - 5.0	**Negative items**	**AMOT:** 4, 6, 9

Note.   **HEAC**= High English academic competence, **LEAC**= Low English academic competence, **HEAE**= High English academic effort, **LEAE**= Low English academic effort, **IM** = Intrinsic motivation, **EM** = Extrinsic motivation, **AMOT**= Amotivation,

Table 3.3: The Scores on Conceptual Variables:

The different scores have been analysed using the descriptive statistics. According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2003), a descriptive statistics is "***a statistical technique that is used to analyse data by describing or summarizing the data from a sample. It is a technique that, basically, uses words, numbers, graphs or charts to show existing pattern or relationship***". The Likert-type scale helps to present the analysed data using the frequency tables, means, and simple percentages. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 19.0 has been employed to analyse the quantitative data from pupils' self-concept and motivation questionnaires. The descriptive analysis has been performed to compute means and percentages of the adolescent pupils' academic self-concept and motivation. The second analysis employed bivariate correlations between independent and dependent variables, in the study, to evaluate the existing correlation between pupils' self-concept and motivation scales and their academic attainment as well as to assess gender differences on the pupils' academic self-beliefs, motivational orientations, and achievement. The main statistical analyses addressed the first three research questions of the study.

3.2.6.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

The following research questions guided the qualitative phase of the study:

***Research question # 4*:** What are the sample adolescent learners' self-perceptions in regard to the factors that they believe they can foster their academic self-concept, motivation, and academic achievement?

*Research question # 5***:** What are the EFL teachers' perceptions of their learners' academic self- concept and its possible implications on their scholastic performance?

A thematic analysis, a qualitative analytic method, has been used to examine the data from both the pupils' follow-up focus group interviews and EFL teachers' semi-structured interview sessions. This analytical method is defined as ***"a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data"*** (Braun & Clarke, 2006:79). They remarked:

> **Thematic analysis can be a realist method, which reports experiences, meanings and the reality of participants, or it can be a constructionist method, which examines the ways in which events, realities, meanings, experiences and so on are the effects of a range of discourses operating within society.** (Braun and Clarke , 2006: 81)

. The method was employed, mainly, to interpret the major influence of self-concept and motivation on pupils' attitudes towards the target language and school engagement as well as to examine the actual EFL teachers' insight of their learners' academic self-beliefs and their direct implication in their academic attainment and English language learning success.

3.3 QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

This section presents the quantitative findings of the study based on the following three research questions:

*Research question # 1***:** To what extent do the sample pupils in the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd secondary school year study levels differ in terms of their academic self-concept, academic motivation, and academic achievement?

*Research question # 2***:** Can the association of academic self-concept and motivation predict the level of academic achievement of the sample of adolescents in all three secondary school levels?

*Research question # 3***:** Are there statistically significant differences in the level of academic self-concept, motivational orientations, and academic achievement in relation to gender among the sample pupils in the three secondary school year study levels?

The different sections are the treatment of all data collected from the survey questionnaires that were completed by the pupils at Benahmed Bekhedda secondary school. The quantitative analysis of the data is presented in two parts: the first part includes the

analysis of pupils' responses to the survey questionnaires that were analysed by means of the SPSS using tables, means, and percentages for each item. The second part concerns the correlation analysis of the data related to the conceptual variables of the study. The data were rated and scaled to interpret the major secondary school adolescent learners' academic self-perceptions, motivation and engagement in learning activities.

3.3.1 Interpretation of the Results from the Survey Questionnaires

In order to differentiate the findings for the different study year groups, the results for each of the three study year levels have been investigated separately and presented accordingly.

3.3.1.1 Interpretation of Pupils' Self-Description Questionnaire (SDQII)

The first section of the questionnaire was designed to provide ample information on the participants' gender, age and level of study for each group. The total number of the surveyed adolescent pupils was 87 of which 53 were females (60.91%) °and 34 were males (39.09%). The participants' age range is illustrated in Table 3.4:

	1st Year Level	2nd Year Level	3rd Year Level
	n=31	n=29	n=27
Age range	15 - 17	16 - 18	17 - 19
Mean Age	**15,85**	**16 ,23**	**18,21**

Table 3.4: The Participants' Age Range within the Different Study Groups

- *Pupils' Self-perceptions of their Academic Aptitudes*

The section, dealing with the pupils' academic aptitudes, aimed at identifying the adolescents' description of their academic abilities in both English and overall school subjects besides, reporting their English average and overall GPA for the two first terms of the school year 2017 /2018.

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Item 1: How would you describe your level in English?

Pupils' description of their English abilities is clearly visualized in Figure 3.2:
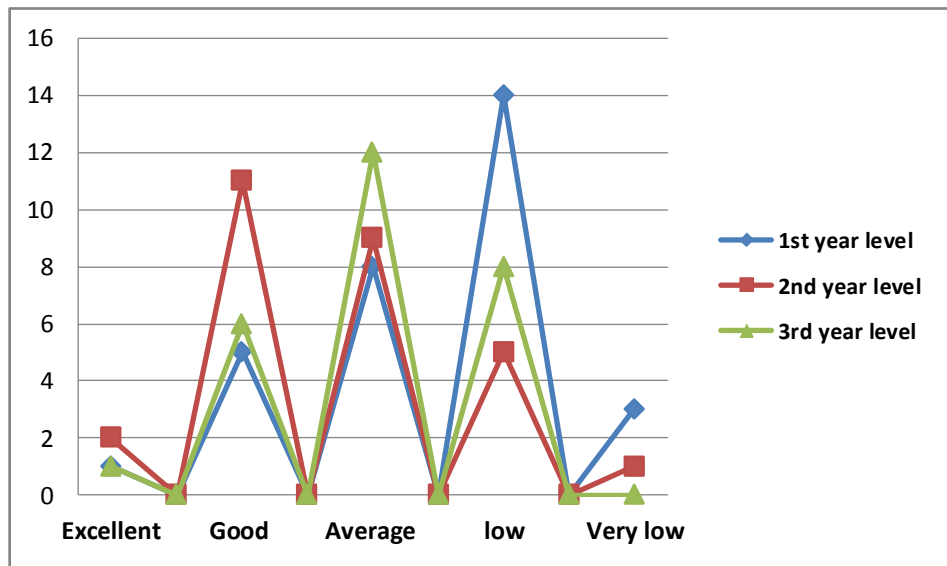
Figure 3.2: Pupils' Perceptions of their English Level

Figure 3.2 reveals that 16 respondents representing (48.1%) of the first year level adolescent pupils reported to have a low level in English and (42.8%) of the pupils in the second year level considered their level to be good while (44.4%) of the third year level adolescent stated that they have an average level in English. In sum, the secondary school adolescent pupils reported to have an average academic ability in English.

Item 2: How would you describe your overall level in the different school subjects?

Pupils' description of their overall level in the different school subject is clearly visualized in Figure 3.3:
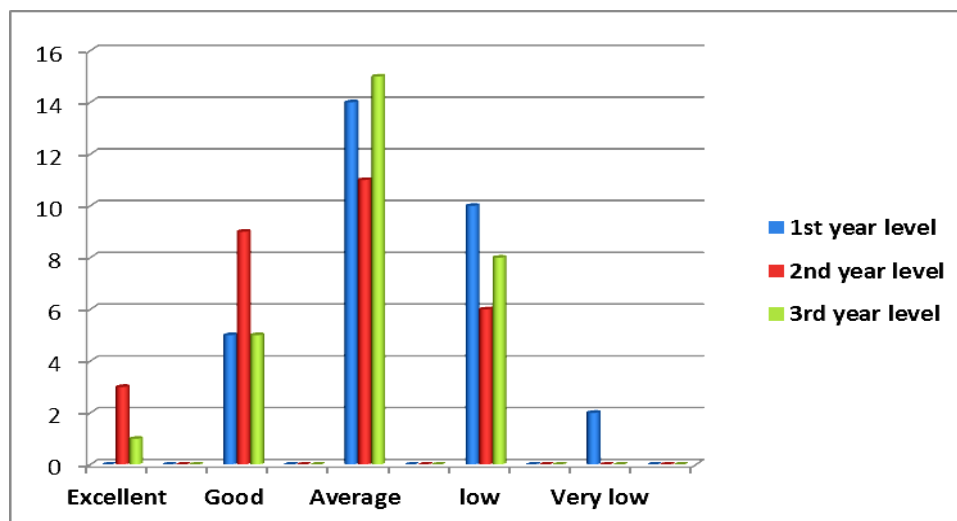
Figure 3.3: Pupils' Perceptions of their Overall Level in the Different School Subjects

Figure 3.3 discloses that almost half of the pupils along the three study levels (54.1%,, 48.2%, 55.5% respectively) considered their academic abilities, for the different school subjects, to be average. Thus, the adolescent informants stood in a half way position believing their academic abilities in both English and the different school subjects to be strictly average.

- *Pupils' Self-Description of their English Academic Self-concept*

The section, dealing with the pupils' self-description, aimed at identifying the adolescent informants' academic self-concept scale, used in the study, which consisted of two subscales: pupils' academic competence (AC) and academic effort (AE) in learning the English language. The different items have been computed employing mean and standard deviation values.

As shown in Table 3.5, third year level pupils had, noticeably, higher mean values for the items relating to their perceived academic competence and overall English self-concept (M=3.21, SD=1.13). (61.24%) of third year pupils responded positively to the different items that were intended to discern their interest in the subject, namely, items SC1, SC2 and SC10. Besides, (64.58%) of them seemed to hold an almost constructive perception of their academic effort, typically, for items SC4, SC6, and SC9 (M=3.55, SD=0.52). Second year level pupils, on the contrary, had the lowest mean values for their self-reported academic competence and self-concept (M=2.03, SD=1.06); nevertheless, their perceived academic effort is positive as (59.33%) of them retorted positively to items

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SC4, SC6, and SC9 (*M*=3.53, *SD*=1.11). (56.67%) of them expressed quite moderate perceptions as to items SC7 and SC8 (*M*=2, 35, *SD*=1.21). Concerning the first year level pupils, they tended to have slightly moderate self-perceptions of their competence explicitly for items SC1, SC2 and SC10 (*M*=2.61, *SD*=1.36) in addition to items SC4, SC6 and SC9 involving their self-perceived academic effort (*M*=3.0, *SD*=1.43) (see Table 3.5).

ASC scale	Items	1ˢᵗ year level		2ⁿᵈ year level		3ʳᵈ year level	
		M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
HEAC	**SC1**	3,03	1,47	2,8	0,9	3,72	1,06
	SC2	2,2	1,31	3,4	1,1	3,6	1,10
	SC10	2,6	1,30	2,71	1,2	2,33	1,24
Total Mean		**2.61**	**1.36**	**2.03**	**1.06**	**3.21**	**1.13**
LEAC	**SC3**	3,26	1,48	2,17	1,03	1,88	1,21
	SC5	2,6	0,89	1,69	0,85	2,11	1,02
Total Mean		**2.9**	**1.18**	**1,93**	**0.96**	**1,99**	**1.11**
HEAE	**SC4**	2,53	1,0	3,82	0,96	4,33	0,76
	SC6	2,83	1,41	3,27	1,16	4,22	0,45
	SC9	3.0	1,43	3,51	1,21	2,11	0,97
Total Mean		**2.78**	**1.20**	**3.53**	**1.11**	**3.55**	**0.52**
LEAE	**SC7**	2,23	1,50	2,34	1,28	2.03	1,12
	SC8	2.0	1,22	2.,37	1,14	2.5	1,40
Total Mean		**2,11**	**1.36**	**2,35**	**1.21**	**2.26**	**1.26**

Note. **ASC** = academic self-concept **HEAC**= High English academic competence, **LEAC**= Low English academic competence, HEAE= High English academic effort, **LEAE**= Low English academic effort,

Table 3.5: Respondents' English Academic Competence and Academic Effort

Further, in order to determine whether there is a significant level of variance in pupils' English self-concept over the different year study levels, the overall means and standard deviations of the different academic English subscales of the pupils, in the different year study levels, are presented in Table 3.6:

EASC scale	1ˢᵗ year level		2ⁿᵈ year level		3ʳᵈ year level	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Overall EAC	**2.69**	**1.28**	**2.78**	**1.06**	**3.38**	**0.82**
Overall EAE	**2.5**	**1.27**	**2.14**	**1.08**	**2.12**	**1.18**

Note. **EASC**= English academic self-concept **EAC**= English academic competence **EAE**= English academic effort

Table 3.6: Respondents' Overall English Academic Self-concept Scale

As shown in the table, third year level pupils had, apparently, higher mean values for their overall perceived English competence (M=3.38, SD=0.82). They have shown to possess a quite positive insight of their academic abilities in learning the target language. Such an insight is mainly reinforced by the fact that English is a major discipline in the pupils' overall school subjects. Yet, their expression of their sensed academic effort, in learning English, seemed to be quite moderate (M=2.12, SD=1.18). Second year level pupils, noticeably, reported middling mean values for both their academic competence (M= 2.78, SD=1.06) and perceived academic effort (M=2.14, SD= 1.08). As for the first year level pupils, they tended to have slightly moderate self-perceptions of their competence (M=2.69, SD=1.28) and academic effort (M=2.5, SD=1.27). This sentiment is, characteristically, fed by their confused feelings generated mostly by the shift from middle school to the secondary school.

3.3.1.2 Interpretation of Pupils' Academic Motivation Scale (AMS)

The section aimed at identifying the pupils' self-beliefs on their English learning motivation. It included the description of the importance they give to learning English, besides, reporting their different attitudes towards the language, their actual aptitudes, and finally the amount of effort they put on in acquiring the target language.

- *Pupils' Motivational Orientations*

Item 1: Why Do You Learn English?

This item aimed at identifying the pupils' different motivational orientations including intrinsic and extrinsic types of motivation. To disclose such orientations, the informants were requested to select their reasons from a suggested list of possibilities. The results are shown in Table 3.7:

Reasons	1stYear Level		2nd Year Level		3rd Year Level	
	F	**%**	**F**	**%**	**F**	**%**
a. To do well in my examination	17	54.8	20	68.92	11	40.7
b. A compulsory subject in the syllabus and the final exam	23	74.1	6	20.6	3	11.1
c. Interest in English language, people and culture	10	33.3	15	51.7	17	62.9
d. To expand my linguistic skills	9	29.0	12	41.3	9	33.3
e. For the future job	13	41.9	12	41.3	14	51.8
f. To study abroad	8	25.8	5	17.2	4	14.8

Note.   **F** = Frequency, % =percentage

Table 3.7: Pupils' Motivational Orientations

Table 3.7 reveals that (74.1 %) of the first year pupils concentrated on the reason that English is a compulsory subject in the syllabus and the final exam. The second and third main reasons were linked to their concern with marks and their future careers for (54.8%) of them said it was to do well in their examination and (41.9%) was for their future job. Only (33.3%) of the pupils affirmed that the English subject could help them to interact with English people and culture while (29 %) reported that they were learning English to expand their linguistic skills. In short, the motivational orientations possessed by the first year sample adolescent pupils were quite extrinsic and instrumental in nature.

(68.92%) of the second year pupils focused on doing well in their examination as a major reason to learn English, yet, they showed, also, intrinsic interest as their second and third main reasons were linked to their interest in English people and personal language development. (51.7%) of the participants believed Learning English to be a good way to merge in the English culture and (41.3%) of them considered it to be a means to expand their linguistic skills. The next specific reason that incited pupils to learn English was their concern with their future job. Only (20.6%) of the pupils perceived it as a compulsory subject in the syllabus and the final exam.

(62.9%) of the third year pupils expressed their interest in the language as a medium to interrelate with its native speakers and culture; nonetheless, they did focus on the reason that English would be an important asset for their future careers (51.8%) and a means to

achieve success (40.7%). One possible reason to these motivational orientations could be related to their uncontrolled anxiety vis-à-vis the Baccalaureate exam and fear of failure.

- ***Pupils' Self-awareness of the Importance of Learning English***

Item 2: How Important is learning English to you?

Presently, this item aimed at identifying pupils' self-awareness of the importance of learning English in their personal linguistic development and academic performance. The findings are graphically represented in Figure 3.4:
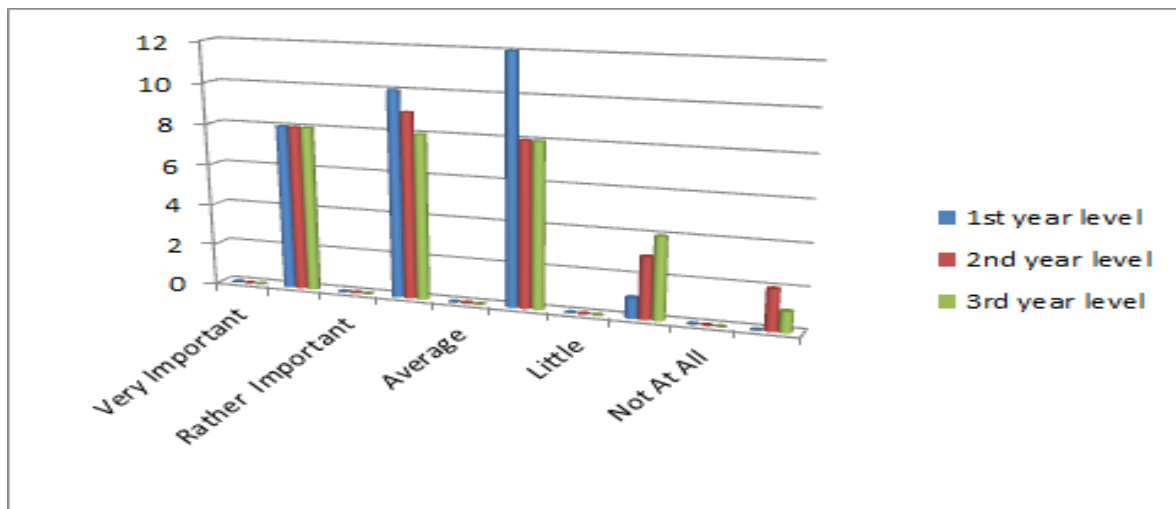
Figure 3.4: Respondents' Perceived Importance of Learning English

Figure 3.4 displays that (58 %) of the first year level pupils qualified learning English as important to them. While (38.7 %) stated it was normal and, thus, stood in half way position. Only (3.2 %) of pupils did not highly evaluate the importance of English learning stating that it was of little importance to them. Fortunately, none of them thought it was not important at all. Second year level pupils had similar perceptions of learning English. (58.5%) of them perceived it as important to them while (27.5 %) believed it was normal. Four respondents considered it of little importance though they were foreign language stream pupils. Third year pupils had even similar perceptions though five participants considered it of little importance to them.   .

In sum, the pupils along the different levels, appeared to value the importance of learning English. Nevertheless, such an importance, in learning the language, seems to decrease year after year (see Figure 3.4).

- *Pupils' Self-perceptions of their Aptitude to Learn English*

 Items 3: How would you describe your aptitude to learn English?

When responding to this item, (42 %) of the first year level respondents estimated that they had high aptitudes to learn English. (45.1 %) of them seemed to have ordinary aptitudes. Only (12, 8%) of the participants stated that their aptitudes to learn English were of low level. For the second year level pupils, the general perception of their aptitudes gave the impression to be quite normal. Only (34.3 %) of them appeared to display high aptitudes. (48.1 %) of the third year level pupils showed higher aptitudes to learn English though the second half of them (45.1 %) assumed they had ordinary or even low aptitudes.
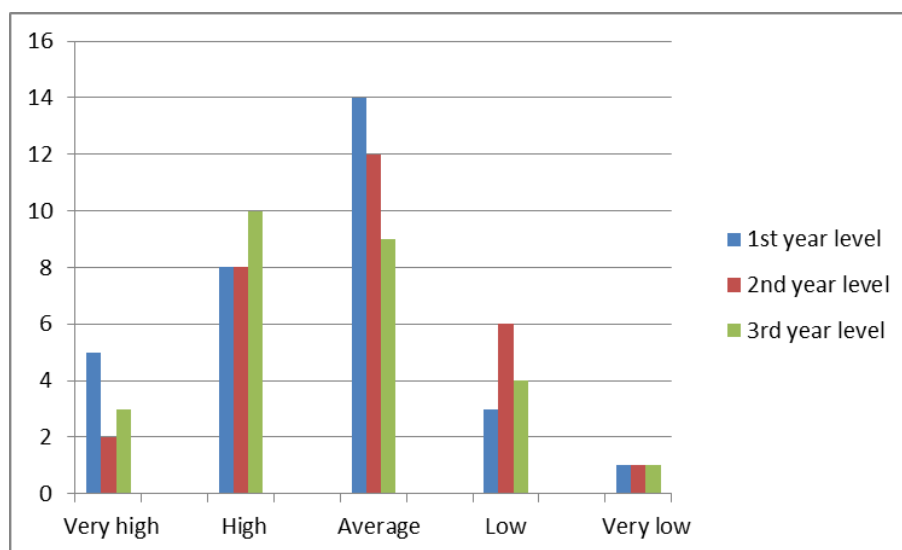
Figure 3.5: Respondents' Aptitude to Learn English

In general, the pupils in the different study levels believed in their ability to learn English. When evaluating their capacity in learning the foreign language, they seemed to depend on their results in this subject as many of them, even, stressed its significance for their future careers (see Figure *3.5*).

- *Pupils' Self-descriptions of their Attitudes towards Learning English*

Item 4: How would you describe your attitude towards learning English?

As shown in Figure 3.6 both second and third level pupils hold positive attitudes towards learning English. Very few of them considered it as normal or negative. First year

level pupils appeared to hold rates of positive attitudes as (54.8 %) of them hold quite normal outlooks or even negative views towards the target language.
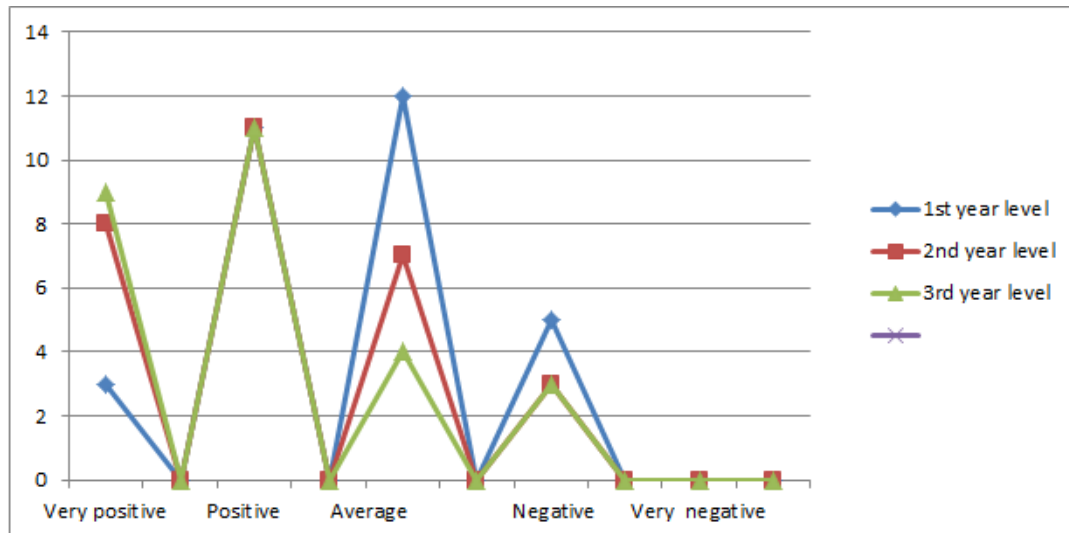
Figure 3.6: Respondents' Attitudes towards Learning English

One possible interpretation of such a disposition is their confused perceptions imposed upon them by their shift from on stage to another. They need more time to adapt to the new environment.

- ***Pupils' Self-perceptions of their English Learning***

Item 5:   How would you describe your effort in learning English?

Along with positive attitudes and high aptitudes goes the amount of effort furnished by pupils in EFL classroom context and even out of it. The degree of language learning achievement depends thoroughly on the degree of effort pupils put in their learning. Therefore, the aim of this item was toxxxxxxxx corroborate adolescent pupils' claims and opinions considering their EFL learning or simply refute them. The results are demonstrated in Figure 3.7:
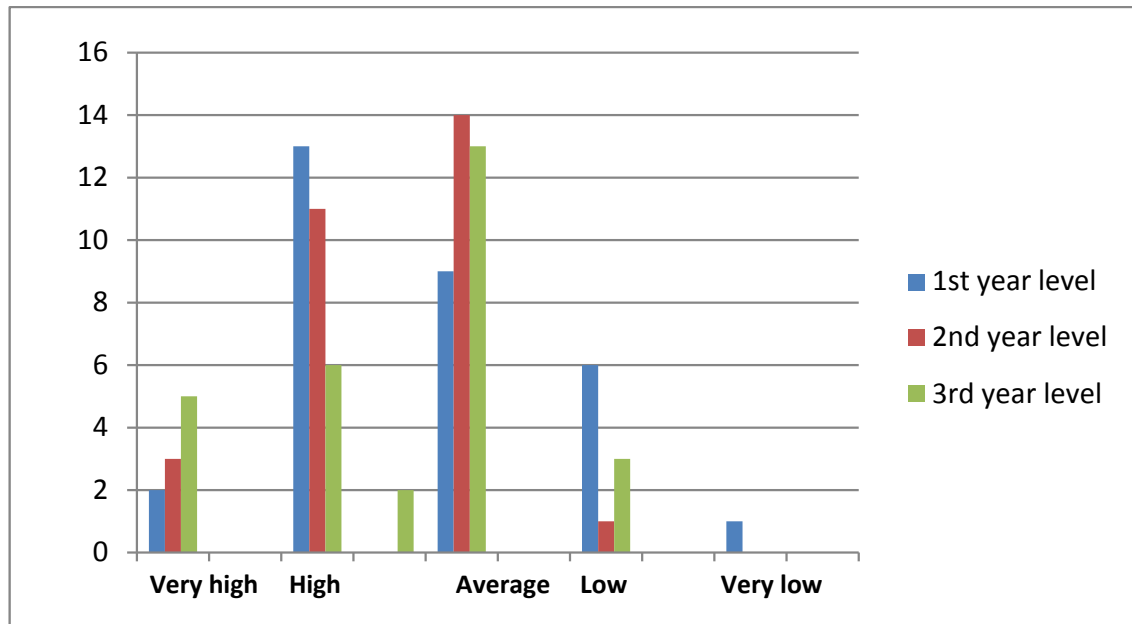
Figure 3.7: Respondents' Effort in Learning English

The Figure reveals that (47.3 %) of first year level pupils seemed to put great efforts to learn English. Second and third year level pupils presented a quite normal description of their strain to learn the language (48.2 % and 55.5 % respectively). Still both levels displayed a will to put on enough effort to reach their academic outcomes.

In a summary of the pupils' diverse perceptions of their motivation in learning English, the different findings collected from items 2, 3, 4, and 5 revealed a decrease in pupils' perceived aptitudes and efforts in learning the language as they move along the different year study levels.

- *Pupils' Perceptions of their Academic Engagement and School Motivation*

Section B of the Academic Motivation Scale questionnaire (AMS) was set to assess the various dimensions of the sample adolescent learners' motivation, explicitly, it was expected to determine the reasons why they attend school. It measured three motivational orientations, namely intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and amotivation.

- *Pupils' Perceived Reasons Why They Attend School*

Item B: Why do you go to school?

The respondents were required to indicate, among a 5 point Likert-scale type, the reasons why they attend school. The mean and standard of deviation values of the different

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items related to the academic motivation of the pupils, in the different year study levels, are presented in Table 3.8:

Variables	Items	1st year level		2nd year level		3rd year level	
		M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Intrinsic	**E1**	3,70	1,03	3,89	1,06	3,73	0,99
Motivation,	**E3**	4,09	1,07	4.0	1,05	3,84	0,68
	E5	4,25	0,96	4,39	0,73	4,42	0,76
Total Mean		**4,01**	**1.02**	**4,09**	**0.94**	**3,99**	**0.81**
Extrinsic	**E2**	4,09	0,94	4,28	0,93	4,63	0,76
Motivation,	**E7**	4,06	0,89	4,46	0,57	3,47	1,34
	E8	4,67	0,79	4,5	0,83	4,42	0,76
Total Mean		**4,27**	**0.87**	**4,41**	**0.77**	**4,17**	**0.95**
Amotivation	**E4**	1,74	1,15	1,78	1,06	1,63	1,11
	E6	2,93	1,36	2,39	1,22	1,52	1,02
	E9	1,45	0,85	1,42	0,69	1,84	1,21
Total Mean		**2,04**	**1.12**	**1,86**	**0.99**	**1,66**	**1.11**

Table 3.8: Respondents' Perceived Reasons Why They Attend School

As shown in the table, third year study level pupils had, noticeably, the lowest mean values for the items relating to their perceived academic extrinsic motivation (*M*=4.17, *SD*=0.95) and intrinsic motivation (*M*=3, 99, *SD*=0.81) when compared to the first and second year study level pupils, yet, they scored the lowest rate of amotivation (*M*=1.6, *SD*=1.11). (67.34%) of third year pupils responded positively to the different items that were intended to scale their engagement in school and academics, namely items E1, E3 and E5. Also, (68.52%) of them seemed to hold an almost constructive perception of their academics, typically, for items E4, E6, and E9 (*M*=1.6, *SD*=1.11). Second year study level pupils recorded positive score values for their self-reported academic intrinsic motivation (*M=4.09, SD=0.94*), extrinsic motivation (*M=4, 41, SD=0.77*) and amotivation (M=1,86, SD=0.99) as (62. 93%) of them retorted confidently to the different scale items. Concerning the first year level pupils, they tended to have assertive self-perceptions of their explicitly conceived beliefs about their academics for items E1, E3 and E5 (*M=4, 01, SD=1.02*) in addition to items E4, E6 and E9 involving their self-perceived extrinsic motivation (*M=4, 27, SD=0.87*), yet, they seemed to record quite dispiriting perceptions as they scored (*M=2, 04, SD=1.12*) for their amotivation scale.

With regard to the standard deviations, it is clear that the participants, involved in this study, are homogeneous groups who understand the concept under study almost at the same level. This is so because the various standard deviations are closer to each other (Pallant, 2001).

Referring to the recorded findings, for the different items for this scale of pupils' school engagement and interest in academics, the majority of the pupils along the three year study levels were identified as having a combination of both orientations with a slight inclination to extrinsic motivation (see Table 3 .9).

Variables	1st year level		2nd year level		3rd year level	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
IM Total Mean	4,01	1.02	4,09	0.94	3,99	0.81
EM Total Mean	4,27	0.87	4,41	0.77	4,17	0.95
AMOT Total Mean	2,04	1.12	1,86	0.99	1,66	1.11

Note. **IM** = Intrinsic motivation, **EM** = Extrinsic motivation, **AMOT=** amotivation

Table 3 .9: Total Mean Values of Pupils' Motivational Orientations

Further, in order to determine whether there is a significant level of variance in pupils' academic motivation over the different year study levels, the overall means and standard deviations of the different academic motivation subscales of the pupils in the different year study levels are presented in Table 3.10:

Variable	1st year level		2nd year level		3rd year level	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Motivation	3,59	0,30	3,59	0,28	3,31	0,33

Table 3.10: Respondents' Overall English Academic Motivation Scale

As shown in the table, both first and second year level pupils, noticeably, reported quite similar positive mean values for their academic interest (*M= 3. 59, SD=0. 28* and *M= 3. 59, SD=0. 30* respectively). As for the third year level pupils, they had, seemingly, the lowest mean values for their overall perceived academic motivation (*M*=3.31, *SD*=0.33) though they have shown to possess a quite positive insight of their academic enthusiasm. This perception is, characteristically, fed by apprehensive feeling generated mostly by the stress of the ultimate stage of the secondary school education and the final exam.

- *Pupils' Overall Academic Achievement Scores*

As mentioned in the previous sections, pupils' academic achievement, in English learning and overall GPA average, was measured throughout the term exams within the school year 2017/2018. The main focus, in the data treatment, was put upon the pupils' English overall examination scores. The reason for using the English term exam marks as a standard to measure pupils' achievement was that it was the only homogeneous and objective means to do so as opposed to more subjective ways to evaluate other criteria such as participation, homework, portfolios, or oral presentations. In fact, these exams were designed by the English coordination board in the school according to the standard norms set by the ministry of education. The exam papers, solely, evaluated reading comprehension, vocabulary, grammar and written expression. For the sake of the study, the participants were divided into three achievement groups: high, moderate and low. The pupils' scores were set according to their average marks that they included within their answers to the survey questionnaires and those submitted by the school administration copied from school records.

The informants' English and overall GPA average scores, along the different year study levels, are displayed in Table 3.11:

Achievement groups			1st year level		2nd year level		3rd year level	
			F	%	F	%	F	%
Low	6	8	10	32.2	6	20.6	6	22.2
	8	10	8	25.8	6	20.6	7	25.9
Moderate	10	12	7	22.5	10	34.4	8	29.6
High	12	16	6	19.3	7	24.1	6	22.2
English Average			10.19		11.76		10.30	
Overall GPA Average			10.03		11.33		10.69	

Note. **F**=Frequency, **%**= Percentage, **GPA**=Global point average

Table 3.11: Respondents' Average English Exam Marks and Overall GPA

As shown in the Table, the first year study level pupils' scores are, relatively, average in both English and overall subjects. The low achievers incorporated the great majority of the whole group (58%) while the high achievers constituted only (19.3%) of the group. Such a distribution impacts upon the overall average of the whole class. The second year study level pupils' scores in both English and overall GPA were satisfactory as (58.5 %) of them scored above the average. The third year level pupils' scores in English and overall

GPA seemed to reveal an average ability classroom. The high achievers included (22.2 %) of the group. Still the underachievers implicated (48.1 %) of the whole group. In sum, all three study level groups, involved in the study, characterized a typical example of a mixed ability group with the underachievers outstripping the high achievers. Such a finding goes in contradiction with the characteristics of the literary stream pupils who are required to put on greater effort in literary subjects and language learning.

In summary, the descriptive analysis revealed that third year level pupils reported significantly higher self-concept than their peers in the first and second year study levels. In contrast, their perceived academic motivation seemed to have decreased though the adolescents displayed an interest in their academic assignments. In all the three study year groups, the sample participants displayed a combination of both intrinsic and extrinsic levels of motivation with pupils, in the first and second year levels, recording slightly higher rates of motivation if compared to their peers in the third year study level. Further, English average and overall GPA seemed to be quite satisfactory for the second year level pupils. First and third year levels scored moderately.

In all, the descriptive statistics demonstrated that the sample of secondary school adolescent pupils, in the three year study levels, reported relative differences in terms of their self-perceived academic self-concept, academic motivation, and academic achievement.

3.3.2 Findings of the Different Scores on the Conceptual Variables in relation to Pupils' Academic Achievement

The aim of this section is to determine variation in the conceptual variables in the pupils' specific aspects of their academic achievement. At a first step, the pupils' academic self-perceptions and motivational orientations of each level group were computed. The second stage consisted in comparing both the pupils' achievement score results with their answers obtained through the analysis of the questionnaires. In a third stage, Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) was conducted to investigate the relationship between the conceptual variables and academic achievement. Pearson's coefficient of determination (r^2) was set to determine the magnitude and direction of the relationships between the variables. Bivariate correlations, among all the variables of interest, were computed for the whole sample and separately for each study level.

- *Pupils' Academic Self-perceptions in Relation to their Scores in English*

    The total mean values of the different items related to the academic self-concept of the pupils, in the different year study levels, are presented in Table 3.12:

	1st year level		2nd year level		3rd year level	
Total English Academic Self-concept Subscales Means						
Achievement Groups	**AC**	**AE**	**AC**	**AE**	**AC**	**AE**
High Achievement Group	3.07	3.21	3.32	3.56	3.83	4.08
Moderate Achievement Group	2.58	2.89	2.67	2.78	2.61	2.89
Low Achievement Group	2.20	2.65	2.43	2.20	2.51	2.66

  Note. **AC**=Academic competence, AE= Academic effort

Table 3.12: Relationship between Pupils' Academic Self-perceptions and Scores in English

    As demonstrated in Table 3.12, differences were found in terms of pupils' perceived academic self-concept in relation to their various achievement groups. High achievers in all the three level groups scored high mean values for their self-reported academic competence and effort even they displayed higher academic effort scores and, thus, reflected an absolute confidence in their academic abilities to learn the target language. The underachievers did not do badly in their self-concept description. Their evaluation of their academic achievement and effort was quite positive even though it was significantly better among the high achievers.

- *Pupils' Academic Motivation in Relation to their Scores in English*

    The total mean values of the different items related to the pupils' perceived academic motivation, in the different year study levels, are presented in Table 3.13:

	1st year level		2nd year level		3rd year level	
Total English Academic Motivation Subscales Means						
Achievement Groups	**IM**	**EM**	**IM**	**EM**	**IM**	**EM**
High Achievement Group	4.32	4.16	4.23	4.12	3.93	3.89
Moderate Achievement Group	3.48	3.44	3.6	3.77	3.41	3.56
Low Achievement Group	3.0	3.11	3.13	3.34	2/99	3.21

Note. **IM** = Intrinsic motivation, **EM** = Extrinsic motivation,

Table 3.13:.Relationship between Pupils' Academic Motivation and Scores in English

    From the above table, it can be deduced explicitly that extrinsic motivation plays a very important role in each group. Almost all pupils learn English to get higher marks for the

final exam and for job requirements. Nevertheless, this tendency inclines low and moderate achievers to focus more on the utilitarian aspect of the language. They tend to consider the concrete benefit out of learning the language as the world is becoming more and more globalized and open to travels, doing business, and other international exchanges. High achievers, on the other hand, do not express a total disinterest from the external incentives; yet, they seek more to learn the language for they display an interest in English language, its people and culture besides a true desire to expand their linguistic skills.

In joining findings from Table 3.12 and Table 3.13, both high and low achievers have a significant distinction in terms of their perceived academic self-perceptions and motivational orientations. They both attach a relative importance to their academic abilities and effort in learning English. However, their achievement is quite different when it comes to the amount of effort, desire, and intensity of learning the target language. The possible reasons for such a difference pertain to the following points that are the product of the researcher's experience in teaching English in the secondary school. Pupils' different academic self-beliefs relate to their reported competence and effort to learn. Language learning motivation, on the other hand, consists of motivational intensity, attitude towards English and desire to learn the language. The above results, shown in tables 3.12 and 3.13, imply that pupils' self-beliefs and motivational orientations are positively and significantly related to their achievement. They are key determinant factors influencing achievement in such a process. High achievers adopt a positive attitude towards the target language and its speaking community culture. They, undoubtedly, enjoy learning English and plan to learn it as much as possible employing great efforts to acquire it. Those pupils plan long-term study strategies according to their learning situation. They arrange time reasonably and take part in various linguistic activities related to English so as to achieve the best learning performances. Low achievers, on the other hand, are mostly characterized to adopt facility and ease. They usually learn the language for the sake of practical benefits. They hope to turn their wishes into reality as soon as possible and do not realize the importance of management strategies that play an important role in improving their learning efficiency. They are not concerned with the learning process and care only about the final results. They, seldom, arrange a proper study time and assess their progress. They turn to the mother tongue whenever they meet difficulties in the language and do not use other strategies to improve their English

proficiency. As a result, they are, easily, influenced by the learning environment for their learning goals are mostly performance-oriented more than being mastery-oriented.

To sum up, findings, from the above data, displayed that high academic self-concept characterizes significantly high achievers. Extrinsic motivation was more or less significant for both high and low achievers while intrinsic motivation categorized mostly the high achievers.

- *Correlational Analyses*

This phase displays the correlation analysis for self-concept and academic motivation as predictors of academic achievement. Pearson's correlation coefficient can describe the strength of the correlation using the guide that Evans (1996) suggested for the absolute value of *r*:

•	.00-.19	*"Very weak"*
•	.20-.39	*"Weak"*
•	.40-.59	*"Moderate"*
•	.60-.79	*"Strong"*
•	.80-1.0	*"Very strong"*

Table 3.14: The Absolute Value of *r*

These coefficients are presented accordingly.

- *The Correlation Coefficient between Self-concept and Academic Achievement*

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between self-concept and academic achievement. The results are shown in Table 3.15:

	1st year level			2nd year level			3rd year level		
Variable	**r**	**r^2**	**p**	**r**	**r^2**	**p**	**r**	**r^2**	**P**
ASC	.19*	.0361	0.234	.37*	.136	0.057	.63*	.396	0.113

correlation is significant at p<.05
Note: **ASC=**Academic self-concept , **r**= Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient
r^2 =coefficient of determination, p=*p* value**.**

Table 3.15: The Correlation Coefficient between Self-concept and Academic Achievement

Table 3.15 reveals that:

a) In the first year group, there was a weak positive correlation between self-concept and academic achievement (r (31) =0.19*, p= 0.234) on the 5% level of significance (*p<.05*). It shows, also, that self-concept indicated only (3.61 %) variance in academic achievement which implies that a positive correlation exists between both variables.

b) In the second year group, there was a moderate positive correlation between self-concept and academic achievement (r (29) =.37*, p= 0.057) on the 5% level of significance (*p<.05*). It shows, also, that self-concept indicated (13.6 %) variance in academic achievement which implies that a positive correlation exists between both variables.

c) In the third year group, there was a strong positive correlation between self-concept and academic achievement (r (27) =.63*, p= 0.113) on the 5% level of significance (p<.05). It shows, also, that self-concept indicated (39.6%) variance in academic achievement which implies that a positive correlation exists between both variables.

Thus, the correlation analysis demonstrates positive values of (r) which denotes a positive linear correlation between both variables. It shows, also, that the higher pupils' academic self-concept is, the higher is their academic achievement. Yet, the degree of correlation varies from one grade to another. For the first year level, the association between self-concept and academic achievement proved to be very weak. The fact that corroborates the previous findings related to the first year pupils who displayed quite moderate self-perceptions of their academic abilities in contrast of the third year level pupils who recorded a quite positive insight of their academic abilities.

- ***The Correlation Coefficient between Motivation and Academic Achievement***

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between motivation and academic achievement. The results are shown in Table 3.16:

Variable	1ˢᵗ year level			2ⁿᵈ year level			3ʳᵈ year level		
	r	r^2	p	r	r^2	p	r	r^2	p
Motivation	.27*	.0729	0.174	33*	.108	0.157	.70*	.490	0.223

correlation is significant at p<.05
Note: **r**= Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, r^2=coefficient of determination, **p=**p value.

Table 3.16: The Correlation Coefficient between Motivation and Academic Achievement

Table 3.16 discloses that:

a) In the first year group, there was a weak positive correlation between motivation and academic achievement (r (31) =0.27*, p=0.174) on the 5% level of significance (*p<.05*). It shows, also, that motivation indicated (7.29 %) variance in academic achievement which implies that a positive correlation exists between both variables.

b) In the second year group, there was a moderate positive correlation between motivation and academic achievement (r (29) =.33*, p= 0.157) on the 5% level of significance (*p<.05*). It shows, also, that motivation indicated (10.8 %) variance in academic achievement.

c) In the third year group, there was a strong positive correlation between motivation and academic achievement (r (27) =.70*, p= 0.223.) on the 5% level of significance (p<.05). It shows, also, that motivation indicated (49%) variance in academic achievement which implies that a positive correlation exists between both variables.

Thus, the correlation analysis demonstrates that the higher pupils' academic motivation is, the higher is their academic achievement. It shows, also, that this association varies from level to level. In their first year in the secondary school, pupils show some difficulties to adapt to the new academic outcomes for they are, still, bearing the load of the transitional phase from the middle school to the secondary school.

• **The Correlation Coefficient between Academic Self-concept and Motivation**

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between self-concept and academic motivation. The results are shown in Table 3.17

	1st year level			2nd year level			3rd year level		
Variables	*r*	*r²*	*p*	*r*	*r²*	*p*	*r*	*r²*	*p*
ASC/ Motivation	.10*	.0106	0.112	.41*	168	0.237	.69*	.476	0.329

correlation is significant at p<.05
Note: **r**= Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, r^2 = coefficient of determination,
p=*p* value**.**

Table 3.17: The Correlation Coefficient between Self-concept and Academic Motivation

Table 3.17 discloses that:

a) In the first year group, there was a very weak positive correlation between self-concept and academic motivation (r (31)= 0.10*, p= 0.112) on the 5% level of significance (p<.05). It shows, also, that r^2=.0106 which implies that motivation accounted for only (1.06 %) of the variation in self-concept and, thus, in achievement of English.

b) In the second year group, there was a moderate positive correlation between self-concept and academic motivation(r (29)= .41*, p= 0.237) on the 5% level of significance (p<.05). It shows, also, that r^2= 0.168 which implies that motivation accounted for (16.8 %) of the variation in self-concept and, thus, in achievement of English.

c) In the third year group, there was a strong positive correlation between self-concept and academic motivation (r (27)=.69*, p= 0. 329) on the 5% level of significance (p<.05). It shows, also, that r^2= 0.476 which implies that motivation accounted for (47.6 %) of the variation in self-concept and, thus, in achievement of English.

Thus, the correlation analysis demonstrates that the higher pupils' academic self-concept and motivation are, the higher is their academic achievement. The analysis, also, shows that motivation plays a significant role to mediate the relation between self-concept and academic achievement. In fact, the more pupils lose their enthusiasm in performing academically, the more their self-perceptions of their abilities to succeed are weak.

In summary, the bivariate correlations, among the variables of interest, were computed separately for the sample pupils in the different year study levels. For all the levels, pupils' overall English GPA was positively correlated with their perceived self-concept and motivation. Both the academic self-concept and motivation scales delivered a

varied contribution to the explanation of the variance in the academic achievement of the various year study level pupils on the 5% level of significance.

Thus, the findings of the correlation analyses revealed that the association of academic self-concept and motivation predicted the level of academic achievement of the sample of adolescents in all three secondary school levels.

3.3.3 Gender in Relation to Academic Achievement and the Conceptual Variables

The aim of this section is to determine gender variation in the pupils' specific aspects of their academic achievement in relation to the conceptual variables. The respondents' academic self-perceptions, motivational orientations, English and overall GPA average scores, of each level group, were computed according to gender differences.

- *Gender Differences and Self-concept Subscales' Scores*

The total mean and standard deviation values of the different items related to the academic English competence and academic effort of the male and female pupil participants, in the three year study levels, are presented in Table 3. 18:

Self-concept subscales	Gender	1st year level		2nd year level		3rd year level	
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Overall EAC	**Male**	2.5	1.3	3.1	1.3	3.3	0.8
	Female	**3.4**	**1.2**	**3.2**	**1.0**	**3.3**	**0.6**
Overall EAE	**Male**	2.3	1.0	3.3	1.3	3.1	1.3
	Female	**3.3**	**1.6**	**3.6**	**1.2**	**3.9**	**0.6**
Total mean	Male	2.4	1.1	3.2	1.3	3.2	1.0
	Female	**3.3**	**1.4**	**3.4**	**1.1**	**3.6**	**0.6**

Note. **HEAC** = High English academic competence, **LEAC** = Low English academic competence, **HEAE** = High English academic effort, **LEAE**= Low English academic effort,

Table 3.18: Relationship between Pupils' Scores in Self-concept Subscales and Gender

Results from Table 3.18 demonstrate a slight statistical significance in terms of the self-reported academic self-concept among male and female pupil participants with female pupils performing better than male pupils.

In the third year level, female and male pupils had, noticeably, higher mean values for the items relating to their perceived academic English self-concept. Males mean scores were (*M=3.2, SD=1.0*) with female pupils displaying better beliefs in their academic self-

concept than males (*M=3.6, SD=0.6*). They have, apparently, shown to constitute an almost homogenous group (SD=0.6*)* and to possess a quite positive insight of their academic abilities in learning the target language. Second year level pupils reported similar mean values for both male and female pupils who had a positive perception of their academic abilities (*M=3.2, SD=1.3; M= 3.4, SD=1.1* respectively). Concerning the first year level, male pupils tended to have slightly moderate self-perceptions of their academic competence (*M=2.4, SD=1.1*) whereas female participants displayed higher perceptions of both their English academic competence and effort (*M=3.3, SD=1.4*). In sum, female pupils kept ascending values along the different year study levels while male pupils seemed to be, more or less, reluctant vis-à-vis their academic potential.

- *Gender Differences in relation to Pupils' Motivational Orientations*

In order to determine whether there is a significant level of variance in male and female pupils' academic motivation over the three year study levels, the total means and standard deviations of the different academic motivation subscales of the pupils, in the different year study levels, are presented in Table 3.19:

Motivation scale	Gender	1st year level		2nd year level		3rd year level	
		M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
IM	**Male**	4.2	0.92	3.7	1.28	3.5	1.23
	Female	**4.5**	**0.44**	**4.0**	**0.46**	**4.0**	**0.56**
EM	**Male**	3.9	0.93	4.0	0.83	4.0	0.93
	Female	**4.2**	**1.21**	**4.1**	**0.53**	**4.2**	**1.15**
AMOT	**Male**	1.9	1.15	2.5	0.83	2.3	1.63
	Female	**1.6**	**0.56**	**1.9**	**1.0**	**1.4**	**1.13**
Total Mean	**Male**	**4.05**	**0.92**	**3.85**	**1.05**	**3.75**	**1.08**
	Female	**4.35**	**0.82**	**4.05**	**0.49**	**4.1**	**0.85**

Note. **IM** = Intrinsic motivation, **EM** = Extrinsic motivation, **AMOT**= Amotivation,

Table 3.19: Relationship between Pupils' Scores in Motivation Subscales and Gender

Table 3.19 reveals that the mean gender difference for the various motivation subscales is quite significant for all the informants in the three year study levels. This variation is in favour of female participants having strong motivational determinations as compared to male pupils. As shown in the table, first year level male and female pupils, noticeably, reported the highest positive mean values for their academic interest (*M*=4.05, *SD*=0.92; *M*=4.35, *SD*=0.82 respectively). For the second year level pupils, they had,

seemingly, higher scores for their academic motivation with female participants scoring (*M=4.05, SD=0.49*) than male pupils (*M=3.85, SD=1.05*). The third year study level male pupils scored the lowest mean values for their overall perceived academic motivation *(M=3.75, SD= 1.08).* Still third year level female participants displayed significantly higher levels of their academic enthusiasm *(M=4.1, SD= 0.85).*

- *Gender Differences in relation to Pupils' Overall Academic Achievement Scores*

In order to determine whether there is a significant level of variance in male and female pupils' overall academic achievement scores over the three year study levels, the total average scores in English and overall GPA, of the pupils in the different year study levels, are presented in Table 3.20:

	Gender	1st year level n= 31		2nd year level n= 29		3rd year level n= 27	
		F	%	F	%	F	%
Low achievers	**Male**	6	19.3	3	10.3	4	14.8
	Female	4	12.9	3	10.3	2	7.4
Moderate Achievers	**Male**	6	19.3	5	17.2	4	14.8
	Female	9	29.0	11	37.9	11	40.7
High achievers	**Male**	1	3.2	3	10.3	2	7.4
	Female	5	16.1	4	13.7	4	14.8
English Average	**Male**	**9.10**		**10.23**		**10.03**	
	Female	**12.04**		**11.22.**		**11.48**	
Overall GPA Average	Male	**8.94**		**10.55**		**9.88**	
	Female	**11.12**		**12.11**		**11.90**	

Note. **F**=Frequency, **%**= Percentage, **GPA**=Global Point Average

Table 3.20: Relationship between Pupils' Overall Academic Achievement Scores and Gender

As shown in the Table, the first year study level male pupils' scores are, relatively, below the average in both English and overall subjects with female participants recording better results in all subjects. The male low achiever group incorporated (19.3 %) of the whole group while female rate did not exceed (12.9 %). The highly achieving male participants constituted only (22.5 %) of the group whereas (45.1%) of female pupils scored above the average. Such a distribution impacted on the overall academic performance of the whole class. The second year study level male and female pupils' scores, in both English and overall

GPA, were satisfactory with (51.6 %) of female pupils scoring above the average paralleled to only (27.5 %) for males. The third year level pupils' scores in English and overall GPA seemed to reveal an average ability classroom. The female high achiever group included (55.5%) of the group while males rated only for (22.2 %) of the group. In sum, all three level groups, involved in the study, characterized a typical example of a mixed ability group with female pupils performing better than males in practically all subjects.

In summary, the descriptive analysis of gender differences in relation to adolescent pupils' academic achievement and the conceptual variables revealed that third year level male and female pupils reported, significantly, higher self-perceptions of their academic abilities than their peers in the first and second year study levels with female pupils demonstrating higher academic self-awareness than male pupils. In contrast the third year level male participants' perceived academic motivation seemed to have decreased along the various levels though the adolescents displayed an interest in their academic assignments while female informants kept higher concerns for their educational outcomes and scholastic interest. In all the three study year groups, the sample participants displayed a combination of both intrinsic and extrinsic levels of motivation with female pupils in the first and second year levels recording, slightly, higher rates of motivation if compared to their peers in the third year study level. Further, English average and overall GPA seemed to be quite satisfactory for the different year study level male and female participants with female pupils displaying better academic performance than male pupils.

In sum, the descriptive statistics relating to the sample's gender differences demonstrated that the secondary school adolescents, in the three secondary school year study levels, reported ample differences in terms of their self-perceived academic self-concept, academic motivation, and academic achievement. Thus, the study findings agree with most studies which suggested that, on average, girls do better, in school, than boys. Girls get higher grades and complete high school at a higher rate compared to boys (Schiefele, Krapp, & Winteler, 1992 ; Ryan & Pintrich,1997; Jacobs, 2002; Williams, Burden, & Lanvers , 2002 ; Steinmayr & Spinath, 2008; Al-Bustan & Al-Bustan ,2009; Ghazvini & Khajehpour,2011).

3.4 QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

This section presents the qualitative findings of the study based on the following two research questions:

Research question # 4: What are the sample adolescent learners' self-perceptions in regard to the factors that they believe they can foster their academic self-concept, motivation, and academic achievement?

Research question # 5: What are the EFL teachers' perceptions of their learners' academic self-concept and its possible implications on their scholastic performance?

The qualitative analysis of the data is presented in two parts. The first part treats the major themes dealt with during the adolescent learners' focus group interview sessions. The second part considers the major EFL teachers' insights of their learners' academic abilities perceived during the semi-structured interviews conducted at Benahmed Bekhedda secondary school during the second phase of data collection as a follow-up to the quantitative phase.

3.4.1 Interpretation of the Focus Group Interview Sessions' Results

The sample for the interview phase was derived according to the analysis of the results from the two survey questionnaires. The interviews did not require a large sample of respondents in the study. The aim was to explore the secondary school adolescent pupils' self-beliefs about their academic abilities in learning English besides some of the factors that could influence their scholastic performance. Thus, the pupils whose scores identified them as either underachievers or overachievers were invited to participate in the different focus groups (FG). A total of three focus group interview sessions had been conducted: one focus group session with each secondary school grade level.

Actually, the planning and preparation for the interview sessions was quite challenging. The researcher had to overcome two major obstacles while conducting the various group interview sessions. First, some participants, especially, from the first year study level, appeared to be unenthusiastic to share their views and self-beliefs about their learning experience. Second, some adolescent participants lead the discussions, the fact that restrained other participants from actively participating in the group discussions. These were essentially the two major challenges which limited the quality of pupils' responses and therefore of the qualitative data.

Table 3.21 gives an overall description of the three focus group participants The researcher, purposefully, designed the groups in regard to their gender and academic achievement, i.e. the researcher made sure to obtain similar scores for each of the three group participants so as to contrast the different pupils' responses within the groups.

	Pupils*	Age	Self-concept	Motivation	Achievement
Focus Group # 1	**Amina**	15	Very high	Intrinsic	Very high
	khadidja	15	Moderate	Both	High
	Ali	16	High	Extrinsic	Moderate
	Samir	15	Low	Extrinsic	Low
Focus Group # 2	**Wissal**	17	Very high	Intrinsic	Very high
	Amel	16	Moderate	Both	High
	Mohamed	18	High	Extrinsic	Moderate
	Kada	17	Low	Extrinsic	Low
Focus Group # 3	**Ines**	18	Very high	Intrinsic	Very high
	Tahani	18	Moderate	Both	High
	Khaled	19	High	Extrinsic	Moderate
	Kamel	20	Low	Extrinsic	Low

*Note. *For confidentiality and ethical considerations, the researcher replaced the real names of the participants within the three focus groups.*

Table 3.21: Focus Group Participants

The thematic analysis of focus group data identified two main themes: adolescents' academic self-beliefs of their academic abilities and interest in school assignments and academic engagement.

- *Adolescent Learners' Self-beliefs in regard to School and Learning*

When the adolescent participants were asked whether they cared about learning and school, all of them retorted positively that they do care about school and academics. Nevertheless, every one of them expressed a different reason for showing concern about school. The adolescent learners' motives indicated that they had extrinsically motivated reasons to care about school. Ali (FG #1) remarked, ***"I care about school because good education helps me to find a good job"***. Concerning Khadidja and Samir (FG #2), caring about school is important for "***education is the key to a successful future. To have a good future career, we have to be at school"***. Amel (FG #2) said, ***"School is going to give me the opportunity to achieve what I really like"*** Khaled and Tahani (FG #3), similarly, cared about

school as it is the direct way for them to *"access university and choose a good speciality and secure future employment".* When asked about getting good marks, Ali (FG #1) remarked, *"I want to get good marks because I want to succeed in my studies and finish my secondary education and move to university"*

Though the majority of adolescent participants displayed extrinsic motives to care about school, few of them had intrinsically motivated reason to care about school. Amina (FG #1) explained, *"I do care about school because it increases my knowledge and expand my skills"*. Similarly, Wissal (FG #2) added, "*We learn about new things and discover the world. That is why school is important for me"*. Like Wissal, Ines (FG #3) believed that getting good marks, in school, is a proof of acquiring a lot of knowledge. She remarked, *"I want to get good marks because this means that I have knowledge about what is happening around me"*. Mohamed (FG #2) agreed with this belief and added, *"This is a sign of academic performance and success"*.

When asked about their interest in learning, the great majority of adolescents showed their interest in studies and learning. Amina (FG #1) clarified, *"I am very interested in school"*. Ines (FG #3) explained, *"The secondary school makes me closer to my future. I have to be serious because hard work is my way to success".* Khaled (FG #3) expressed, *"I have more interest because I like to work hard and be successful".* Wissal (FG #3), further, confirmed, *"I have always been quite serious about school. I have always tried to surpass my friends. Obviously, when I get higher grades, I have better background. My aim is to prepare for university"*.

- *Adolescents' Beliefs about Academic Competitive Behaviour*

The participants, also, reflected on the importance of performing better than others at school. Ali (FG #1) explained, "*Every one of us wants to be first in the class. Good marks give you recognition. We become famous and teachers love us"* All the adolescents, along the different study level groups, showed a great concern in getting high marks. They were striving to perform better than others at school for extrinsic rewards. Amel (FG #2) clarified, *"We need to score high marks. Competition is necessary. Marks determine whether you are good or bad".* When asked about how they felt when one of their peers got better in a subject than they did, if this motivated them to do better, many adolescents did not hide their discomfort vis-à-vis their peers' best performance. Khadidja (FG #1) confessed, *"I hate to*

see others performing better than I do". Amel (FG #2) replied, *"In class, I am doing my best so that I score always better than my friends".* In her turn, Tahani (FG #3) said, *"Getting the highest mark, in the class, makes me work more and more".* In contrast, Amina (FG #1) explained, *"I am interested in marks but I am, also, concerned with the progress I make. I love competition. It helps me to improve my skills".* Unlike the female participants, male pupils felt normal about other peers performing better than them. Mohamed (FG #2), for instance, answered, *"I do not care. What is important is that I score above the average".*

Despite the academic interest displayed by the great majority of adolescents, some of them did not find school and school work interesting. Samir (FG #1) said, *"I feel less interested in school".* Kamel (FG #3) stated, *"I become less interested in school and school work."* Kada (FG #2) complained, *"Courses are boring. Programmes are very difficult. I have lost my interest".*

In short, the majority of adolescents, in the different groups, expressed vivid interest in learning for extrinsic reasons. Many of them were comparing their performance with their peers for extrinsic rewards. Nevertheless, a few of them were serious about school and learning for intrinsically motivating reasons, especially for intrinsic motivation to know.

- *Adolescents' Perceptions of their Teachers' Roles and Methods*

The adolescents were asked questions relating to their self-perceptions about their teachers and classroom learning environments. The discussions indicated that the adolescents did not consider their classroom learning environments to be encouraging for learning. Instead, the classroom learning environments seemed to be both demanding and restraining. Kada (FG#1) explained, *"There is nothing in the classroom that motivates us for learning".*

When asked how well they were getting along with their teachers, the majority of adolescents indicated that their relation with their teachers was good. Amina (FG #1) explained, *"I love my teachers. I do everything to please them".* Mohamed (FG #2) replied, *"Our teachers give us activities. We are doing them".* Khadidja (FG #3) said, *"We must respect our teachers. They are here to help us".* When asked about the behaviours they did not like from their teachers, many of them emphasised work pace and freedom to choose their assignments: *"I don't get to work at my own pace. I'm always pressured"*, explained Wissal (FG #2). Tahani (FG #3) complained, *"I wish I had more freedom".* Even Amel (FG #2) remarked, *"I feel that I am pursuing the goals of my teachers rather than my own goal".*

Ines (FG #3) stated, *"We don't really choose our own assignments. The teacher just gives them to us and we have to do them".* Khadidja (FG #1) suggested, *"The teachers can choose half of the course materials and the second half should be chosen by pupils".*

In all, the great majority of adolescents preferred to be given some kind of freedom so that they would enjoy what they are learning. They strongly felt that they should be involved in what they learn. Many of the adolescents were concerned about the teacher-learner interactions during classroom instruction. Khaled (FG #3) asserted, *"I want to have many opportunities to talk in the classroom. If I do this I can get good marks".* Ali (FG # 1) believed that teachers should listen to the pupils, be enthusiastic, and make them interested in what they do. Kamel (FG # 3) complained, *"Teachers come to class and go. They just teach. They are in a hurry to finish the programme".* Samir (FG #1) said, *"Whether you understand or not, the programme must finish".*

When asked if there were any teachers at whose lessons they worked really hard and if they had any favourite teachers, almost all adolescents agreed that teachers should motivate them. Many of them believed that their favourite teachers were those who were more friendly and interactive with them. Amel (FG #1) said, "*My Arabic teacher is my favourite teacher. She always listens to our problems. She makes us feel more involved".* In his turn, Samir (FG #1) added, *"We like teachers who give us choice about what we learn. They give us our own time".*

The focus group participants thought it was important that their teachers notice their effort in class. Amina (FG #1) remarked, *"It is important for me that my teacher notices how much effort I am doing in the classroom. This motivates me to work hard".* Ines (FG #3) clarified, *"The more my teacher notices my work, the more I feel motivated".* In contrast, some of the participants, in the discussion, preferred to be far away from the supervision of their teachers. Kamel (FG #3) said, *"I prefer to sit at the back and to do things alone. Teachers are always forcing us to work. There is no fun. They are never satisfied with our work".*

- *Adolescents' Perceptions of the Factors that Can Boost their Self-concept, Motivation, and Academic Achievement*

Being asked about the most important things teachers could do to help them become more serious about school learning, most of the respondents stressed the teacher's

characteristics and behaviour in class, Kada (FG #2) commented, *" We like teachers to be enthusiastic, friendly and helpful"*, Many of them mentioned extrinsic rewards and marks as incentives to motivation in class. Kamel (FG #3) stated, *"Teachers can help us with marks from time to time"*. Mohamed (FG #3) suggested creating some interesting games and activities to reduce stress and become more active in learning. The further strategies that teachers can apply were creating pleasant classroom atmosphere and having clear instructions. Amel (FG #2) affirmed, *"A warm classroom is the best gift that teachers can do to us. It helps us to engage in English learning."*

In sum, all adolescents acknowledged their teachers' efforts in enhancing their learning. What they, really, insisted on was that their teachers show more understanding, enthusiasm, friendliness and helpfulness towards them, create a variety of activities, accept their answers without interruption, instruct them clearly, encourage them with marks and rewards and create a pleasant and comfortable learning environment.

3.4.2 Interpretation of the EFL Teachers Interview Sessions' Results

The EFL teachers' interview sessions were conducted so as to provide answers to the last research question investigating the EFL teachers' perceptions of their learners' academic self-concept and its possible implication on their scholastic performance and academic success in language learning. It enables the collection of reliable data about the interactions of the teachers and their pupils in classroom context. All of the interviewed teachers gave their consent before the debriefing sessions took place. The teachers' interviews (Appendix D) were conducted in such a way to cross check data obtained from the adolescent learners during the focus group sessions and ensure the accuracy of the pupils' responses to the survey questionnaires. Interviews were conducted shortly after the last term exams. They took place in the teachers' respective classrooms. Each session lasted approximately 40 minutes and was captured through handwritten notes.

The interview sessions focused on the teachers' respective insights on their teaching methods, learners' aptitudes and motivation to learn the target language.

Teachers	Gender	Degree	Experience	Levels
Teacher A	Male	Licence	24 years	3rd year level
				1st year level
Teacher B	Female	Licence	11 years	3rd year level
				2nd year level
Teacher C	Female	Master	9 years	2nd year level
				1st year level
Teacher D	Female	Master	7 years	2nd year level
				1st year level

Table 3.22: EFL Teachers' Sample

The thematic analysis of EFL teachers' interview sessions data identified the following themes:

- ***EFL Teachers' Insight of their Pupils' Learning and Academic Self-beliefs***

When asked about their perceptions of their pupils' interest in school and academics, the EFL teachers had varied opinions. ***"You know, these new generations have no consideration for school as we used to have in our times"***, Teacher A retorted. Teacher B, in her turn explained, ***"Some of my pupils really care about school. They put on great effort to succeed. Unfortunately, this is not the case of all my pupils"***. Teacher C believed that all pupils cared about school but this was linked to how much benefit they could get out of it. Teacher D , in her turn, confirmed the opinions of her colleagues; The second question revealed that all teachers were quite ambivalent about how their pupils felt about their abilities to learn English. Teacher C asserted, ***"I am not sure. I sometimes feel that they believe in their abilities but when it comes to results things are completely different"***. Teacher A noticed, ***"Pupils believe in their ability to learn English, especially, if this belief expands their communicative skills to interact with native speakers and enrich their social media experiences".***

When asked if they had ever paid their pupils' attention towards their self-concepts and beliefs in academic success, the teachers seemed confused and lost, even, they were astonished to hear about this concept which appeared to be totally unknown to them. To make things more explicit, to the teachers, the researcher inquired about which aspects, of their

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pupils, they focussed more during their teaching. The teachers were directed towards their learners' psychological status (affective and attitudinal factors), linguistic competence, and their appropriate learning styles. All teachers confessed that they had never considered their learners' affective aspects. Instead, the EFL teachers felt more concerned with their pupils' cognitive abilities, effort in class, participation, and behaviour. Teacher A disclosed, *"I have never approached my pupils this way. I try to make my pupils learn the best way possible helping them with tasks and home works"*. What was really amazing was that the teachers had never thought their pupils could have a voice concerning their learning. This was quite explicit when the teachers responded to the question related to how much the pupils could be involved in the elaboration of their learning assignments. Teacher B said, *"I know quite well what my pupils need to learn"*. In her turn, Teacher C replied, *"Sometimes pupils are not able to provide assignments that go with the objectives of the unit, especially, when it comes from the web"*. Teacher D expressed, *"I believe that teachers should choose the topics and let the pupils choose the assignments"*.   When asked if they had ever proposed that the pupils prepare some materials related to their courses, the teachers' answers were categorical *"No!"*

- *EFL Teachers' Beliefs about their Pupils' Academic Competitive Behaviour and Motivation*

     When asked about their pupils' competitive performance in the EFL classroom and their perceptions of this competition, the teachers appeared quite aware of the advantages of making their pupils compare their performance to others. Teacher B answered, *"I personally encourage my pupils to compete in class. I use marks and rewards"*. Teacher A stated, *"A few of my pupils compare their performances with their peers. They are, essentially, the high achieving pupils. The great majority of pupils feel unconcerned with competition in class. That's a pity"*. When asked about the real drives that incite pupils to compete in class, the teachers explained that competition was, purely, for extrinsic rewards. Teacher C and D explicated, *"Our pupils compete in class but this happens because of marks"*. Teacher A added, *"I know two of my pupils who are really concerned about learning. All the others do this for the sake of reward and marks"*. Both teachers C and D admitted that not all their pupils were striving to improve their language skills for intrinsic reasons. Teacher D stated:

> **I often hear the same request when I set them for a task or assign them for a work to prepare for the next session.** *"Miss is this included in the exam?"* **As if nothing matters but their exams and the marks they can get out of it.**

The teachers' discernments of their pupils' real drives to learn and competition in class incited the researcher to inquire about the actual role of instructors to guide their pupils towards constructive learning:

- *EFL Teachers' Perceptions of their Roles and Methods in the EFL Classroom*

When asked about the type of interaction they had with their pupils and how well they got along with their learners, the teachers agreed that the good relations with the pupils imply their implication in effective learning. Teacher A said, *"I am in class to make them learn. I help them as much as I can to succeed"*. Teacher C confessed, *"I find problems to keep my pupils to task. I sometimes punish them because of their behaviour in class"*. Teacher D approved her colleagues' opinions stating that the teacher should provide maximum assistance to his/her pupils. The researcher, then, inquired if it was important that teachers notice the effort of their pupils in class and react about it. Teacher A asserted, *"It is imperative for a teacher to provide positive evaluation and praise learners to improve their learning and academic performance"*. Teacher B seemed unenthusiastic about this point. She said, *"Well, this is true in theory but unattainable in practice. We can't control a large class and notice every single pupil"*. Teacher C reacted, *"I do my possible to assist all my pupils but sometimes I am discouraged by those who are unwilling to learn and do any effort in class"*. The teachers were asked if they considered their pupils' academic aspirations and how much they can do to help them to cope with their anxiety and confidence problems in classroom setting. Teacher D answered:

> **I personally, understand their fears and worries that are directly linked to their future careers. Most of my pupils are anxious and their fear of failure increases level after level till they reach the final year and find themselves confronted to the BAC exam.**

Teacher C believed that the pupils' lack of confidence in their academic abilities caused them to stress. She noted, *"Some of my pupils are unwilling to put any effort. They believe this would be unfruitful and just a waste of time because even those who hold*

degrees failed to secure a job". Having understood the teachers' worries about their pupils, they were asked, then, about the most important strategies they could employ to help pupils become more serious about school learning.

- ***EFL Teachers' Perceptions of the Factors that Can Boost their Pupils' Self-concept, Motivation, and Academic Achievement***

Teachers are those who have the duty to help to create a favourable learning environment that can enhance pupils' motivation and engagement in class. The various discussions with the EFL teachers in respect to their experience, in the field, helped to clarify a set of actions that can improve pupils' learning and performance in class. These practices are likely to provide positive feedback. When praising learners, setting realistic goals, especially, for first year learners, choosing interesting tasks, using authentic materials to motivate them, employing ICTs, raising learners' awareness about their academic aspiration and its importance in their successes and achievement, EFL teachers are, indeed, helping them to believe in their abilities, and encouraging the small efforts they can do in class. The teachers have to hold the belief that if learners felt any kind of satisfaction about their outcomes this would engage them more and more to attain academically.

In sum, the sample of EFL secondary school teachers, still, hold traditional views closely tied to principles of teacher-centred rather than learner-centred processes. What experiences they should provide for their learners and what roles they are to perform in the classroom are, thus, real issues for debate. When asked about their objectives in teaching English to their pupils, the majority of teachers stated that it was to prepare them to the BAC exam. This contributes in teachers' lack of understanding or misunderstanding of the rationale behind the implementation of the real objectives set in the reforms so as to prepare the learners to cultivate linguistic competencies and master the major skills of the language. However, teachers are not the only ones to blame for this frustrating situation. The learners do not show readiness to construct their learning and be autonomous. They are not motivated enough as their concern is, tightly, tied to marks. This, indeed, justifies the teachers' reluctance in engaging pupils in more practical sides of the language learning such as employing project-based tasks. Furthermore, a big majority of teachers remarked that the EFL classroom lacks the necessary facilities to engage in a real learning situation through the introduction of ICT tools. The problem of large and overcrowded classes, loaded

programmes, lack of materials, and limited time inhibit all teachers' efforts to consider the individual differences among learners and create discipline problems and ineffective learning environments.

3.5 Conclusion

This chapter has been, mainly, concerned with the analysis of the different data gathered, along this case study investigation, in an attempt to find out the relationship between the EFL teaching/learning situation and the problematic guiding the present study. In fact, the results, obtained from the research instruments, have enabled the researcher to draw valuable conclusions concerning the EFL teaching and learning in the Algerian context.

The analysis of pupils' survey questionnaires has revealed interesting facts about their academic self-perceptions, motivational orientations, and efforts towards English learning. It has, also, highlighted the learners' enthusiasm in learning the target language as well as their views about using different learning strategies. The focus group interview sessions, in their turn, have revealed quite interesting issues related to adolescents' self-beliefs in regard to their motivational orientations and school engagements that they believe affect their academic self-concept and academic attainment. The EFL teachers' semi-structured interview sessions, equally, have helped to draw a clear picture of the teachers' perspectives about English teaching and learning as a whole and insights of their pupils' learning within the classroom context. They have elucidated the teachers' methodology and motivational techniques to boost their pupils' self-concept and engage them in effective language learning. The research tools have proved to be a quite important means to compare the previously obtained data to the real setting of the EFL classroom context in giving insights about teachers' field methodology, pupils' real involvement in the learning situation, their academic behaviours, interests and motivation as well as the amount of effort they, actually, put in class. The data collected from the research tools rejected four of the null hypotheses and, thus, confirmed the alternative hypotheses, namely, that the sample of secondary school pupils, in the different secondary school year study levels, differ in terms of their academic self-concept, academic motivation, and academic achievement, that the association of academic self-concept and motivation do predict the level of academic achievement of the sample of adolescents in all three secondary school levels, that there is a significant difference in both academic self-concept and academic achievement with regard to gender, and finally that the

sample adolescent learners hold quite varied self-beliefs in regard to their motivational orientations and school engagement that they believe affect their academic self-concept and academic achievement. The data from the teachers' interview sessions failed to reject the last null hypothesis. They demonstrated that the EFL teachers had little insights of their learners' academic self-concept and academic success that they could have a theoretical understanding of their roles but were far from executing them in practical situations.

CHAPTER FOUR

Chapter Four

Conclusions, Recommendations and Pedagogical Implications

Chapter Four ▬ Conclusions, Recommendations and Pedagogical Implications

4.1 Introduction

The main objective of the present research study was to, primarily, examine the relationships among academic self-concept, academic motivation, and academic achievement for adolescents at the level of the secondary education and explore their perspectives as well as beliefs in regard to the possible factors that might affect their academic self-concept, academic motivation, and academic attainment.

This chapter, hence, founds on the results reported in chapter three that has provided a data analysis of both quantitative and qualitative findings. The analysis of the four research tools gave way to quite interesting results. This chapter, first, includes a summary of the findings, then, addresses the implications that these findings have on pupils' foreign language learning, the EFL classroom practices and the different teaching methods and strategies employed by their teachers. In general, the set of recommendations, as intended, are made to enhance both secondary school adolescent pupils' learning as well as their EFL teachers' quality of teaching. Finally, the chapter addresses the limitations of the study and presents some suggestions for further research.

4.2 Review of the Main Findings

The findings of the study provided sufficient answers to the addressed research questions. This section, presently, addresses the results of every single research question as formulated in this study.

- ***Research Question # 1: To what extent do the sample pupils in the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd secondary school year study levels differ in terms of their academic self- concept, academic motivation, and academic achievement?***

The different scores of all data collected from the survey questionnaires, completed by the pupils at Benahmed Bekhedda secondary school, revealed significant levels of variance among the different study year level groups. The scores related to the adolescent learners' self-described perceptions of their academic English competence and academic effort disclosed that third year level pupils displayed the highest values of academic self-concept. Such a positive insight of their academic abilities is, mainly, reinforced by the fact that English is a major discipline in their overall school subjects, besides, their awareness of the importance of the final year to determine their future careers. The second year level

pupils, noticeably, reported middling mean values for both their academic competence and perceived academic effort. As for the first year level pupils, they tended to have slightly moderate self-perceptions of their competence and academic effort. This mood is, characteristically, generated by their confused feelings induced, mostly, by the transition from middle school to the secondary school. The first year pupils, still, feel the need to adapt to the new environment and different syllabuses. It is until they reach the second year level that their academic self-concept becomes more stable. Also, the relation between their academic self-concept and achievement becomes stronger. These findings get in agreement with many contemporary studies that have supported that self-concept is closely tied to adolescents' academic achievement as they move through the grades. The studies, also, have suggested that the causal direction of academic self-concept and achievement vary with age and that the academic self-concept of younger pupils is more likely to be influenced by school performance (e.g., Dunning & Cohen, 1992; Franken, 1994; Marsh, 1999; Kobal & Musek, 2001; Marsh et al., 2002; Guay et al., 2003; Liu & Wang, 2005; De Fraine et al., 2007; Denissen et al., 2007; Moller & Pohlmann, 2010. Gore & Cross, 2011; Obilor, 2012; Pinxten et al., 2015. Crocetti & Van Dijk, 2016).

The descriptive analysis of the pupils' academic motivation scale and self-beliefs on their different motivational orientations, in learning English, revealed that the majority of the surveyed adolescent pupils, along the three year study levels, were identified as having a combination of both intrinsic and extrinsic types of motivational orientations with a slight inclination to extrinsic motivation. This result confirms the findings and claims of many experts in the field of educational research that both types of motivation are important factors of academic achievement, in general, and language learning in particular (e.g., Wolters,Yu, & Pintrich, 1996; Wolters & Pintrich,1998; Deci & Ryan, 2002; Lepper et al., 2005; Becker et al., 2010).

The analysis, also, indicated that both first and second year level informant pupils, noticeably, reported quite similar positive mean values for their academic interest. The different scores demonstrated that almost all pupils tended to consider the concrete benefit out of learning the language. Many of them reported to be more concerned with marks and their future careers, still, the adolescent learners did not deny cultivating some intrinsic concern in learning English as it has proved to be a quite useful medium to engage in the challenging process of globalization and link consistent ties with the external world. As for the third year level pupils, they have scored the lowest mean values for their overall

perceived academic motivation though they have shown to possess a quite positive insight of their academic enthusiasm. This perception is, basically, fed by agitated feelings towards the ultimate stage of the secondary school education and final exam. Since adolescence is a time of change and that academic achievement, at this time, can have significant implications on employment and career opportunities, many adolescent pupils, in secondary school final year showed to be quite worried about their future careers. They realized that, with respect to their age, potential failure and dissatisfaction are at the end of their schooling process. This leads to confusion and little motivation towards school and learning. Both the literature review and the empirical findings of this investigation devised age to be a factor influencing the learners' academic motivation. The learners, in the first and second year levels, displayed more academic interest towards learning and academics than their peers in the third year level. Such findings are plainly confirmed in various contemporary research studies (e.g. Hidi & Harackiewicz, 2000; Baker & MacIntyre, 2000; Williams, Burden & Lanvers, 2002; Alderman, 2004; Yeung & McInerney, 2005; Kormos & Csizér,2008; Sung, 2010).

As mentioned in the previous sections, pupils' academic achievement, in English learning and overall GPA average, was measured throughout the three term exams along the school year 2017/2018. The empirical findings of this investigation provided evidence that the first and third year study level pupils' scores were, relatively, average in both English and overall subjects whereas second year study level pupils' scores were satisfactory. The observed differences between the adolescents, in the three study levels, in terms of their overall school and English GPA may not be a sign of academic achievement gaps between these adolescents but rather may simply be the outcome of the assessment standards and methods employed in the secondary school institution. The assessment standards may vary from teacher to teacher. However, such variations in academic achievement may be translated into a set of factors that control the pupils' academic achievement. As mentioned previously, the first year level pupils face a new environment while making the transition from the middle school to the secondary school. They, not only, meet new syllabuses but also have to acquaint with new methods of instruction and assessment standards. These elements, when combined, affect promptly on the young adolescents' general self-concept of their academic abilities to perform in the new environment. It is until the pupils reach the second year level and, apparently, find position in the new environment that they feel the aptitude and academic enthusiasm to carry on their schooling and attain academically. Once in the third year, the pupils find themselves in a situation where they have to sit for the

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Baccalaureate examination: the final exam that acts both as an assessment for the three years of secondary instruction and as a doorway to higher education. It is a challenging and most exhausting assignment. Third year pupils find themselves trapped in a process where they are required to show optimum interest and put on the necessary effort to overcome the difficulties and obstacles imposed upon them by the great load of the final year and the formal exam. They are developing skills enabling them to respond to a demanding array of activities, examinations and deadlines, all within a context of performance and competition. For some other pupils, the stress of the BAC exam will, at times, reduce their capacity to respond effectively. The pupils who find it difficult to be on the stand and join the set of requirements in their final school year, with the resources that are available to them, may experience a decline in motivation and self-concept. They see their efforts ineffective and vain.

In summary, the descriptive analysis revealed that third year level pupils reported significantly higher self-concept than their peers in the first and second year study levels. In contrast, their perceived academic motivation seemed to have decreased along the years. In all the three study year groups, the sample participants displayed a combination of both intrinsic and extrinsic levels of motivation with pupils in the first and second year levels recording, slightly, higher rates of motivation if compared to their peers in the third year study level. Further, English average and overall GPA seemed to be quite satisfactory for the second year level pupils. First and third year levels scored moderately.

In all, the descriptive statistics demonstrated that the sample of secondary school pupils, in the three secondary school year study levels, reported relative variances in terms of their self-perceived academic self-concept, academic motivation, and academic achievement. Therefore, the first null hypothesis (H_{01}) is rejected inferring that the sample pupils in the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd secondary school year study levels differ in terms of their academic self-concept, academic motivation, and academic achievement.

- ***Research Question # 2: Can the association of academic self-concept and motivation predict the level of academic achievement of the sample of adolescents in all three secondary school levels?***

In order to establish the association of both academic motivation and self-concept to predict the level of academic performance of the sample pupils, at Benahmed Bekhedda

secondary school, a correlational analysis was performed to assess the relationship between the three variables of the study.

The correlation coefficients between self-concept and academic achievement demonstrated that self-concept predicted only (3.61 %) variance in the academic achievement of the first year level sample pupils while it indicated (13.6 %) and (39.6%) of the variance in the academic achievement of the second and third year sample pupils respectively which implies that a positive linear correlation exists between both variables. Such findings denote that the higher pupils' academic self-concept is, the higher is their academic performance.

The second correlational analysis was computed to assess the relationship between motivation and academic achievement. The correlation coefficients established that academic motivation predicted only (7.29 %) variance in the academic achievement of the first year level sample pupils whereas it indicated (10.8 %) and (49 %) of the variance in the academic achievement of the second and third year sample pupils respectively. Thus, the correlation analysis demonstrated that the higher pupils' academic motivation is, the higher is their academic achievement.

The third correlational analysis was calculated to evaluate the relationship between self-concept and academic motivation. The correlation coefficients disclosed that academic motivation predicted only (1.06 %) of the variation in the first year level sample pupils' self-concept while it indicated (16.8 %) and (47.6 %) of the variance in the self-concept of the second and third year sample pupils respectively.

In comparing the three correlation coefficients, it appeared that the linear correlation between the different variables of the study was marginally significant for the first year study level pupils. The association, then, grows in significance as far as pupils shift from one level to and another. This is clearly indicated by the level and magnitude of the computed coefficients of correlation and determination. The bivariate analyses, thus, concurred with many contemporary studies that suggested the existence of additional personal and environmental variables that mediate the relation of both self-concept and academic performance (e.g. Valentine & DuBois , 2005 ; Guay et al., 2010; Areepattamannil, 2012). The empirical findings disclosed the pivotal role that intrinsic motivation plays in refining the academic achievement of the secondary school adolescents. Hence these findings revealed to be consistent with Deci and Ryan's conception of self-determination theory (SDT). They affirmed that individuals with high perceived academic competence are more likely to have

high intrinsic motivation towards their activity because *"they are acting with an internal perceived locus of causality"* (Deci & Ryan, 2002). However, the adolescents' responses to the *Academic Motivation Scale* (AMS) demonstrated that pupils' extrinsic motivation as well mediated the relationships between their academic self-concepts and academic achievement. They suggested, also, that the adolescent informants who displayed higher academic self-perceptions tended, also, to be extrinsically motivated and obtained higher grades in school because their academic self-concepts helped them to be more motivated towards school and academics. Lepper et al. (2005) postulated that developing both intrinsic and extrinsic motives can be adaptive for learners.

Pupils' overall English GPA was positively correlated with their perceived self-concept and motivation for all the levels. Both the academic self-concept and motivation scales delivered a varied contribution to the explanation of the variance in the academic achievement of the various year study level pupils on the (5%) level of significance. Thus, the findings of the correlation analyses reject the second null hypothesis (H_{02}) and reveal that the association of academic self-concept and motivation predicted the level of academic achievement of the sample of adolescents in all three secondary school levels.

- *Research Question # 3: Are there statistically significant differences in the level of academic self-concept, motivational orientations, and academic achievement in relation to gender among the sample pupils in the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd secondary school year study levels?*

Another objective of the study was to determine gender variation in the pupils' specific aspects of their academic achievement in relation to the conceptual variables. The descriptive findings from the respondents' academic self-perceptions of each level group revealed a relative statistical significance in terms of the self-reported academic self-concept among male and female pupil participants with female pupils exhibiting higher self-perceptions of their academic aptitudes than male pupils. In the third year level, male and female pupils had, noticeably, shown to possess a quite positive insight of their academic abilities in learning the target language with female pupils displaying better beliefs in their academic self-concept than males. Second year level pupils, seemingly, reported similar mean values for both male and female pupils who had a positive perception of their academic aptitudes. In contrast, the first year level male pupils tended to have, slightly, fair self-perceptions of their academic competence whereas female participants presented higher

perceptions of both their English academic competence and effort.

Concerning the level of variance in male and female pupils' academic motivation over the different year study levels, the findings demonstrated that the mean gender difference for the various motivation subscales was quite significant for all the informants in the three year study levels. This discrepancy was to the advantage of female participants having shown to be endowed with a strong motivational determination as compared to male pupils. Both the first and second year level male and female pupils, noticeably, reported the highest positive mean values for their academic interest. In the third year study level, male pupils scored the lowest mean values for their overall perceived academic motivation as opposed to the female participants who displayed, significantly, higher levels of their academic enthusiasm.

Referring to gender differences in terms of pupils' overall academic achievement scores, the results of the descriptive statistics designed a typical example of mixed ability groups with female pupils performing better than males in, practically, all subjects.

In summary, the analysis of gender variation in terms of pupils' academic attainment, in relation to the conceptual variables of the study, revealed that female pupils reported significantly higher self-perceptions of their academic abilities, academic motivation and scholastic performance than their male peers in all the three study level groups. Male pupil participants, distinctively, demonstrated lower academic self-awareness as their perceived academic motivation appeared to have decreased along the various levels. The female informants, on the contrary, seemed to keep ascending concerns for their educational outcomes and scholastic interest along the different year study levels. The findings agreed with most studies which suggested that, on average, girls get higher grades and complete high school at a higher rate compared to boys (e.g. Schiefele, Krapp, & Winteler, 1992; Ryan & Pintrich,1997; Jacobs, 2002; Williams et al., 2002 ; Steinmayr & Spinath, 2008; Al-Bustan & Al-Bustan , 2009; Ghazvini & Khajehpour,2011; Wach et al;, 2015; Arens et al. 2016). The findings of the descriptive analysis, thus, reject the third null hypothesis ($H_{03)}$) and establish statistically significant differences in the level of academic self-concept, motivational orientations, and academic achievement in relation to gender among the sample pupils in the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd secondary school year study levels.

- *Research Question # 4: What are the sample adolescent learners' self-perceptions in regard to the factors that they believe they can foster their academic self-concept, motivation, and academic achievement?*

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The direct inferences of both the statistical and correlational findings of the present study with respect to the mediational role of academic motivation imply that the adolescent learners who perceive themselves as academically competent may perform enthusiastically and obtain higher grades in school. The focus group discussions with the sample adolescents aimed, primarily, at bringing some proof to cross check data obtained from the quantitative analysis and explore the secondary school adolescents' self-beliefs about their academic abilities in learning English besides some of the factors that could influence their scholastic performances. The findings suggested that the sample adolescents cared about school However, their academic concern was, predominantly, for extrinsic motives. Most of the adolescents, involved in the interview discussions, emphasized external reasons to engage academically such as to obtain good marks, secure a future career, or access university. The great majority of them realized that school and academics play a very important role in their future. However, few of them could perceive the real ambitions out of learning. They could realize that it was essential for them to acquire the necessary knowledge to assimilate what was happening around them.

The focus group interviews, also, revealed that the adolescents perceived their classroom learning environments to be both demanding and restraining. They complained that they had no freedom to choose their coursework. In all, the great majority of adolescents preferred to be given some kind of freedom in their everyday assignments. They, strongly, felt that they should be involved in what they learn. Many of the adolescents indicated that they were pursuing the goals of their teachers rather than their goals. Moreover, they expressed their vivid interest in seeing their teachers more responsive and supportive to their leaning. In sum, all adolescents acknowledged their teachers' efforts in enhancing their learning. What they, really, insisted on was that their teachers show more understanding, enthusiasm, friendliness and helpfulness towards them, create a variety of activities, accept their answers without interruption, instruct them clearly, encourage them with marks and rewards and create a pleasant and comfortable learning environment.

The findings out of the thematic analysis of the focus group sessions reject the fourth null hypothesis (H_{04}) and, thus, confirm that the sample adolescent learners do hold varied self-beliefs in regard to the factors that they believe they can foster their academic self-concept, motivation, and academic achievement.

- *Research Question # 5:   What are the EFL teachers' perceptions of their learners'*
  academic self-concept and its possible implication on their scholastic performance?

The EFL teachers' semi-structured interviews came in support to the data collected from the focus group sessions. Indeed, the EFL teachers' insights of their pupils' perceptions of learning is a major factor in their academic achievement. The thematic analysis brought up that the teachers were quite inconclusive about how their pupils felt about their abilities to learn English. Some of them believed their pupils, really, cared about school and academics while others considered this interest to be linked to how much benefit they could get out of it. The teachers seemed confused when asked about their pupils' self-concepts which appeared to be totally unknown to them. They confessed that they focussed more, during their teaching, on their pupils' cognitive abilities to perform the daily assignments, their effort in class, participation, and behaviour. The teachers felt less concerned with their learners' affective aspects and appropriate learning styles. In fact, the EFL teachers had an inaccurate apprehension of their pupils' learning and academic self-beliefs. Another point which was subject to debate was that the teachers did not think their learners would have a share in the classroom assignments. On the contrary, they thought it was the job of the teacher to set pupils to task that he/she sees adequate to their programme and level. Concerning their pupils' competitive performance in the EFL classroom and their perception of this competition, the teachers appeared quite aware of the advantages of making their pupils compare their performance to others. Yet, these discernments of their pupils' real drives to learn and compete, in class, were interpreted to be plainly for extrinsic rewards.

The EFL teachers' perceptions of their roles and methods in the EFL classroom were summarized in their recognition of their pupils' need for their assistance to come across the loaded programmes. The teachers thought it was imperative for them to guide their pupils and incite them to work hard. Nonetheless, they did not conceive that the adolescents were more in need for understanding and assurance than instructions and guidance. As for the EFL teachers' perceptions of the factors that can boost their pupils' self-concept, motivation, and academic achievement, all the teachers explained the adequate measures that they felt would improve their learners' willingness to learn. Yet, they failed to implement them in practice.

In a summary of the data collected from the teachers' interview sessions, the EFL teachers proved to hold inaccurate perceptions of their pupils' abilities within the classroom context. They still nurtured them, tightly, considering that they knew exactly what the learners

needed at the level of the secondary education. Thus, the results out of the qualitative analysis failed to reject the last null hypothesis (H_{05}) and, therefore, proved that the EFL teachers, at Benahmed Bekhedda secondary school, have very little insights of their learners' academic self-concept.

4.3 Discussion of the Findings

The main objective of this research work was to investigate the role of non-cognitive factors on the academic attainment of adolescent learners during their secondary education stage. In fact, this study highlighted the pivotal role of affective variables to promote the academic success of pupils. It tested the reciprocal reliance of academic achievement to self-concept, on the one hand, and the influence of external constraints, namely, gender and school engagement on adolescent learners' academic self-perceptions and motivation on the other hand. Such interplay resulted in prevalent implications on factors that affect adolescents' self-concept and motivation, in general, and their academic achievement in particular.

Specifically, this empirical investigation was meant to expand the existing research knowledge by exploring potential variances in adolescent pupils' academic self-concept and school engagement. The inquiry was based on the data obtained from a sample of secondary school adolescents within the three year study levels from Benahmed Bekhedda secondary school in Zemmora- Relizane. Hopefully, four of the five formulated research questions have been answered and, thus, contributed in generating interesting results.

As mentioned in the review of the findings of the study, the adolescent pupils, in their first year study level, demonstrated moderate perceptions of their academic self-beliefs about their abilities to achieve success. They showed diverse motivational orientations and expressed, vividly, their need to feel more secure in their new environment. Though the pupils displayed higher values in terms of their academic interest, their scores were; relatively, average in both English and overall subjects. Throughout the focus group discussions, the adolescents formulated their expressive need to much more assistance from the part of their teachers and peers to overcome the challenging routines of the first year level requirements. They, also, inferred that they needed ample time to surmount the bewildering transitional period.

On the contrary of the confused first year level pupils, the second year level pupils seemed to have overcome the perplexity of the transition and set steady landmarks. The great majority of adolescents held positive insights of both their academic self-concept and

motivation. Their overall GPA scores were quite satisfactory. Such findings confirm the role of affective variables and socio-motivational relationships to enhance pupils' academic achievement. Second year level adolescent pupils had enough time to prevail over the impact of the shift from middle school to secondary school and get accustomed to the academic requirements and programmes of the secondary education stage. They have more clear insights of their scholastic potentials if compared to their peers in both first and third year study levels.

Having reached the third year of the secondary education, the adolescent pupils are confronted to the challenging requirements of the final year. It is the time when they sit for the Baccalaureate examination, a challenging and most exhausting assignment that acts both as an assessment for the three years of secondary instruction and as a doorway to higher education. The final year has significant implications on their future employment and career opportunities. All such factors join together to install a stressful environment for the adolescents. At this juncture, the third year level pupils feel their academic enthusiasm fade away though they display high discernment of their self-concept and ability to achieve. Once again the affective variables and socio-motivational relationships prove to be decisive at engaging pupils to succeed. The pressures exerted by the parents, teachers and peers, upon the adolescents, sweep away all their efforts and thrust them towards academic inefficacy and potential failure.

The following sections propose to get in deeper interpretation of the particular theoretical and practical implications stemming from the current research.

4.4 Theoretical implications

It was empirically established that the adolescent learners' level of self-concept and motivation play an influential role in both school engagement and academic performance. Learners with higher academic self-perception levels always achieve greater success in their learning, while those displaying lower self-beliefs make little attempts in their process of learning and often fail to perform academically. Therefore, every attempt to enhance adolescents' academic self-perceptions contribute automatically in upgrading their school engagement and achievement

The findings of both the quantitative and qualitative data of the study, also, suggested that it is important to address pupils' academic self-concept research referring, not only, to achievement dimensions, but also to motivation and external-oriented factors. In all,

it is quite practical to consider the whole process as a result of complex interplay among various factors. Moreover, the qualitative findings of this research work underscored variances in adolescent pupils' affective and socio-motivational needs depending on their degree of school engagement. Actually, the pupils' insights of their academic abilities are, firmly, tied to the whole process of learning and the relational network that defines the adolescents' accounting for achievement. Therefore, it is essential to include, not only, the association of self-concept and motivation to the pupils' achievement but also consider such aspects of teachers' perceptions of their learners' abilities, the intra- and inter-individual differences of pupils and their potential impact on the socio-motivational relationships within the classroom context. It is, also, paramount to reflect on gender differences as patterns of interaction between male and female pupils.

4.5 Practical Implications

By the beginning of the third millennium, the Algerian society has made a step forward towards being more conversant with the new worldwide views, values and norms that have been imposed by the concept of globalization. The adopted reforms in the education sector, during the past two decades, has been one direct outcome of such a planetary movement that urged the educational institutions to reconsider some important issues in the instructional policy and establish solid bases for effective teaching and learning. In fact, it has been primordial to found for the most appropriate strategies to educate the young generations in a way that enables them to act autonomously and manage their lives in the 21st century. Reaching immediate outcomes has proved to be quite a challenging task. Undeniably, it has been a long-term process that required setting stable objectives, continuity in the implementation of these objectives and the application of the knowledge gained from the field experience of others to the local context. It has, also, called upon the contribution of those directly involved in the educational process to elaborate new structural, curricular and pedagogical adjustments which requested a new configuration of the educational system.

As an extension to the communicative approach, the Algerian ministry of education opted for the introduction of the competency based approach (CBA) in an attempt to answer the immediate needs and shift from teacher to learner-centred instruction. The application of the principles of CBA to the field of English language teaching has announced for the Competency Based Language Teaching (CBLT). This approach was meant to focus on teaching the skills and behaviours needed to perform competences referred to as the learners'

"ability to apply different kinds of basic skills in situations that are commonly encountered in everyday life" (Richards & Schmidt, 2010: 94)

The actual theoretical foundation of the CBLT was to move from what learners know about language to what they can, actually, do with it. The focus, thus, was put upon the actual competencies and the learning outcomes reinforced by a new curriculum framework, syllabus specification, teaching strategies and assessment standards.

Though the teachers, administrators and counsellors constitute the key factors of change, these agents are rarely involved in important decision-making such as new syllabus content choice, methodology or evaluation practices. That is why, in reforms, teachers and experts should be those who have to adjust and update the teaching/learning materials according to the real challenges of the teaching/learning situation. Besides, as demonstrated throughout the investigation phase of this research work, the examined research problem is, deeply, rooted in a combination of teaching and learning false assumptions about the teaching/learning of English as a foreign language. The qualitative data from the EFL teachers' interview sessions presented clear illustrations of these assumptions. One explicit instance is the teachers' and learners' uncomfortable position towards the target language. Such a 'malaise' is conceptualized in overloaded programmes, teachers' complaints about pupils' underachievement and disinterest, learners' lack of awareness of the real objectives behind learning the English language and, above all, inadequate assessment practices. Taking into account all these teaching/learning constraints, teachers should adopt a teaching methodology that is consistent with the CBLT requirements and principles in the Algerian context. The need for fundamental solutions to avoid the shortcomings of these stances becomes such an urgent issue to be closely considered through manipulating the three main teaching/learning situation variables: The teacher, the applied teaching methodology and the learner.

As such, the empirical findings, of the present study, revealed the pressing need to a model that can be designed, specifically, for remedial intervention and applied in a manner which would improve pupils' academic achievement. The objective, here, is no longer to find the best teaching method but to *"clarify principles by which each teacher can develop an approach which is sensitive to his or her own specific context,"* (Littlewood, 2013: 9).

4.6 Pedagogical Implications

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Though the competency based approach is mainly revolving around the learners' role in constructing their learning, thus minimizing the teacher's role to the extent to be a monitor and motivator in the learning process, evidence shows a contradicting image of the Algerian EFL context where the teacher is, still, in charge of the whole process and where the learners are passive participators. The CBLT method did not appear to have contributed to learners acquiring the target language itself but only learning about it.

Based on the results of the present study, this section suggests some pedagogical implications.

4.6.1 Designing a Remedial Intervention Model

Today's Algerian secondary schools are required to deliver instruction to a more academically diverse pupil population. This heterogeneity is a direct implication of the changing tendencies and the influential globalization requirements.

Despite the revolutionary reforms that brought radical transformations to worldwide educational trends, our Algerian EFL classes, still manifest the plain belief that instruction is bound to the programme coverage, that pupils are as passive dependent receivers of the knowledge delivered in classroom setting, that assessment happens at the end of teaching, and that classroom management is just a synonym for pupils' behaviour control. We have reached a critical threshold where we need to revise our instructional practices to promote a broad range of our learners with personal investment in learning and higher academic attainment.

Most classrooms embody pupils of mixed ability levels. Some of them achieve the expected milestones while others struggle to succeed with their learning. Still others are usually somewhere in between.

At the level of secondary education, the adolescent pupils display different interests and learn in different ways with respect to different learning styles and profiles. This is often thought to have an impact in all teaching contexts, in general, and EFL environments in particular. For the sake of guaranteeing an optimal training to all learners, a remedial intervention model is needed to complement the advocated CBLT approach, on the one hand, and ensure the connection between affect and cognition in teaching and learning on the other hand.

In the process of remedying this situation, teachers are, therefore, bound to implement new language learning strategies that target their learners' individual differences in

the classroom context. A differentiated instruction (DI) model would be almost appropriate to fit with both the needs of the learners and their teachers.

4.6.2 Differentiated Instruction

The following section proposes to explain the key components of the differentiation instructional strategies. It puts forward the practical pedagogical applications of this approach in the Algerian secondary education. It aims, also, to contribute to the apprehension of this teaching trend and its possible complementarity to the adopted CBLT approach.

- *Targeting learners' Needs*

As reported previously, the empirical results, specifically the qualitative ones, indicated a large number of failures that have become a regular occurrence in the Algerian EFL classroom context. Despite the effort put on, in the EFL teaching/learning process, learners do not appear to attain the desired success prompted by the CBLT approach. The gap seems to widen between what is planned to be achieved and what is, really, reported in the field. Pupils continue to experience problems with the different intensive English programmes at the level of the three study year levels of the secondary education and require additional academic support. The need to make provision for a remedial model becomes a pressing priority. Such a model would complement the recommended approach set by the ministry of education.

In recent years, a great deal of teaching and learning research has recognized the merit of differentiated pedagogical principles and procedures that address diverse pupils' learning needs. They place the learner at the centre of teaching and learning process. It has strongly contested the once assumed idea that all pupils, in classroom, are alike as learners. The persistent *'one-size-fits-all'* teaching practices seem to have no efficiency in the new teaching approaches of the 21st century education. Tomlinson (2003) explained the basic framework of this instructional strategy, commonly called differentiation instruction (DI), as a process through which *"teachers, proactively, modify curricula, teaching methods, resources, learning activities, and student products to address the diverse needs of individual students and small groups of students to maximize the learning opportunity for each student in a classroom"* (p. 121). Differentiation recognizes learners' individual differences and is, particularly, conducive to academic attainment. Understanding the concept

of differentiation as well as the key components is important to help implementing it in EFL classrooms.

- *Understanding Pupils' Differences*

The key role of the differentiation instructional process is to help teachers to improve the quality of their teaching which, in turn, requires understanding the learning needs of their learners and designing instruction to meet those needs. The actual challenge that meets the teachers, in all teaching contexts in general and EFL context in particular, is that no two EFL learners are alike. They have different backgrounds, rate of acquisition, levels of proficiency, interests, self-perceptions, motivational orientations, and attitudes towards language learning and academic success. The extent to which the pupils engage in a constructive learning, in a classroom context, is governed in part by their innate abilities and prior background as well as by the accordance of the teaching styles with their attributes as language learners.

Due to the variance in pupils' approaches to learning, teachers are firmly required to understand this variance among learners, in the classroom, and respond to it. Basing on the surmise that some teaching strategies, simply, work better for certain pupils than others and that learning profiles help to determine the learning preferences, teachers, therefore, have to design their teaching around them (McCarthy, 2014, cited in Siddiqui, & Alghamdi, 2017).

In sum, the way the teachers approach their learners' differences is guided by their beliefs and philosophy of teaching and learning. ***"Differentiation works best in classrooms where certain beliefs motivate why, what, and how teachers approach planning for and responding to student differences"*** (Tomlinson, 2014).

Acceding to Tomlinson (2014), four tenets about the capabilities and potential of all learners and about the role and responsibility of all teachers, represent assumptions of the teacher of a differentiated classroom: (1) the teachers have to understand that pupils represent a rich range of diverse experiences and characteristics in classroom and that they have to value who learners are as individuals and as a group, (2) they assume that every learner has a hidden and extensive capacity to learn, (3) they commit to doing what they can with the time they have to make sure every child grows, and finally (4) the teachers of differentiated classrooms understand that though their role has limits, they have the responsibility to effect growth in all learners that no pupil is unreachable (Tomlinson, 2014, cited in Hockett, 2018:6).

- *Implementing Differentiation in our EFL Classrooms*

The primary goal of differentiated instruction, as a remedial intervention model that complements the applied CBLT approach, is to develop engaging tasks for each learner and move from a standardized instruction to a differentiated one. Tomlinson and Imbeau (2010) proposed that the instructional activities should be flexible and adjusted according to the four elements: content, process, product, and affect.

- **Content***:* What the learners need to learn. All the learners are given access to the same core content. Differentiation happens by adjusting the complexity of the content to the learners' needs and profiles.

- **Process:** How learners come to understand and make sense of the content. The tasks are adjusted according to patterns in learners' readiness, interest, or learning profile.

- **Products:** How learners demonstrate what they have come to know, understand, and are able to do after an extended period of learning in group or individual work, employing various means of scoring.

- **Affect**: How learners' emotions and feelings impact their learning (Tomlinson & Imbeau, 2010).

The model for differentiation of instruction, presented in Table 4.1, is a representation of Carol Tomlinson's Model for Differentiation of Instruction. This model comprises a set of practices and principles that provide a clear definition of what differentiation is:

When teachers differentiate, they make proactive adjustments to		
Content	**Process**	**Product**
The information, ideas, and skills that students will take in or grapple with in order to reach the learning goals.	The activities through which students take in and make sense of key ideas in the content using essential knowledge and skills.	How students demonstrate and extend what they know, understand, and can do as a result of a unit or series of lessons.
according to patterns in student		
Readiness	**Interests**	**Learning Profile**
The student's proximity to specified learning goals.	The student's personal and situational passions, affinities, and kinships that motivate learning.	The student's preferred approaches to learning, as influenced by thinking style, intelligence preference, cultural background, or gender.
using instructional strategies informed by		
Standards-aligned learning goals Pre-assessment and formative assessment Interest and preference surveys and inventories		
and implemented through		
Varied instructional groupings Flexible classroom routines Efficient management techniques and tools		
in the context of		
Supportive, growth-oriented, community-centered classroom environments.		

Table 4.1: Model for Differentiation of Instruction (Tomlinson, 2014, cited in Hockett, 2018:8)

The proficient implementation of the differentiation instruction (DI), in our EFL classrooms, requires not only the mastery of the CBLT approach and its objectives in the Algerian educational context but also the accurate understanding of the teaching/learning tools, methods, and principles. The association of both the empirical findings of this research work to the review of literature has generated quite interesting recommendations for a better instruction and successful learning.

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4.7 Recommendations of the Study

While most recommendations, in this domain area, would focus on the crucial role of the curriculum and pedagogy, namely to emphasize the EFL teachers' instructional methods and strategies to motivate their pupils in classroom setting, the researcher finds himself more concerned by three main aspects that characterize the successful teaching/learning process within the Algerian educational context: (a) the issue of teachers' professional development and identity for they represent, in his point of view, the main pivot of the application and mastery of the teaching strategies, (b) the learning environment that has significant impact on pupils' learning., and (c) the psychology of the learner, often, referred to as motivational or non-cognitive factors. These may include pupils' beliefs about themselves, their attitudes about school, and perception of academic success. In sum, the set of recommendations are shaped into educational interventions. They are presented in such a way to target the psychological factors which can transform the adolescent learners' learning experience and achievement in school and improve their basic academic outcome.

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                    RECOMMENDATIONS


  Teacher            EFL Classroom      The Psychology of
  Professional       Learning           the Learner
  Development        Environment
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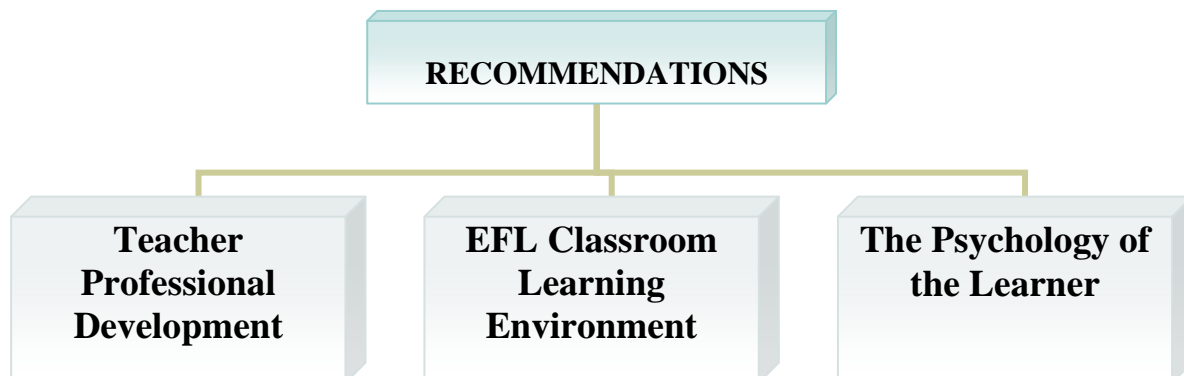
Figure 4.1: Recommendations of the Study

4.7.1 Teacher Professional Development

One of the multiple realities of 21st century is the unimaginable technological leap that revolutionized all domains of life. The sector of education has been the most impacted by such new worldwide trends. Preparing learners for their future roles requires that their teachers receive a quality training and support to be equipped for the future as well. Hence, teacher trainers are challenged to revise their teacher preparation programmes to reflect the current needs of the new era and enrich most of all, teachers' training programmes and professional identity.

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4.7.1.1 Teacher Training

This research work suggests that teachers' professional development would consist in ample trading in three main areas: pedagogical, psychological and technological training.

- *Pedagogical Training*

EFL teachers are highly recommended to bridge the gap between their academic preparation and teaching practices. They have, also, to expand their roles and responsibilities over time to encounter the requirements of each EFL teaching/learning situation. They need to bring up-to-date their professional knowledge and skills to meet the 21st century educational specifications, on the one hand, and adjust to their learners' needs on the other hand. The findings, from the qualitative data, revealed evidence of the poor training bases of the EFL teachers who lack adequate theoretical and practical background to deal with adolescent pupils. It is unconceivable to expect EFL teachers to establish appropriate layers to their teacher-pupil rapport, excel in the implementation of the proposed CBLT approach, and engage their pupils in an effective language learning experience when we, deliberately, know that they have never been trained on the different approaches that they are supposed to apply in their classrooms. EFL teachers' debriefing sessions disclosed that the participant teachers were, unconsciously, applying the same techniques, methods and strategies just the same way they were taught. They illustrated the perfect image of teachers who seemed unwilling to question their teaching practices and to tolerate other modes of instruction that adjust to each learner's interests, backgrounds, and readiness levels. On the contrary, they still stick to traditional methods that provide pupils with less opportunity and ask less of them. The teachers are reluctant to employ adequate instructional strategies that are consistent with how pupils learn best. Instead, they are focusing, solely, on the tasks and how to deliver the course content. A close observation of the teachers' practices, in their EFL classrooms, raises several questions: Do teachers understand the current approach they are dealing with? Do they go in line with the modern strategies employed globally? Have they found out their adolescent pupils' interests and goals relating to their curriculum area? The success of any approach depends on understanding its major components. Teacher training should include a wide range of information on what motivate pupils, the most, to adjust to school and, therefore, learn. In this age of global visions and international collaboration, pupils are increasingly interested in social interactions, travels, and the use of English in authentic communication.

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Consequently, teacher training should focalize on how teachers would raise pupils' awareness about this reality and direct them towards a constructive learning.

Currently, teacher training seem to be more concerned with the course content delivery. It is relying on teachers' own behaviour and organization within the classroom but giving less thought to the idea of the pupils as individuals within a social context with needs and preferences relating to the learning process. Another implication for teacher training is to embody more fieldwork as part of teacher training, including receiving regular feedback, from the pupils, that actually allow the teachers to experience what works well in a real setting rather than a theoretical one. Finally, more experienced teachers should be assigned the mission to mentor and train novice teachers to share their knowledge and experiences with them. Such opportunities may be provided through;

a- *English team coordination meetings:*

The frequent coordination sessions are real opportunities for both experienced and novice teachers to cooperate and collaborate collectively to manage the different issues concerning their curriculum area. They constitute practical sessions to discuss the different matters arising from their everyday interactions with their pupils in term-planned meetings.

b- *Internal pedagogical sessions* (Demonstration lessons):

Regular '*learning walks*' are likely to make from classroom observation of teachers by their colleagues, in prearranged sessions, a field to fructuous insights about the EFL teachers' real-situation professional development. They can provide positive feedback on teaching strategies as well as help to identify weak areas that might need some specific attention. Such peer-observations enable teachers to share strategies with one another. They facilitate discussion and reflections on what is working well and are fields to continuous learning and improvement.

c- *Collaborative planning:*

Many teachers often work in isolation from others. Hence, they fail to reap the benefits of their colleagues' collective expertise. One way to avoid this trap is collaborative planning that can guarantee a better group work and an improved field practice.

d- *Workshops and seminars:*

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Regular meetings of the EFL staff, with specialists in the field, in frequent seminars and workshops can always offer extra opportunities to deal with updated topics and important issues related to English language teaching and learning. Teachers can seize the occasion to reflect on their teaching strengths and weaknesses.

e- *Project work:*

Teachers have to be confident enough to be involved in the opportunities to develop projects such as a lesson demonstration, unit/sequence planning, classroom materials, video and other teaching resources to improve and update their language teaching

These opportunities and many others that teachers have certainly experimented will undoubtedly help them to enhance their basic teaching skills.

- *Appropriateness of Educational Psychology in Efficient Secondary School Teacher Training*

As mentioned previously, the policy of teacher training in our Algerian educational context, mainly, focuses on the content parameters of the curriculum area. Teachers are drilled on the efficient instructional methods to exploit the syllabus and transfer knowledge to the learners. They may be trained on the approach to be adopted and the objectives to be achieved but never on how to consider the learner as an important agent in their daily classroom routines. For the teacher trainers, the whole business can be packed into three elements: teacher, learner, subject area (knowledge). This set is, solely, governed by a cognitive consideration of the factors that can impact the learners' academic outcomes.

One of the chief objectives of this research work is to demonstrate that the exclusion of the non-cognitive factors from any educational experience can result in erroneous results. For such an aim, the researcher supports the introduction of educational psychology as an integral part in teacher training. The intention is not to turn teachers into confirmed psychologists but rather initiate them to some important facts that, if correctly assimilated, would reform all the teachers' self-perceptions and philosophy of teaching.

Contemporary educational psychology research has, totally, reformed the traditional instructional practices. It has contributed in the elaboration of the modern system of education. The teachers' experience with the knowledge of educational psychology helps them in the following ways:

➢ *To conceive a self-insight of themselves:* Educational Psychology helps the teachers to know about their behavioural patterns, personality, attributes, motivation, anxiety, and above all their self-perceptions for most of what teachers do in their classrooms is guided by their philosophy of teaching and learning,

➢ *To know their learners:* The learner is the key element in the current approach to the teaching/learning process. Initiating teachers to educational psychology helps them to explore the psychological perspective of their learners i.e., their interests, attitudes, individual differences, acquired or innate capacities, mental health, and, principally, their self-beliefs about learning and academic engagement. Such a knowledge would facilitate the teachers' interaction with their learners, help them to form positive attitudes towards the learners so that to provide them with a seamless guidance.

➢ *To discern the different stages of development:* Psychology informs the teachers about the human different stages of development: infancy, childhood, adolescence and adulthood. They learn about the main characteristics and behaviour patterns in these different periods of life. The identification of these periods as regards to physical, mental and emotional development help the teachers to determine appropriate behaviour and methods of teaching for pupils during the different stages of their development.

➢ *To understand the nature of learning:* Educational Psychology helps the teacher to gain insight of the diverse approaches and principles of the learning process. The apprehension of the various factors affecting it can assist the teacher to apply effective remedial measures in the learning situation.

➢ T*o deal with the daily classroom problems:* The classroom can be home to unforeseen complications that interfere with the regular progression of the learning process such as bullying, peer pressure, tensions, cheating and so on. Educational Psychology, therefore, guides the teachers to the core characteristics of the problem. It gives them grounding on the dynamics of the group and provides them with the adequate modalities of adjustment to face every single learning situation and maintain a proactive learning atmosphere in the classroom.

➢ *To provide guidance and counselling:* Modern instruction requires that teachers go beyond their teaching to act as learning facilitators and motivators. One important role to emphasize, today in classroom context, is to provide their learners with the necessary

guidance and counselling to enhance their academic performance and meet their needs. All this can be properly implemented, in classroom,   if the teachers dispose of the needed knowledge to deal with the psychology of children.

➢ *To understand mechanisms of evaluation and assessment:* Evaluation is an integral part of the teaching/learning process. Educational psychology provides the teachers with the most suitable techniques to evaluate the potentialities of their learners.

In conclusion, educational psychology is the most appropriate tool to initiate teachers to the psychology of their learners. It has contributed considerably to the creation of the modern system of education.

- *Digital Literacy and Teacher Training*

A challenging role of modern instruction is to include 21st century technology skills in teaching in order to help teachers evaluate and improve upon the implementation of ICT during their real world practice experiences.

Today, teachers are compelled to adjust their traditional modes of instruction to include the 21st century skills. Digital literacy constitutes, today more than ever before, a necessary skill to develop for both the learners and teachers. The lack of technology integration creates a real handicap for today's teachers. Technology needs to be an elemental part of the daily curriculum in our secondary school, yet this is often not the case.

There are quite many reasons to consider when dealing with teachers' reluctance to integrate technology into their classrooms. In this pattern, teachers go under three categories. Some of them are recalcitrant because of problems with, or lack of, equipment and software availability. Others feel that technology integration is, plainly, a trivial use of time and effort while other teachers feel technology is troublesome and risky to use. Even when integrating ICT in the classroom, some teachers'instructional strategies remain strictly unaffected.

In our Algerian context, the actual problem, for teachers, is not integrating technologies in their teaching but, rather, mastering their mechanisms of implementation within the classroom. When teachers are endowed with the adequate digital literacy knowledge, they will only become competent and comfortable in the inclusion of ICT in their daily curriculum.

4.7.1.2 Teacher Professional Identity

Teachers' professional identity is an ongoing process that goes hand in hand with their professional development. Broadly, it is defined as the professional self-concept based on teachers' experience, education, environment, beliefs, motivations and personal characteristics.
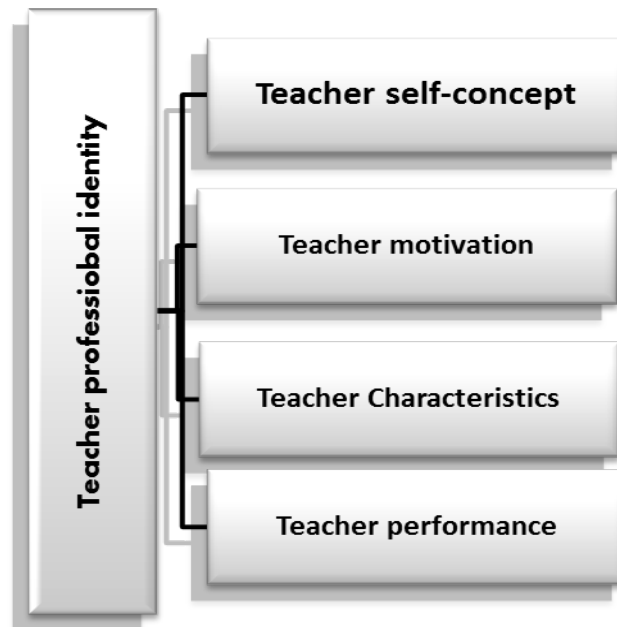
Figure 4.2; Components of Teacher Professional Identity

A. Teacher Self-concept

Teachers' professional role is quite complex. It requires that they possess certain qualities and skills to enable them to act effectively. The teachers' self-beliefs about their professional abilities allow them to complete the job they are responsible for. It can be expressed in their perceptions of *"who they are"* and *"who they want to become"*. The teachers who have very high self-concepts, positive attitude towards teaching and broad knowledge of instructional strategies prove to be the most effective teachers. Therefore, it is quite important to account for teachers' professional identity as it might affect not only their perceptions and behaviour in class, but also their teaching styles and methods.

In all, teachers' self-concepts enfold their innate sense of confidence in their capacity to ensure that their learners participate actively in the different classroom assignments and promote their learning.

B. Teacher Motivation

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A great deal of research has been devoted to investigate learners' motivation and academic achievement. Many models have been proposed to explain the construct. Yet, little research has considered teacher motivation. The success of a teacher, in school, affects directly the success of his/her learners.

In the researcher's deep conviction, teaching does not confine to knowledge transmission or course delivery but rather expands to reach the learners' goals, interests and expectations. The job of 'teacher' should not be considered as a source of income, only, but rather as a vocation and engagement towards the learners so as to guide their steps in such a competitive world where personal achievement and skills are the key factors to success and promotion. Hence, teacher motivation should be raised and maintained the same way as it is pursued for the pupils. A review of relevant psychological theories offers important insights into teacher motivation. It, typically, insists on meeting teachers' basic needs to help them fulfill their higher-order needs and, thus, accomplish self-actualization. Once the extrinsic basic needs and environmental factors are met, more intrinsic factors will sustain teachers' effort and performance in the long run. These insights, agree with a review of empirical studies on teacher motivation carried out by' *Save the Children Basic Education International'* (SCBEI) that yielded a framework of analysis for teacher motivation. In this framework, eight interconnected categories are said to influence teacher motivation:

❖ *Workload and Challenges*: There are increasing classroom challenges and demands placed on teachers, especially, in the developing world.

❖ *Remuneration and Incentives*: Teachers' salaries are generally low. An adequate remuneration would optimize their efforts.

❖ *Recognition and Prestige*: Social respect for teachers has fallen in many countries.

❖ *Accountability*: Teachers often face weak accountability with little support.

❖ *Career Development*: Teaching is frequently a second choice job with few opportunities for professional development.

❖ *Institutional Environment*: Teachers face unclear, constantly changing policies as well as poor management.

❖ *Voice:* Teachers have rarely real opportunity for input into school management and ministry policy.

❖ *Learning Materials and Facilities:* Teachers have few or poor learning materials and poor facilities. (Guajardo, 2011)

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Quality education is, undoubtedly, a complex task to be shared by the teacher, official institutions and community.

C. Teacher Characteristics

Many variables can contribute in affecting pupils' academic engagement. They may include family, community, peer group pressure, attitudes towards school and learning, and the school environment. Teachers, however, can shape a pupil's academic success. This is why it is central to examine which teacher characteristics can contribute in their learners' achievement.

Adolescent learners' perceptions of their teachers' roles and methods, as recorded during the various focus group interview sessions, revealed that the teachers' characteristics were decisive factors to help initiating, arousing and sustaining pupils' self-concept, motivation and academic success. What adolescent learners, really, insisted on was that their teachers show more understanding, enthusiasm, friendliness and helpfulness towards them, create a variety of activities, accept their answers without interruption , instruct them clearly ,encourage them with marks and rewards and create a pleasant and comfortable learning environment.

Thus, EFL teachers' positive attitudes and behaviours, helpfulness, friendliness, equity and enthusiasm engage pupils in effective language learning. Besides, teachers' tolerance, open-mindedness, empathy, and compassion make pupils feel warm in their hearts and help to reduce their stress and anxiety. The active and creative teachers have always vivid and impressive courses that catch pupils' interest to the lesson. The sum of such personal qualities and skills create a positive classroom atmosphere, acknowledge the learners' ideas, provide extensive practice and constructive feedback, and encourage learner self-efficacy.

D. Teacher Performance

Field practice in teaching English as a second foreign language demonstrated that the EFL teacher performance in classroom setting constitutes one of the most influential factors of the pupils' learning. It affects their self-perceptions, motivation and acts directly on their success or failure in learning the target language effectively. The teacher performance

includes four priority areas: Learner and learning, subject content mastery, instructional practice and professional responsibility.

Modern teaching trends require that teachers display high teaching performance. They include a focus on 21ˢᵗ century skills, differentiated learning for diverse learners, a collaborative professional practice, improved assessment mechanisms, digital literacy, and new leadership roles for teachers. Teacher performance standards, today, require a broad knowledge of the sum of instructional techniques and strategies to ensure that pupils engage in learning, attain their learning goals and achieve academic success.

Laying the bases for an effective EFL teacher practice helps in providing teachers with an adequate teacher training, major teacher characteristics, and performance standards. The good choice of quite efficient teaching methods and strategies are likely to enhance pupils' learning of the target language and raise their motivation for academic achievement and endow them with positive academic self-beliefs.

4.7.2 EFL Classroom Learning Environment

A second important issue, relating to the adolescent leaners' academic success, is the actual EFL learning environment they are engaged in. Research focusing on the impact of an EFL classroom learning environment on learners' motivation and development has shown that the dynamics of the language classroom is a very important factor in developing the learners' personality, willingness to learn and task involvement.

- **Factors Affecting EFL Classroom Learning Environment**

Several variables contribute to a positive classroom climate. Sinclair and Fraser (2002) named five variables that contribute in creating a warm classroom climate: *(1) cooperation,* the extent to which pupils cooperate with each other during classroom assignments. *(2) teacher support*, the extent to which the teacher helps, encourages, and is interested in the learners, *(3) task orientation*, the extent to which it is important for the class to stay on task and complete assignments, (4) *involvement:*, the extent to which pupils participate actively and engage in class activities or discussions, and (5) *equity,* the extent to which the teacher treats all pupils equally including the distribution of praise and questioning (Sinclair & Frasern, 2002).

Educational psychologists have looked at the motivational teaching practices and strategies as those involving both the physical and psychological aspects of the classroom

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learning environment. In this vein, Dörnyei's (2001) motivational strategies in the language classroom framework outlined three key components of the teacher's role that impacts on the EFL classroom learning environment and, thus, on pupils' motivation and scholastic engagement: (a) *the affiliative motive* (i.e., pupils' desire to please the teacher), (b) *authority type* (i.e. controlling vs. autonomy supporting style) and (c) **direct** *socialization* which includes modelling, task presentation and feedback (see table 4.2).

LANGUAGE LEVEL: Integrative Motivational Subsystem
                      Instrumental Motivational Subsystem
LEARNER LEVEL: Need for Achievement
                      Self-Confidence
- Language Use Anxiety
- Perceived L2 Competence
- Casual Attributions
- Self-Efficacy

LEARNING SITUATIONAL LEVEL

Course-Specific Motivational
Components
- Interest (in the course)
- Relevance (of the course to one's needs)
- Expectancy (of success)
- Satisfaction (one has in the outcome)

Teacher-Specific Motivational   Affiliative Drive (to please the teacher)
Components   Authority Type (controlling vs. autonomy supporting)
                                       Direct Socialization of Motivation
- Modelling
- Task Presentation
- Feedback

Group-Specific Motivational   Goal-Orientedness
Components   Norm & Reward System
                                 Group Cohesiveness
                                 Classroom Goal Structure

Table 4.2: Dörnyei's framework of L2 motivation based on *Components of Foreign Language Learning Motivation* (Dörnyei, 2001:17)

- o *Characteristics of EFL Supportive Classroom Learning Environment*

Learning environments vary from classroom to classroom and from a context to another. There are four characteristics of a supportive learning environment. Each with outstanding features: learner-centred, knowledge-centred; assessment-centred, and community-centred.

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o **Learner-centred**

In a learner-centred environment, both the teacher and pupils are engaged in an equally active role in the learning process. A close attention is put upon the needs of the pupils. Each learner holds individual beliefs, attitudes, skills, and knowledge of the learning situation. In such a setting, the teacher builds on the conceptual knowledge of each pupil. The classroom is shaped in a way to encourage pupils' initiatives and prompt their active participation in classroom assignments and discussions. It is an environment where the learners do much of the talking and construct their learning.

o **Knowledge-centred**

A Knowledge-centred classroom environment focuses on deep learning. The pupils are trained to transfer their new acquired knowledge and reinvest it in new situations and contexts. It is a setting where rote memorization is believed to lead to surface learning. Deep learning requires critical thinking skills and involves learning through problem-solving which is a step further to help pupils in connecting this new knowledge to real-life situations.

o **Assessment-centred**

A supportive classroom learning environment is a context where pupils' learning is continuously measured during teacher instruction. It involves three categories of assessment: (1) *assessment for Learning,* set during instruction to improve both teaching and learning and provide feedback throughout the context of a course, (2) *assessment of Learning*, set at the end of a course or unit of work to provide evidence of how well pupils are learning, and (3) *assessment as Learning*, set on a regular basis through self and peer assessment to help pupils to take more responsibility for their learning.

o **Community-centred**

A Community-centred learning environment focuses on the degree to which teachers and pupils promote a sense of classroom community where they share norms that value learning and scholastic attainment. It is a supportive context that improves pupils' opportunities to interact, receive feedback, and learn. Thus, the foundation of a community-centred learning environment is the fostering of values that promote lifelong learning, reinforce the socio-motivational relationships in the classroom, create a positive social climate in school and satisfy learners' most specific psychological and emotional needs.

Alignment among the four perspectives of learning environments would enable the teachers to design a truly collaborative learning environment.

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- *Designing an Autonomy-supportive Classroom Learning Environment*

    The findings from both the pupils' focus group interview sessions and EFL teachers' interviews demonstrated that the EFL classroom learning environment is, still, dominated by a teacher-centred approach where the teacher's role is confined to an information imparter with learners sitting and listening as the teacher does most of the talking.

    The EFL teachers, as noted during their debriefings, were reluctant to engage into new pedagogies for fear of differing from the original syllabus. They explained that this action would distract pupils' attention from the established lessons and cause them to fail in the final exam. The implication of this observation causes to reflect on the possible outcomes of such a situation. Needless to say that the teaching objectives are, then, far removed from the academic needs of the learners.

    For such an aim, it is quite urgent to remedy to this situation and reflect on possible mechanisms that are likely to bear more productive outcomes. Actually, modern pedagogy suggests adopting an autonomy-supportive approach to instruction. According to Reeves (2009), autonomy-supportive teachers build their classroom instruction around learners' interests, preferences, curiosities, goals, choices, and challenges. They provide pupils with a favourable learning environment with opportunities to share in their learning, take initiative, and engage academically. An autonomy-supportive motivating style comprises five categories of instructional behaviour:

    ➢ *Nurturing pupils' inner motivational resources:* Teachers tend to build classroom instruction around their learners' interests, preferences, psychological needs, and intrinsic motivation.

    ➢ *Providing explanatory rationales:* Teachers are communicating to pupils the usefulness of an activity both in their learning and real life situations to support their motivation, engagement, and give sense to their learning.

    ➢ *Relying on non-controlling and informational language:* Teachers communicate classroom assignments employing clear, flexible, and highly motivating instructions.

    ➢ *Displaying patience to allow for self-paced learning and personal development to occur:* Pupils need both time and opportunity to explore classroom materials, conceive ideas, make plans, monitor their progress, revise their work, and re-evaluate their goals.

    ➢ *Acknowledging the learners' perspectives and feelings:* In a motivating instruction

style, teachers are soliciting and encouraging pupils' opinions and perspectives (Reeves, 2009).

It seems to be almost important for EFL teachers to establish contexts where pupils feel confident in their abilities and see their diverse learning differences invested in the task. Indeed, a classroom setting that incites pupils to work together to perform their learning tasks and allows maximum cooperative learning is actually an ideal classroom environment that creates adequate opportunities for cognitive, affective and social development through promoting autonomy, emphasizing mastery over performance goals, and providing informative feedback.

4.7.3 The Psychology of the Learner

The third main issue that constitutes the chief concern of this research work is the psychology of the learner. In fact, the learners are at the essence of all the teaching/learning process. Therefore, they have to adapt to the standard norms of the 21st century education. They, presently, find themselves in a situation where they are asked to become proficient in the international communication medium, display high digital literacy, master important skills such as the spirit of challenge, competition and collaboration and above all hold a critical mind with high thinking potential. As mentioned previously, all efforts to bring pupils to successful academic outcomes remain useless and ineffective unless all criteria of productive instruction are brought together: effective teaching practices, safe classroom learning environment and leaners displaying high self-confidence in their academic potentials to achieve scholastic success. Hence, this section proposes to discuss the major pedagogical implications of the study's foremost findings on EFL pupils' cognitive, affective, and social development.

- *Adolescent Learners' Psychology*

Both the review of literature and the results of this research work have established that learners' self-beliefs are tightly correlated to school variables. Thus, it is imperative to identify the sum of strategies and intervention programmes that are likely to improve adolescent learners' self-perceptions of their academic aptitudes.

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Adolescence is a critical developmental period in which the young people begin to form their personal identity and realize many fascinating facts about themselves. It is the time when they begin to think seriously of their future roles. Academically speaking, many of the adolescent learners realize the importance of studies and school in their future careers. Having positive personal agency beliefs prompts adolescents to set clear goals, to persevere, and to achieve academically. There are two main questions that confuse the learners and cause them to lose their way: *''Can I perform my school assignments?'',* and *''Do I want, rally, to do my schoolwork and what for?''*. Such a perplexing self-questioning echoes the amount of adolescents' disarray and desire to find their way towards success. Here emerges the important role of the teachers to guide learners and communicate them positive expectations of success.

A major skill that the EFL teachers should develop, before all attempts to enhance their adolescent pupils' motivation and English language learning success, is their ability to understand and realize who they are dealing with. In the researcher's personal view, based on long years of teaching secondary school adolescent pupils, all motivational strategies would prove to be inefficient if the EFL teachers fail to link positive and warm rapports with their adolescent language learners. Teaching English, to teenagers, is not an easy task. This age group has peculiar characteristics that teachers constantly need to take into consideration. Adolescence is a period in which motivation for schooling typically decreases due, in part, to a combination of factors. Effeney et al. (2013) named a variety of considerations including changes to interpersonal relationships, increased social commitments, the widening and deepening of interests in extra-curricular activities, higher expectations placed on them by others, school learning and the school environment being increasingly perceived as irrelevant (Effeney, Carroll, & Bahr, 2013). Therefore, EFL teachers are highly recommended to consider the dimensions of motivation. They have to focalize on their learners' achievement needs. A Major concern should be the EFL teachers' assimilation of all factors influencing adolescent learners' self-perceptions of learning and academics. In addition, high-quality interpersonal rapports in learners' lives make significant contribution to their academic aspirations, motivation, engagement and achievement.

For such an objective, the EFL teachers are recommended to learn more about their learners, understand their changing moods and unusual behaviours. All that adolescent pupils require from the teacher is a certain amount of autonomy, freedom of choice, trust, guidance and understanding.

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- *Adolescent Learners' Motivation*

As far as the learners' key motivating factors are concerned, the adolescent learners' responses during the focus group interview sessions may provide firm basis for elements that can enhance their motivation and school adjustment. The answers provided by the pupils indicated that they had a high desire to learn English. They displayed enthusiasm and the necessary effort that is likely to guarantee their success in learning the language. Another factor, reported to be decisive, was the learners' positive attitudes towards ELL. The findings reported that pupils believed that English is very important and they needed to learn it for both intrinsic and extrinsic motives. Since high motivation combined to positive attitudes, strong desire to learn and effort to achieve success attribute to the process of learning languages, pupils are recommended to adjust their perceptions to school and learning. They have to conceive that their role, in the EFL classroom, does not consist in being passive listeners who have no choice or voice in the classroom but rather active agents in their learning process. EFL learners have to be conscious that there are two important parts to motivation:

- Who they are doing it for. (for themselves or for others: parents or teachers)
- What they are doing it for (to gain benefits or avoid punishment).

They have to model their learning according to their motivational orientation. They are required to set definite objectives from their language learning, control their feelings and behaviours and interact positively with their teachers and peers so as to constitute basis for a successful collaborative learning community. Pupils tend to be most successful when they work towards positive outcomes.

- *EFL Learners' Characteristics*

Succeeding in foreign language learning is undoubtedly closely linked to pupils' positive academic self-beliefs, motivation, attitudes, desire and effort. Yet, all such factors would prove insufficient if the EFL learners do not develop such characteristics of the good language learner.

Rubin (1975) suggested that a good language learner:

- is a willing and accurate learner.
- has a strong drive to communicate.

• is often uninhibited, and engages in situations where he/she has to participate communicatively.

• takes advantage of all practice opportunities.

• tries to get a message across even if specific language knowledge is lacking.

• is willing to make mistakes.

• constantly looks for patterns in the language.

• practises as often as possible.

• analyses his/her own speech and the speech of others.

• attends to whether his/her performance meets the standards he/ she has learned.

• enjoys language activities.

• begins learning in childhood.

• has good academic skills.

• has a good self-image and lots of confidence.

• makes best use of learning opportunities in and out of the classroom (Rubin, 1975)

Such characteristics are not innate in pupils. They have to be acquired and developed in a long process. Though the sample pupils, engaged in the study, showed certain enthusiasm for English learning and revealed the presence of distinctive motivational orientations, desire and effort in regards of ELL, qualitative data analysis disclosed contradictory evidence. The adolescent learners presented no signs for the good language learner on a practical field. Indubitably, the blame would not occur only on them. It is a whole system that is engaged in such a situation. One fundamental point to stress, here, is the important role of learner autonomy to boost adolescent learners' willingness to take initiatives in their learning and achieve success.

• *Learner Autonomy: Beliefs and Practices*

Learner autonomy has been a major area of interest in foreign language learning process. It is, actually, the learner's ability to take charge of his/her own learning which implies to have the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of the learning. Research, in this field, has shown that motivation is related to whether or not pupils have opportunities to be autonomous and to make important academic choices. Having choices allows them to feel that they have control over their learning. In this concern, Petty (2009) noted:

> **Learning is not something done to pupils, but something pupils do to themselves. But many pupils seem genuinely to believe that in order to learn, all they need to do is attend class and carry out the activities more or less willingly. Then they expect learning will follow automatically** (Petty, 2009 pp.56-57).

Findings from the focus group interview sessions stressed the pupils' beliefs and attitudes towards their responsibility over the learning process. They revealed that the secondary school adolescent pupils were not ready to be autonomous and, therefore, to construct their learning. They, still, conceive the whole process to be the teachers' duty. Such a belief cannot change in the course of one year. It is deeply rooted in the mind of the learners. Its origins find root in their familial and social environment, culture, customs and convictions. When admitted to school, this pupils' belief is reinforced through the teachers' practices and behaviours all along their learning process. The recent educational reforms, characterized by the field application of the CBA, find no clear representation in the EFL classroom. It goes without saying, of course, that this shift of responsibility, from teachers to learners, does not exist in a real field. Changes in the curriculum, itself, towards a more learner-centred approach of learning are far away from practice in our EFL classrooms. It is unrealistic to claim a quick change in the situation. Yet, it is always recommendable to direct the pupils' attention to some characteristics of the autonomous learners who:

- show responsibility for their learning.
- make initiative.
- are able to monitor and evaluate their learning.
- are reflective and show 'high' levels of metacognition.
- self-aware in relation to their learning.
- are intrinsically motivated.
- are life-long learners.
- can manage and regulate their learning.
- are adept at taking/making decisions.
- are meaning makers.
- are risk takers.
- have specific skills and strategies for managing their learning.
- are adaptable and flexible in their approach to learning.
- are pro-active.
- are critical and analytical thinkers.

• are good at filtering and selecting the information they need.

• can take constructive criticism.

The above mentioned characteristics of autonomous learners would not prove to be efficient unless they involve teachers in collaborative forms of reflection and action. Changes in attitudes happen when teachers have a share in this role. Therefore, EFL teachers are recommended to:

• engage pupils in constructive talks about autonomy and its value in their learning and academic outcomes.

• get learners to reflect on their learning.

• set activities, in class, which promote autonomy behaviours.

• Promote co-operative and peer learning wherever possible.

• encourage pupils to be confident to work by themselves and be more responsible about what they do in class.

• elicit pupils to bring their materials, in class,. and be ready to discuss them.

• involve pupils in reflection into their individual learning styles, preferences and strategies.

• encourage them to further their learning in situations outside the classroom without the help from any teacher.

• negotiate on deadlines, with pupils, for assignments and topics for presentations and discussion in class.

• encourage independent learning projects.

• elicit peer assessments of pupils' work at classroom level.

Learner autonomy is a key theme in the field of foreign language teaching and learning. Promoting it, in our EFL classrooms, would be an ideal opportunity to improve the quality of language learning, promote democratic learning communities, and prepare learners for life-long learning.

• *Adolescent Learners' Learning Goals and Academic Performance*

Setting language learning goals is one of the key strategies that successful language learners undertake. Goal setting, in education, can affect pupils' learning and performance for they go hand in hand with positive academic self-beliefs and a strong drive to perform well. In a classroom setting, a goal involves displaying a high academic self-concept, improving linguistic skills, and achieving high performance. Thus, it is highly recommended

that the learners conceive a clear idea of their goals right from the beginning of the school year. The focus group interview discussions revealed the pupils' preference to facility over all challenging situations that require, from them, more effort and engagement in task completion. Many language learners put on much effort but do not seem to make any improvements. It is, then, more important to specify that the learning goals need to be in line with what the learners perceive to be most significant for their learning. It is recommended for pupils to bear in mind that:

- ideal goal-setting should occur at the beginning of the school year and be a collaborative effort between pupils and their teachers.
- before setting a goal, they should decide for their reasons for doing so.
- reflection is the key to establish these goals..
- successful pupil goal-setting must translate into action.

Adolescent learners' effective academic performance requires that they, consciously, select some learning strategies which may result in action taken to enhance their learning. Learner's choice of learning strategies is seen as influenced by both individual learner differences and situational/social factors. Three broad types of strategies have been identified:

- ❖ *Metacognitive* (e.g. self-evaluation: checking the outcomes of one's own language learning, planning, setting goals, and self-management)
- ❖ *Cognitive* (e.g. deduction: consciously applying rules to produce or understand the target language)
- ❖ *Social/affective* (e.g. cooperation: working with one or more peers to obtain feedback, gather information, or model a language activity)

Pupils' interaction, within the focus group interviews, revealed the absence of such strategies in EFL classrooms. An interpretation of the results leads to the conclusion that our EFL learners are unable to put forward efficient language learning strategies and are reluctant to be trained to do so simply because they perceive the learning process to be the teacher's responsibility .

Since the EFL classroom is an environment in which language learners are likely to face new input and difficult tasks assigned by teachers, EFL learners are recommended to:

- build up metacognitive strategies such as identifying their learning style preferences and needs, planning for language task, gathering and organizing materials, arranging a study space, and evaluating task success.

- develop cognitive strategies such as manipulating the language material through reasoning, analysis, note-taking, summarizing, synthesizing, outlining, reorganizing information to develop stronger knowledge structures, and using previous knowledge to help solve new problems.
- build up socio-affective strategies that involve the collaborative participation of teachers and classmates to work together on a particular language problem.

Developing skills in these three areas cannot happen without a prior training delivered by EFL teachers to help their learners adopt and adapt these learning strategies. In a practical way, learners can be trained to build up their independence and autonomy whereby they can take control over their learning.

4.8 Self-concept Enhancement Intervention Strategies: Helping Adolescent Learners Believe in Themselves

Educators, at all levels, need to take into account that all their attempts to deliver a quality instruction and improve their pupils' academic performance would involve, inevitably, building their learners' self-concept. In a broad sense, this means that pupils need to feel competent, comfortable, and safe in their learning environment. Contemporary research, in the field of educational psychology, has provided evidence that pupils' self-concept enhancement is reciprocally related to their academic attainment. It is, thus, important for EFL teachers to conceive clear perceptions of their learners' academic self-concept and its possible implications in their scholastic performance.

Acquiring knowledge about learners' academic self-beliefs and the different types of motivational strategies is likely to help teachers to improve their understanding of their pupils. They can plan some efficient instructional interventions that prompt pupils to achieve some systematic and enduring positive outcomes. The list of instructional interventions, in the field of language learning, is endless. These are, in the researcher's view, the most important ones. They are dictated, mostly, by the adolescent learners' and EFL teachers' responses during the interview sessions:

a) Promoting Pupils' Self-beliefs

The EFL teachers are warmly recommended to identify their pupils' interest and preferences in learning English. The qualitative findings of the study have revealed the existence of a large gap between teachers' teaching methods and pupils' needs. This is

explicitly illustrated in the activities that EFL teachers preferred to apply but pupils did not like or the topics teachers enjoyed talking about that the pupils were not fond of. Most pupils learn English because it is a school requirement not for their enjoyment. Therefore, teachers should maintain a balance between both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, giving their mean priority to help the pupils to achieve intrinsic learning through time. EFL teachers can engage in friendly talks with pupils to discuss about how each task helps them to achieve their short-term and long-term goals. Teachers can, also, vary activities and materials to increase their interest level, providing them with reference materials and extra-curricular assignments that help to raise their proficiency levels.

Self-efficacy determines the amount of effort and time pupils can spend and the persistence they can display in the process of learning. So, it is important for teachers to increase pupils' self-perceptions in learning. EFL Teachers should make pupils believe that English competence is changeable and controllable as long as they put on enough effort in learning. EFL teachers should communicate high expectations to their pupils as to make them experience success regularly and emphasize what pupils do rather than what they cannot do. Teachers' frequent praise and encouragement can enhance pupils' confidence and self-esteem and reduce their anxiety. Making use of learners' strengths can create, in pupils, the internal desire to learn and excel.

b) Setting up a Cooperative Learning Atmosphere in Class

A traditional classroom learning environment expects pupils to work individually and independently to complete their assignments. This type of atmosphere elicits learners to compete for good marks, and teachers' recognition. This controlled atmosphere provokes pupils' anxiety and hinders their motivation and effectiveness in learning while a cooperative classroom atmosphere encourages adolescent pupils to work in small groups. It elicits them to learn and be responsible for one another's learning as well as their. This safe climate engages adolescent to express their opinions, develop their strengths, reduce their weaknesses and makes them feel at ease to interact without any fear of making mistakes or from peers' negative reactions. In addition to the idea of cooperative work, the adolescent learners gain a certain amount of freedom as well as an independence from adult authority. The cooperative learning atmosphere implicates the whole classroom community in a team learning that emphasizes the use of team goals and team success. Teachers, thus, should build a warm environment in which teachers and pupils have clear rapports and close relationships. In such

an atmosphere, the EFL teachers will not only play the role of the facilitator of pupils' team learning, the manager of classroom activities, the advisor to pupils' choices but also work as the 'co-communicator' to engage in the communicative activities along with the pupils.

In order to improve the affective climate of the EFL learning environment, teachers should:

- encourage and support active peer-oriented participation at all times, especially, when pupils are struggling or lacking confidence in certain areas.
- be energetic and enthusiastic about what they do.
- create a stress-reduced atmosphere where pupils are not afraid of making mistakes and are encouraged to take risks.
- avoid competitive and peer confrontation activities.
- allow pupils to take opportunities to talk about themselves, their interests, and their culture.
- encourage goal setting and a sense of continuous commitment to the language learning task through active cooperative learning activities.

c) Varying activities

EFL teachers should stimulate pupils' learning by providing them with a variety of activities involving pupils in pair and group work. Such grouping strategies are very useful and help teachers reduce boredom and tiredness among pupils. Establishing routines for pair and group work activities can help teachers control and monitor pupils' progress. Furthermore, using moderately difficult tasks helps reinforcing learners' sense of academic competence. If the task is too easy, it may be boring and may communicate the feeling that the teacher doubts in pupils' abilities. On the other hand, a too difficult task is likely to discourage pupils and cause them to feel incompetent.

Making frequent use of games and visual aids can stimulate learners and reduce their stress. The teachers can employ games in any stage of the lesson; however, it is thought that games bring more benefits if introduced in the pre or post lesson stage. Visual aids are believed to set motivating learning atmospheres and sustain pupils' interest during the lesson. Visual aids, therefore, should be exploited in any stages of the lesson. Discussions, storytelling, interviews, role play, picture description, quizzes, ranking activities can offer a variety of task assignments that change from *'ritual tasks'* that decrease pupils' motivation and interest in learning..

d) *Managing Interaction and Participation Turns in Class*

Many pupils, in class, are quite often hesitant in using the target language. Some others usually tend to dominate classroom interactions. In order to remedy this situation, EFL teachers, therefore, should:

- balance pupils' interaction turns to achieve pupils' fair share of the talk time.
- lengthen their wait time for pupils: The hesitant learners, then, have time to think carefully and make sure that their answers are correct.
- assign responsibilities so as to keep pupils involved in tasks.
- elicit hesitant learners to engage in the course and, thus, make an end to their unwillingness and anxiety.
- create the opportunity for all pupils to participate in the course.
- make pupils more confident in their abilities.
- accept a variety of pupils' answers. Some pupils often feel frustrated and deceived if their answers are not accepted by teachers. Negative comments, from teachers, can demotivate them and decrease their participation in the classroom.
- praise pupils to encourage their enthusiasm and achievement in learning.

e) *Adapting Course Materials*

Though EFL textbooks provide teachers with suitable, reasonable, and authentic resources, adding extra materials for teaching and learning is, surely, necessary. Teachers need to adapt the textbook to meet their pupils' needs. Besides, they are recommended to suggest a diversity of resources to enable the learners to share in the learning process and give them opportunities to express their opinions on the proposed materials. Moreover, teachers should elicit pupils to find out some related materials from external sources rather than limit their class work to their assigned textbook. This action can be performed before each lesson to make sure that all pupils get familiar with the topic chosen for the course.

f) *Flipping the Classroom*

Teaching in the 21st century requires teachers to guide their learners towards the mastery of the communication and collaborative skills. During their learning process, pupils are expected to gather information, interpret, discuss, analyse, and evaluate it both individually and collaboratively. The traditional instructional model of the EFL classroom focused on a teacher-centred learning environment where learners had no voice in their

learning. The globalized era has brought radical reforms to that practice. The classroom learning environment, today, is impacted by the flow of technology. It has become quite compelling, today, for teachers to incorporate the new technologies in their classroom instructional practices. This learning model would encourage pupils to engage creatively in classroom assignments and develop their communication and collaborative skills required in the 21st century.

The EFL teachers can, also, guide pupils learning out of the classroom context through useful websites and links that are specially delivered for educational purposes. Teachers can encourage pupils to see the usefulness of such resources to train themselves and improve their levels of proficiency. The only restriction to that use of ICT materials in class is that they may be inadequate or ethically improper. It is, then, the duty of EFL teachers to closely check such means and make sure they adapt to classroom use and local context.

g) *Promoting Learner Autonomous Behaviour*

As being clearly stated previously, learner autonomy represents a real matter of concern and challenge for both the learner and the teacher. It is almost daunting for any teacher to teach in a setting where the learners are totally dependent on his/her methods, strategies, instruction and evaluation. Therefore, the EFL teachers are recommended to:

- use peer models: Pupils can learn by watching a peer succeed at a task.

- give pupils a concrete plan of course assignment, rather than simply turning them loose. This may apply to overall study skills, such as preparing for an exam, or to a specific assignment or project.

- relate the course material or concepts to learners' interests so as to give them interest in task completion.

- allow pupils to make their choices and decisions about course assignments and materials.

- give them consistent and credible encouragement to try and succeed at a task.

- give frequent, focused feedback.

- encourage accurate attributions of pupils' success or failure.

h) *Strategy Training*

Language learning strategies, being specific actions and techniques, facilitate the learning of the target language by the language learner. Factors such as age, gender, personality, motivation, self-concept, learning style, excitement and anxiety affect the way with which language learners acquire the target language. It is not reasonable to support the idea that all language learners should be trained in using and developing the same strategies to become successful learners. The EFL teachers, aiming at training their pupils in using language learning strategies, should:

- conceive a broad knowledge about the pupils, their self-beliefs, interests, motivational orientations, attitudes, individual differences, gender and learning styles.

- be familiar with language learning strategies.

- provide a wide range of learning strategies in order to meet the needs and expectations of pupils .

- set learning strategies into regular classroom activities rather than present them as a separate strategy course.

- activate pupils' prior knowledge in order to build new material on what they already know.

- teach pupils how they can use their resources to learn most effectively.

- analyse the impact of their teaching on pupils' ability to use a variety of learning styles and strategies.

- create a meaningful context for strategy training and practice.

Hence it is imperative for teachers to design such instructional interventions targeted at fostering adolescent learners' academic self-concept and thus contribute in their academic success.

4.9 Scope and Limitations of the Study

The scope of the study focuses on the association of two affective constructs, namely, self-concept and motivation to impact on the academic attainment of a sample of secondary school adolescent pupils.

There were a number of limitations to the current study that should be highlighted so as to avoid any over generalizations and misinterpretations of the results. The first limitation relates to the respondents of this study who were limited to the surveyed sample of the adolescent pupils at Benahmed Bekhedda secondary school in Zemmora and their EFL teachers within the limited time of the school year 2017/2018. The sample was constituted of (87) male and female secondary literary stream pupils and three EFL teachers. The second

limitation relates to the factors that affect pupils' academic self-concept, motivation and achievement in English language learning that were limited to the surveyed members of the sample and the study's variables, namely, adolescent learners' self-perceptions, motivational orientations, gender differences and academic engagement. The third one relates to the types of instruments used in the study that were limited to the survey questionnaires and interview sessions. Another limitation, to the study, was the validity and reliability of the adolescent pupils' self-report measures to assess their self-concept, academic motivation, and performance in language learning. Finally, the pedagogical implications of this study are limited to the degree of participants' honesty in dealing with the different items of the survey questionnaires and focus group guiding questions.

4.10 Suggestions for Future Research

This study samples a sparsely researched area of English language learning in an Algerian context. To achieve a more detailed study on this issue and a more complete coverage of the area, more research needs to be done. Future research needs to include larger numbers of participants and adopt various techniques such as behavioural, phenomenological, and psychological approaches as a support to the data from the questionnaires and interview sessions. Also, future research dealing with pupil school motivation could include teachers' and counsellors' observations of pupil classroom behaviour and homework results. An analysis of different assessment results of pupils, in longitudinal studies, could, also, be useful in giving further insight into pupils' academic self-beliefs and motivation towards the subject. Similarly, the issue could be examined from multiple perspectives including experts, teachers, counsellors and parents.

Future research involving these sources of data may help to formulate appropriate educational policies and interventions to enhance Algerian adolescents' motivation, engagement, and scholastic achievement.

4.11 Conclusion

This chapter has been, mainly, concerned with the analysis of the different data gathered in this empirical investigation. It has, also, been a serious attempt to lay firm bases for providing some pedagogical implications that could be of great help to both English teachers and their learners in perceiving their new roles in the teaching/learning situation. Many factors have been recorded to have affected the teaching and the learning of the target

language in our EFL classrooms. Therefore, a number of suggestions and recommendations have been set to enhance the target language teaching and learning.

This chapter has, also, emphasized the incessant need of the teachers and their learners for commitment to adjust to the requirements of the 21st century education that has swept away all conceived norms of teaching and learning. This cannot be attained without an adequate teacher and learner training. Indeed, reflections on teaching and the need for adequate teacher development are the most appropriate ways to lead learners to be conscious of their needs and keep record of their academic performance to cope with their learning requirements.

For such an eventual objective, the EFL teachers were highly recommended to take in charge their development, build up their professional identity, and improve their instructional practices. They have, as well, to consider their learners' individual differences, learning styles, interests and needs along with creating the collaborative learning environment that helps to establish warm teacher-learners rapports. Such a strategy would, undoubtedly, boost pupils' academic self-perceptions and motivation to attain success in the target language.

Learners, being the pivotal characters of the teaching/learning situation were, insistently, recommended to engage actively and constructively in their learning. The chapter recommended learners' to keep on collaborative learning, making use of the different learning strategies that have proved to be undeniable key factors to autonomous learning. Thus, eliciting learners to improve their personal characteristics, set clear achievement goals, adopt an autonomous behaviour and participate vigorously in their learning would enable them to achieve academic success.

Finally, the researcher hopes these pedagogical implications and recommendations would meet both EFL teachers' and learners' expectations to perform the major parts of their respective roles and attain an adequate level of proficiency and entrepreneurship.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

General Conclusion

Current research, in the field of educational psychology, has provided indisputable evidence that non-cognitive factors play an important role in pupils' learning. Thus, the present case study aimed at investigating the secondary school adolescent pupils' academic self-beliefs, motivational orientations, attitudes towards EFL learning and their correlation with their academic attainment. It sought, also, to research the influence of such variables as gender differences and academic engagement on pupils' academic motivation and achievement in an attempt to explain the reasons behind adolescent pupils' low level of motivation, disinterest from school and learning as well as their poor performance in the field of EFL learning. The study was equally targeted towards providing some suitable pedagogical recommendations to foster learners' self-concept, motivation, and academic success.

In quest of answers to the study's enquiry, five hypotheses were formulated to explore the issue that has been dealt with in four interrelated chapters: Chapter one sought to provide a description of the current learning situation of the sample adolescent pupils and some of its related issues. It explored adolescents' academic self-perceptions, motivation and academic achievement during secondary school education. It incorporated a brief explanation of the period of adolescence as well as an overview of adolescent learners' developmental facets, self-perceptions, motivational orientations and beliefs about school and learning, in general, and EFL learning in particular so as to constitute a clear idea on the Algerian adolescents' characteristics and beliefs about school and learning. The chapter provided, also, a description of the English subject in the Algerian secondary school syllabuses, the organization of the EFL textbooks, and the possible factors causing EFL failure in the Algerian educational system. Chapter two presented the review of the literature related to the issue of the eventual correlation between academic self-concept and motivation and their possible influence on adolescents' academic achievement. It explored the most significant theories and approaches that dealt with the models of self-concept and motivation, as being the most cited factors that mark pupils' academic achievement. It considered the construct from different perspectives. The chapter examined the correlation between self-concept and the different types of motivation and academic achievement and presented sample studies that have dealt with this relationship. It shed light on the importance of raising pupils' academic motivation and internal interest in learning and achieving their pursued goals. It concentrated on the problem of academic underachievement and disinterest of pupils in school, particularly, during the period of adolescence. It made a close reflection on some of the most

influential factors that can affect language learning motivation and school engagement. Besides, the chapter discussed the effect of age factor, gender differences and EFL classroom engagement on the adolescent pupils' self-beliefs, motivation and their language learning achievement. Chapter three presented the findings of both the quantitative and qualitative analyses and discussed them in the light of the guiding research questions, hypotheses and the literature review. It carried out the investigation of the major results via triangulation that has called for the involvement of two survey questionnaires and interview sessions. Results, in this empirical phase, have yielded valuable conclusions relating to the Algerian EFL learners' self-beliefs of their academic competence, motivational orientations and attitudes towards learning English as a second foreign language. Indeed, the data from pupils' survey questionnaires revealed interesting facts about their self-concept, motivation, aptitudes and efforts towards English language learning. It, also, highlighted the learners' consciousness about the importance that the English language acquired worldwide and the need of using different learning strategies to increase their language level of proficiency. The adolescent pupils' focus group discussions disclosed their self-beliefs in regard to school and learning as well as their perceptions of their academic competitive behaviour, their teachers' roles and methods, and the factors that can boost their self-concept, motivation, and academic achievement. The EFL teachers' interview debriefings, equally, helped to conceive a clear image of the teachers' perspectives about English teaching and learning as a whole. It has elucidated teachers' methodology and motivational techniques to engage pupils in effective language learning. The data enabled the researcher to depict the adolescent pupils' behavioural patterns in EFL classroom setting. The findings from the research instruments confirmed four of the research hypotheses mentioned in the general introduction. Chapter four summarized the study findings and made some recommendations for the improvement of secondary school pupils' academic self-concept, motivation and academic performance. It addressed some pedagogical implications for both the EFL teachers and their learners, being the principal agents involved in the teaching/learning process. It highly recommended teachers to employ all their energy to be up-to-date and seek continuous teacher development. In the 21st century education, roles are inversed towards a pupil-centred approach urging learners to develop critical thinking skills, set their achievement goals, and be autonomous and responsible of their learning and behaviours inside and outside classroom setting. However, the findings of the study revealed a teacher-dominated environment. In fact, teachers need to be aware of their pupils' opinions in terms of what, actually, motivates them instead of what teachers think is motivating them. This gap is the direct outcome of the

different role of teachers and pupils in the learning process. However, by narrowing this gap, the teachers could help in achieving the highest level of pupil motivation. EFL teachers, hence, have to develop different perspectives and help to broaden their assumed beliefs of language learning motivation. It is understandable that in the exam-based education approach, as applied by most teachers involved in this study, EFL teachers might, consciously or unconsciously, focus on the instructional practices that promote pupils' language success in the final exam. As an alternative, EFL teachers should have a balanced view about what motivates their pupils and engage them creatively in the EFL classroom. They could consider the learning outcomes and adapt the instructional activities to meet their learners' needs, individual differences, learning styles, preferences, and interests. They are required to create more interaction and uphold participation while working towards the learning outcomes. Such perspectives would, therefore, shape the choice of motivational strategies to be more in line with those desired by the pupils. EFL teachers have, also, to be aware of the tremendous role that an autonomy-supportive classroom learning environment can play in enhancing learners' academic and social-emotional learning. Designing a cooperative environment is likely to develop good teacher-pupil rapports and mutual understanding. It engages learners in task-based instruction where the teachers are no more the *'parcels of knowledge'* but rather mediators and learning facilitators. In a learner-centred setting, teachers help organizing instructional materials. They supply their learners with the needed training strategy to make sure they know how to carry out their learning. They provide clear instructional signals and monitor pupils' behaviour inside and outside the classroom context.

The recommendations of the study urged pupils, equally, to have a share in the learning process. It is high time they changed their attitudes towards EFL learning. They have to plan their instruction and set specific goals to achieve academically. The chapter ended by putting forward some pedagogical strategies that foster adolescent learners' self-concept in the aim to help pupils believe in themselves and promote their academic and social well-being.

In the end, it is hoped that this present work would endow both EFL teachers and their learners with perceptive strategies that are able to guide their steps towards coping with the problem under investigation. It is, also, expected that the study might have carried out a successful analysis of the issue along with the many variables related to it. More work, obviously, needs to be done on this theme. Further research, involving adolescent pupils' self-concept, motivation and academic achievement, are plainly necessary. The present study, hopefully, demonstrates that effective language learning promotion may depend on something

more than merely attempting to implement the latest trends borrowed from elsewhere. It is the common responsibility of a whole system. It is, heartily, hoped that this alternative framework will, at least, stimulate research on language learning motivation in Algeria and encourage future research to explore alternative constructs.

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APPENDICES

PUPILS' SELF DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE (SDQ - II)

I am a doctoral student in the department of English at Djillali Liabes University of Sidi-Bel-Abbes. This survey questionnaire is designed to help you discover your real interest in learning English. Your participation involves completion of this questionnaire containing items about your academic motivation, academic ability, and academic achievement. This is not a test - there are no right or wrong answers. It should take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Your help in completing the following items is highly appreciated. All the information provided by you is of great use and only for the study purpose. Thank you!

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Are you? ☐ **Male**   ☐ **Female**

2. How old are you? ☐

3. Are you? ☐ 1st year   ☐ 2nd year   ☐ 3rd year

A. PUPILS' ACADEMIC APTITUDES

1. How would you describe your level in English**?**   **English Average** ☐
   A. Excellent   B. Good   C. Rather average
   D. Weak   E. Very weak

2. How would you describe your overall level in the different school subjects?
   A. Excellent   B. Good   C. Rather average
   D. Weak   E. Very weak   **Overall Grades Average** ☐

B. PUPILS' SELF DESCRIPTION

Using the scale below, indicate to what extent each of the following items presently corresponds to you.

Definitely False	*Mostly False*	*Undecided*	*Mostly True*	*Definitely true*
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

1. I can easily follow the lessons in my English class. **1 2 3 4 5**

2. I am able to help my classmates in their English coursework. **1 2 3 4 5**

3. I think that most of my classmates are smarter than I am. **1 2 3 4 5**

4. I always study hard for my English tests. **1 2 3 4 5**

5. Most of my English teachers feel that I perform poorly in class

6. I am interested in English schoolwork. **1 2 3 4 5**

7. I always want my English lessons to end soon. **1 2 3 4 5**

8. My English test scores are not always satisfactory. **1 2 3 4 5**

9. I do not give up easily when encountering difficulty. **1 2 3 4 5**

10. I have better performance in English coursework than most of my friends **1 2 3 4 5**

High Self-Concept (HSC)
SC1:I can easily follow the lessons in my English class
SC2:I am able to help my classmates in their English coursework
SC10:I have better performance in English coursework than most of my friends
Low Self-Concept (LSC)
SC3:I think that most of my classmates are smarter than I am.
SC5: Most of my English teachers feel that I perform poorly in class

High Academic Effort (HAE)

SC4:I am interested in English schoolwork.
SC6:I always study hard for my English tests .
SC9:I do not give up easily when encountering difficulty.

Low Academic Effort (LAE)

SC7:I always want my English lessons to end soon
SC8: My English test scores are not always satisfactory

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PUPILS: ACADEMIC MOTIVATION SCALE (HIGH SCHOOL VERSION

This survey questionnaire is designed to help you find how much you are engaged in school. Your assistance in completing the following items is highly appreciated. All the information provided by you is of great use and solely for the study purpose. Thank you!

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Are you? ☐ **Male**   ☐ **Female**

2. How old are you? ☐

3. Are you? ☐ **1ˢᵗ year**   ☐ **2ⁿᵈ year**   ☐ **3ʳᵈ year**

A. PUPILS' MOTIVATION IN LEARNING   ENGLISH:

1. Why do you learn English?

      a. To do well in my examination
      b. A compulsory subject in the syllabus and the final exam
      c. Interest in English language, people and culture
      d. To expand my linguistic skills
      e. For the future job
      f. To study abroad

2. How important is learning English to you?
  A. very important   B. rather   important C. normal   D. little   E. not at all

3. How would you describe your aptitude to learn English?
  A. very high   B. high   C. OK   D. low   E. very low

4. How would you describe your attitude towards learning English?
A. Very positive   B. Positive   C. OK   D. Negative.   E. very negative

5. How would you describe your effort in learning English?
  A. very high   B. high   C. OK   D. low   E. very low

B. WHY DO YOU GO TO SCHOOL?

Using the scale below, indicate to what extent each of the following items presently corresponds to one of the reasons why you go to school.

Does not correspond at all	*Corresponds a little*	*Corresponds moderately*	*Corresponds a lot*	*Corresponds exactly*
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

E1.Because I experience pleasure and satisfaction while learning new things. **1 2 3 4 5**

E2.Because I think that a secondary school education will help me better prepare for the career I have chosen. **1 2 3 4 5**

E3.Because I really like going to school. **1 2 3 4 5**

E4.Honestly, I don't know; I really feel that I am wasting my time in school. **1 2 3 4 5**

E5.To prove to myself that I am capable of completing my secondary-school degree. **1 2 3 4 5**

E6. I once had good reasons for going to school; however, now I wonder whether I should continue. **1 2 3 4 5**

E7. Because of the fact that when I succeed in school I feel important. **1 2 3 4 5**

E8. Because I want to have "the good life" later on. **1 2 3 4 5**

E9. I can't see why I go to school and frankly I care less. **1 2 3 4 5**

IM

E1: Because I experience pleasure and satisfaction while learning new things.
E3:Because I really like going to school
E5: To prove to myself that I am capable of completing my secondary-school degree.

EM

E2: Because I think that a secondary school education will help me better prepare for the career I have chosen.
E7:Because of the fact that when I succeed in school I feel important.
E8: Because I want to have "the good life" later on.

AMOT

E4: Honestly, I don't know; I really feel that I am wasting my time in school..
E6:I once had good reasons for going to school; however, now I wonder whether I should continue.
E9:I can't see why I go to school and frankly I care less

APPENDIX C
FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW GUIDE

1. Do you care about school? Why? Why not?
2. Do you want to get good marls? Why? Why not?
3. Do you compare your performance to others?
4. How do you feel when one of your friends is better in a subject than you? Does it motivate you?
5. Do you get along well with your teachers?
6. Are there any teachers at whose lessons you work really hard? Do you have any favourite teachers?
7. What are the most important things teachers could do to help you become more serious about school learning?
8. Do you think it is important that a teacher notices your effort in class?
9. What motivates you to learn?

1. Do your pupils care about school? Why? Why not?
2. Do your pupils compare their performance to others?
3. When you teach, do you take into consideration your pupils' personality characteristics?
4. Do you get along well with your pupils?
5. What are the most important things teachers could do to help pupils become more serious about school learning?
6. Do you think it is important that a teacher notices the effort of his pupils in class?
7. What motivate your pupils to learn?

GLOSSARY

A

Academic Achievement / School Performance: Used interchangeably, they refer to the educational goal that is achieved by pupils over a certain period. This is measured either by examinations or continuous assessments and the goal may differ from one individual to another.

Academic Engagement: It refers to the degree to which pupils are connected to what is going on in their classes encompassing cognitive, behavioural and emotional dimensions determined by academic engagement scores

Acquisition: Picking up a language through meaningful conversation, the way pupils pick up languages. Acquisition occurs when a learner is exposed to meaningful, comprehensible input.

Adolescence: A period in life that begins with biological maturation, during which individuals are expected to accomplish certain developmental tasks, and that ends when they achieve a self-sufficient state of adulthood as defined by society.

Affective: Relating to emotional, non-cognitive, aspects of learning. **Agency:** An aspect of mature functioning characterized in independent cultures by asserting one's thoughts and feelings, and in interdependent cultures by self-restraint and maintaining harmonious relationships.

Amotivation: Inability or unwillingness to participate in normal social situation or learning process. It is the relative absence of motivation that is not caused by a lack of initial interest but rather by the individual's experiencing feelings of incompetence and helplessness when faced with the activity.

Anorexia: An eating disorder characterized by severely limiting the intake of food; more common in females.

Anxiety: The subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness and worry associated with the arousal of the autonomic nervous system.

Approach: A set of principles about teaching including views on method, syllabus, and a philosophy of language and learning. Approaches have theoretical backing with practical applications.

Assessment: The appraisal and valuation of pupils' learning. Assessment can be an appraisal of the process (or progress) of learning or the achievement of learning . The assessment of learning can include a whole range of skills, qualities, methods and approaches, including peer and self-assessment, and its focus is on determining the extent of student learning.

Attitudes: Learners possess sets of beliefs about language learning, target culture, teacher, learning tasks… These beliefs are referred to as attitudes. They influence learning in a number of ways.

Autonomy: It is the ability to take charge of one's own learning. It is essentially a matter of the learner's psychological relation to the process and content of learning.

B

Belief: A mental attitude of acceptance without the full intellectual knowledge required to guarantee its truth. It is the conviction of the mind, arising from evidence received, or from information derived

Body image: An individual's satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the image of his/her body.

Bulimia: An eating disorder characterized by excessive or compulsive eating and then purging, such as self-induced vomiting, more common in females.**Bullying:** Repeated aggressive behaviours or remarks occurring over an extended period of time that the victim finds difficult to defend against.

C

Case Study: An in-depth study of one individual or situation. The data in such a study may be recorded in field notes, typically a chronological account of both formal and informal observations. These notes are summarized and usually analysed using some form of coding that identifies important trends and relationships in the data.

Classroom climate: It refers to the classroom instruction, including teacher-related and peer-related environmental factors**.** It is the general flow of behaviour and feeling within a group. It is the type of environment that is created for pupils by the, teachers and peers. It encompasses all the socio-psychological dimensions of classroom life. This includes

common interest and the pursuit of common goal achieved through focused, organized and well planned lessons.

Collaborative Learning: When learners work in groups on the same task simultaneously, thinking together over demands and tackling complexities. Collaborative learning can take place without members being physically in the same location.

Cooperative learning: Placing pupils of different ability levels together in small working groups.

Competency-Based Approach: It is a 'know-how-to-do' process which integrates intellectual, mental, strategic, socio-affective and psychological skills as well as knowledge (content of different disciplines) which is directly related to the learners' motivation and real environment.

Continuous assessment: A type of testing which is different from a final examination. Some or all of the work that pupils do during a course is part of the final mark.

Culture: The values, beliefs, and customs that are shared by a group of people and passed from one generation to the next.

Curriculum: In education, a curriculum (plural curricula) is the set of courses and their contents offered by an institution such as a school or university.

D

Dependent variable: The measure used to determine the effect of the independent variable in an experiment.

Depression: An affective disorder that may take a number of forms, all of which are characterized by a disturbance of mood.

Differentiated instruction: Flexible classroom structure providing multiple formats for gaining information.

Differentiation: A process by which one distinguishes or perceives differences not previously recognized.

Descriptive statistics: It is a statistical technique that is used to analyse data by describing or summarizing the data from a sample. It is a technique that, basically, uses words, numbers, graphs or charts to show existing pattern or relationship.

Diagnostic Evaluation: Diagnostic Evaluation occurs before or, more typically, during instruction, concerned with skills and other characteristics that are prerequisite to the current instruction. It is based mostly on informal assessments, sometimes formal assessments and standardized tests are used.

E

Eclectic Approach: It combines the techniques of several different approaches. It selects and uses whatever is considered the best in many different theories

EFL: English as a Foreign Language. Originally this term refers to non-native speakers who are learning English language in a non-native English environment**.**

ESL: English as a second language. Originally this term refers to non-native speakers who are learning English language in an English language environment, .

External Frame of Reference: This is the pupils' inclination to compare their academic abilities with the abilities of other pupils in the school environment measured on Academic Self-Description Questionnaire Scale**.**

Extrinsic Motivation: Motivation through rewards such as points, candies, compliments, money, test scores, or grades. These rewards are externally administered and may inhibit learning in the long run. Researchers generally agree that intrinsic motivation is better for long-term learning.

F

Feedback: The response learners get when they attempt to communicate. This can involve correction, acknowledgement, requests for clarification, backchannel cues (e.g., "mmm"). Feedback plays an important role in helping learners to test their ideas about the target language.**Foreign language:** A language which is not normally used for communication in a particular society.

Formal assessment: When a teacher judges pupils' work through a test and then gives a formal report or grade to pupils, to say how successful or unsuccessful they have been.

Formative assessment: When a teacher gives pupils feedback on their progress during a course, rather than at the end of it so they can learn from the feedback.

G

Gender differences: Culturally determined differences in masculinity and femininity.

Gender: The cultural and psychological contributions to being female or male.

Globalization: The process by which expanding international trade, communication, and travel erases national and geographical boundaries.

Goal setting: It refers to the individual characteristic that motivates a pupil to learn for different purposes.

I

ICT / Multi-media Materials: Materials which make use of a number of different media. They make use of print, graphics, video and sound. Usually such materials are interactive and enable the learner to receive feedback on the written or spoken language which they produce.

Identity: The part of one's personality of which one is aware and is able to see as a meaningful and coherent whole.

Independent variable: The variable that is manipulated in an experiment, by randomly assigning participants to different levels of the variable.

Informal assessment: When a teacher decides whether a pupil is doing well or not, or whether a course is successful or not, but without a test or an official report or grade.

Internal Frame of Reference: This is the pupils' tendency to compare their academic ability in one subject with their ability in another subject as indicated by a score on academic self-description questionnaire scale.

Intrinsic Motivation: It refers to the pupils' motivation to actively engage in learning activities out of curiosity, interest, enjoyment, or in order to achieve their own intellectual and personal goals rather than relying on any external pressure.

L

Language Proficiency: The level of competence at which an individual is able to use language for both basic communicative tasks and academic purposes.

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Language use: Activities which involve the production of language in order to communicate. The purpose of the activity might be predetermined but the language which is used is determined by the learners.

Learning: The internalization of rules and formulas which can be used to communicate in the target language

Learner-Centred/ Student-Centred: Language activities, techniques, methods where the pupils/learners are the focus and the teacher plays only a peripheral role. Pupils are allowed some control over the activity or some input into the curriculum. Group work is one kind of student-centred activity. Individual styles and needs of the learners are taken into account.

Learning Strategies: These account for how learners accumulate new language rules and how they automate existing ones. They can be conscious or subconscious. Learning strategies may include metacognitive strategies (e.g., planning for learning, monitoring one's own comprehension and production, evaluating one's performance); cognitive strategies (e.g., mental or physical manipulation of the material), or social/affective strategies (e.g., interacting with another person to assist learning, using self-talk to persist at a difficult task until resolution).

Learning Styles: The way(s) that particular learners prefer to learn a language. Some have a preference for hearing the language (auditory learners), some for seeing it written down (visual learners), some for learning it in discrete bits (analytic learners), some for experiencing it in large chunks (global or holistic or experiential learners) and many prefer to do something physical whilst experiencing the language (kinaesthetic learners).

M

Materials: Anything which is used to help to teach language learners. Materials can be in the form of a textbook, a workbook, a CD-Rom, a video, a photocopied handout, a newspaper, a paragraph written on a whiteboard: anything which presents or informs about the language being learned.

Mastery goals: They refer to pupils who learn to have a deeper understanding of the material..

Metacognition: Awareness of one's thinking, cognitive abilities, and style.

Middle School: It is a second cycle and a pre-secondary institution in the Algerian educational system with four years course duration.

Moratorium: It is defined as a developmental period during which commitments have not yet been made or are rather exploratory and tentative.

Motivation: It refers to the ability, intensity, direction, and persistence of effort to pursue a goal for personal achievement. The determination to complete what one has started.

O

One-size-fits-all: Attitude, method, plan that designed to please everyone or be suitable for every situation, often with the result that it is not successful.

P

Pair Work: A process in which pupils work in pairs for practice or discussion

Peer Assessment: When pupils give feedback on each other's' language.

Peer Group: A group of individuals of the same age; a social group that regulates the pace of socialization.

Peer Pressure: Experienced pressures to think and act like one's friends.

Performances Goals: Referring to pupils who learn to obtain higher recognition for their work.

Performance-avoidance goals: Referring to pupils who exert little effort to their learning because their motivation lies outside the learning environment.

Performance standards: Statements that refer to how well pupils are meeting a content standard; specify the quality and effect of student performance at various levels of competency. They specify how pupils must demonstrate their knowledge and skills and can show their progress towards meeting a standard.

Purposive sampling: It is a technique employed to select a representative sample of the subjects in a study. The technique, also called judgment sampling, is described as the deliberate choice of an informant due to his/her qualities.

Q

Qualitative research: Qualitative research is more subjective in nature than quantitative research and involves examining and reflecting on the less tangible aspects of a research subject, e.g. values, attitudes, perceptions. Although this type of research can be easier to start, it can be often difficult to interpret and present the findings that can be challenged more easily.

Quantitative research: The emphasis of research is on collecting and analysing numerical data. It concentrates on measuring the scale, range, frequency ... of phenomena. This type of research, although harder to design initially, is usually highly detailed and structured and results can be easily collated and presented statistically.

R

Resiliency: Characterized by attitudes and social skills that enable individuals to function in a variety of settings.

S

Sample: A sub-group drawn from the population that is the subject of the research.

Secondary Education: $1^{st,}$ 2nd and 3rd grades (ages: 16, 17 &18,).

Secondary School: It is a third cycle and a pre-tertiary institution in the Algerian educational system with three years course duration. This institution is dominated by middle and late adolescents (ages between 15 and 20).

Self: Psychological entity that is the subject of a person's experience distinct from others. It is a sense of who we are.

Self-assessment: When pupils decide for themselves if they can think their progress or language use is good or not.

Self-concept: A nucleus of one's personality structure. A system of beliefs, perceptions and attitudes one holds true about himself.

Self–esteem: Evaluative and judgmental attitudes and feelings we have about ourselves. Self-esteem can be high or low.

Self-confidence: It is the sense of unquestioning acceptability of our potential as well as limitations. It is the belief in our ability to accomplish tasks and perform roles.

Self-efficacy: It is the ability to successfully perform a particular task through displaying the appropriate behaviour characteristic of perseverance and resilience.

Strategies: Activities that organize cognition so as to improve performance, such as repeating a phone number or categorizing a list of things to be remembered.

Survey: Survey is a data collection tool used to gather information about individuals; surveys are commonly used in the psychology research to collect self-report data from study participants. A survey may focus on factual information about individuals, or it might aim to collect the opinions of the survey takers.

Syllabus: A syllabus is the content of a language programme and how it is organized. This can be contrasted to method, which is how a language programme is taught. Structural syllabuses and functional syllabuses are two different ways of organizing language material.

T

Target Language: This is the language that the learner is attempting to learn. It comprises the native speaker's grammar

Task: An activity (or technique) where pupils are urged to accomplish something or solve some problem using their language.

Task-based Learning: Teaching/learning a language by using language to accomplish open-ended tasks. Learners are given a problem or objective to accomplish, but are left with some freedom in approaching this problem or objective.

Teacher-centred: Methods, activities, and techniques where the teacher decides what is to be learned, what is to be tested, and how the class is to be run. Often the teacher is in the centre of the classroom giving instruction with little input from pupils. The teacher decides the goals of the class based on some outside criteria.

Triangulation: The use of a variety of data sources to confirm one another to corroborate participant information.

Summary

Academic self-concept is believed to be a very significant construct that influences students' learning process in general and EFL learning in particular. Basing on a self-concept theory perspective, this study is an attempt to examine the relationship between self-concept, motivation, and academic achievement among a sample of adolescent students from Benahmed Bekhedda secondary school in Zemmora, Relizane within the age range of 15-20 years. The study plan involved the use of a sequential explanatory mixed method research design to gather information about adolescents' self-concept and motivation in an EFL learning context. Academic self-concept was measured using items adapted from the Self-Description Questionnaire (SDQ-II; Marsh, 1992). Motivation and academic engagement were measured through Academic Motivation Scale (AMS; Vallerand et al., 1992), and semi structured interviews that involved the adolescent learners and their EFL teachers. The data collected from these research instruments were analysed quantitatively and qualitatively. The findings of the study revealed a moderate correlation between self-concept, motivation, and students' EFL academic success.

Keywords: Self-Concept; Motivation; Academic Achievement; EFL learning; Adolescent Learners; Secondary School

Resumé

L'image de soi académique est considérée comme une construction très importante qui influence le processus d'apprentissage des étudiants en général et l'apprentissage de l'anglais langue seconde en particulier. Basée sur une perspective théorique de soi, cette étude tente d'examiner la relation entre concept de soi, motivation et réussite scolaire parmi un échantillon d'élèves adolescents de l'école secondaire Benahmed Bekhedda de Zemmora, Relizane, âgés de 15 à 20 ans. Quatre instruments de recherche ont impliqué l'utilisation d'une version modifiée du questionnaire d'auto-description (SDQ II) développée par Marsh (1992), un questionnaire d'auto-description de la Motivation et l'engagement académique (AMS; Vallerand et al, 1992) et d'entretiens semi-structurés avec les adolescents et leurs enseignants. Les données recueillies à partir de ces instruments de recherche ont été analysées quantitativement et qualitativement. Les résultats de l'étude ont révélé une corrélation modérée entre la conception de soi, la motivation et la réussite scolaire des étudiants en anglais langue seconde.

Mots-clés: Concept de soi ; Apprentissage des langues ; Motivation scolaire ; Rendement scolaire ; adolescence ; l'école secondaire

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ملخص:

يُعتقد أن المفهوم الأكاديمي للذات هو بناء مهم للغاية يؤثر على عملية تعلم الطلاب بشكل عام وتعلم اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية بشكل خاص. استنادًا إلى منظور نظرية مفهوم الذات ، تعد هذه الدراسة محاولة لفحص العلاقة بين مفهوم الذات والدافع والإنجاز الأكاديمي لدى عينة من الطلاب المراهقين من مدرسة بن احمد بخدة الثانوية بزمورة ، ولاية غليزان ضمن الفئة العمرية 15- 20 سنه. تضمنت استخدام أربعة أدوات بحثية : نسخة معدلة من استبيان الوصف الذاتي (SDQ II) التي طورها Marsh (1992) و استبيان لفحص الدافع والإنجاز الأكاديمي (AMS) طوره Vallerand et al (1992) ومقابلات شبه منظمة مع عينة من الطلاب المراهقين و أساتذتهم. تم تحليل البيانات التي تم جمعها من هذه الأدوات البحثية من الناحية الكمية والنوعية. كشفت نتائج الدراسة عن وجود علاقة معتدلة بين مفهوم الذات ، والتحفيز ، والنجاح الأكاديمي للطلاب في اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية.

الكلمات المفتاحية: مفهوم الذات ؛ تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية؛ الدافع الأكاديمي ؛ التحصيل الدراسي؛ فترةالمراهقة ؛ المدرسة الثانوية

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