

People's Democratic Republic of Algeria
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research
University of Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia, Jijel

Department of English



**The Learners' Attitudes Towards Using Rewards to
Enhance their Motivation During Classroom Interaction.
A case Study of Second Year Middle School Pupils in Bouhanneche
Lakhdar Middle School.**

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for Master Degree in
Didactics

Submitted by:

Ahcene BOUCHEKARA

Rida BOUDEHANE

Supervised by:

Dr. Fateh BOUNAR

Board of Examiners

Supervisor: Dr. Fateh BOUNAR

Jijel University

Examiner: Mr. Bakir BENHABILES

Chairperson: Dr. Samia AZIEB

Academic Year: 2018-2019

People's Democratic Republic of Algeria
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research
University of Mohammed Seddik Ben Yahia, Jijel
Department of English



**The Learners' Attitudes Towards Using Rewards to
Enhance their Motivation During Classroom Interaction.
A case Study of Second Year Middle School Pupils in
Bouhanneche Lakhdar Middle School**

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for Master Degree in
Didactics

Submitted by:

Ahcene BOUCHEKARA

Rida BOUDEHANE

Supervised by:

Dr. Fateh BOUNAR

Board of Examiners

Supervisor: Dr. Fateh BOUNAR

Jijel University

Examiner: Mr. Bakir BENHABILES

Chairperson: Dr. Samia AZIEB

Academic Year: 2018-2019

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to:

the light of my life and the apples of eyes, my parents;
my beloved sisters and brothers “Ismahane”, “Khalida”, “Fares” and “Khaled”;
my nieces “Roudaina” and “Djoudi”, whitout forgetting my nephew “Adem”;
my special friends “Fawzi GRIMES” (the admin) and “Adel BOUCHERIT”;
and all my family and my friends.

Rida

DEDICATION

In the name of Allah, the Almighty, I would like to dedicate this humble work to my dear parents, who have motivated me to complete this journey through their wise encouragement. To my brothers and sisters, to my wife for her constant support, to my lovely daughter “**Arwa**”.

Without forgetting my special friends “Fawzi GRIMES” (the admin) and “Adel BOUCHERIT”

Ahcene

Acknowledgement

In the Name of Allah, the most Gracious, most Merciful.

First of all, we would like to thank the most Graceful and Compassionate Allah the Almighty, the Sustainer of the entire world, for giving us courage, patience and mostly perseverance to continue and complete this research work.

We would like to express our open-hearted gratitude and respect to our supervisor **Dr. Fateh BOUNAR** for his help, guidance, and worthy comments and for his continuous help, precious suggestions, valuable advice, wise guidance, support, kindness, patience, and understanding.

We wish to express our thanks to our examiners **Mr. Bakir BENHABILES** and **Dr. Samia AZIEB** who have been kind to accept, read and evaluate our work.

Our profound thanks to all teachers , administrators and second year pupils of Bouhannache lakhdar middle school –Tassift- for being entirely collaborative during the administration of the questionnaire; without their generous cooperation this work would not have been possibly come out.

We would extend our thanks to all our classmates for the unforgettable moments we spent together.

**“Research is to see what everybody else has seen
and to think what nobody else has thought”**

(Albert Szent-Gyorgyi)

Abstract

This study probes the learners' perspective on the implementation of rewards as an extrinsic motive that prompts them to interact and participate more in the classroom. In order to investigate the present correlation between rewards and motivation, it is hypothesized that if learners were given rewards following a good performance, they would become more motivated to interact in the classroom. To test the validity of our hypothesis, a questionnaire was delivered to a group of 61 second year pupils at Bouhaneche Lakhdar middle school, Tassift, Jijel in order to find out their attitudes towards the use of rewards in enhancing motivation during classroom interaction. Consequently, the results obtained have shown that the pupils feel more enthusiastic believing that the reinforcers used by the teacher encourage them to exert serious efforts, and that rewards reduce difficulties in learning, making it easier and result in good performance when participating in classroom interactions. In other words, the analytical work confirmed the study hypothesis that the pupils have positive attitudes towards rewards.

List of Abbreviations

CET: Cognitive Evaluation Theory

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ER: Extrinsic Reward

FL: Foreign Language

IM: Intrinsic Motivation

IRF: Initiation-Response-Feedback

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

Q: Question

SCT: Social Cognitive Theory

SDT : Self- Determination Theory

SLT: Social Learning Theory

ST: Student

T : Teacher

TL: Target Language

List of Tables

Table 1: The Reason for Studying.....	40
Table 2: The Pupils' Position on Attracting Attention in the Classroom.....	41
Table 3: The Reason for Attracting Attention.....	41
Table 4: The Pupils' Behavior When Their Peers are Praised Instead.....	42
Table 5: The Impact of Getting the Average on the Pupils' Performance.....	42
Table 6: The Sufficiency of the Average Mark.....	43
Table 7: The Frequency of the Pupils' Risk Taking	44
Table 8: The Effect of Wrong Answers on the Pupils' Self-Esteem.....	45
Table 9: The Frequency of Initiating Interaction.....	46
Table 10: The Frequency of the Pupils' Participation in Classroom Interaction	47
Table 11: The Frequency of Work Avoidance Because of Self-Confidence Issues.....	48
Table 12: The Pupils' Perspective Towards Praise.....	49
Table 13: The Impact of Praise on the Pupils' Motivation and Interaction	49
Table 14: The Pupils' Attitude Towards Rewarding Good Performance	50
Table 15: The Effect of Extrinsic Motivators in Increasing Classroom Participation	51
Table 16: Rewards in Simplifying the Process of Learning	52
Table 17: The Significance of Praise in Increasing Performance	53
Table 18: The Pupils' Disappointment When They are not Rewarded	53

Table 19: The Frequency of Rewards Increasing Self-confidence54

Table 20: The Feeling of Learners After Receiving a Verbal Reward55

List of Figures

Figure 1: Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs (McLeod, 2017).	20
Figure 2: Self -Determination Theory Psychological Needs	26
Figure 3: Basic Expectancy Model	29
Figure 4: Teacher-Student Interaction	35
Figure 5: Student-Student Interaction	38

Table of Contents

Dedication.....	2
Acknowledgements	4
Abstract	5
List of Abbreviations	6
List of Tables.....	7
List of Figures	9
Table of Contents.....	10

General Introduction

1. Background of the Study.....	14
2. Statement of the Problem.....	15
3. Aim of the Study.....	16
4. Research Questions and Hypothesis.....	16
5. Research Hypothesis	16
6. Research Methodology.....	16
7. Structure of the study.....	17

Chapter One: Theoretical Background (Literature Review)

Introduction	18
--------------------	----

Section I: Overview of Motivation	18
1.1.1 Definition of Motivation	18
1.1.2 The Importance of Motivation	19
1.1.3 Theories of Motivation	20
1.1.3.1 Humanistic Theory	20
1.1.3.2. Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation Theory	22
1.1.3.3. Self-Determination Theory	24
1.1.3.3.1. Self -Determination Theory (SDT) Model	25
1.1.3.3.2. The Three Elementary Psychological Needs	25
1.1.3.3.2.1. Autonomy	26
1.1.3.3.2.2. Competence	27
1.1.3.3.2.3. Relatedness	27
1.1.3.4. Social Cognitive Theory	27
1.1.3.5. Expectancy Theory	28
1.1.3.6. Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory	30
Section Two: Classroom Interaction	
1.2.1. Definition of Classroom Interaction.....	32
1.2.2. The Importance of Classroom Interaction.	32
1.2.3. Types of Classroom Interaction	34
1.2.3.1. Teacher-Learner Interaction.....	34
1.2.3.1.1 The IRF Exchange	35
1.2.3.1.2 The Contingent Interaction	37
1.2.3.2. Student-Student Interaction	37

1.2.4. The Impact of Classroom Interaction on English Language learning	39
---	----

Section Three: Overview of Rewards

1.3.1. Definition of Rewards	41
1.3.2. Types of Rewards	42
1.3.2.1. Controlling Rewards	42
1.3.2.2. Informational Rewards	42
1.3.2.3. Verbal Rewards	43
1.3.2.4. Tangible Rewards	44
1.3.3. The Importance of Rewards	45
1.3.4. The Effect of Rewards (Reinforcers) on Learning	46
1.3.5. The Impact of Rewards (Reinforcers) on Learners' Engagement	48
1.3.6. The Impact of Rewards on Motivating Learners to Interact	49
- Conclusion	49

Chapter Two: Research Methodology, Data Analyses and Data Discussion

- Introduction	50
2.1. The Choice of the Method	50
2.2. Questionnaire Assigned to Pupils	50
2.2.1. The Sample	50
2.2.2. Description of the Questionnaire	51
2.2.3. Administration of the Questionnaire	52
2.2.4. Analysis of the Questionnaire	53
2.3. Discussions of the Results	69
2.3.1. The Pupils' Reaction to Rewards as a Pedagogical Means to increase their Motivation	

.....69

2.3.2. The Effect of Rewards in Motivating Learners to Become Active Participants70

- Conclusion71

- Limitations of the Research...72

- Recommendations for Further Research72

- General conclusion73

- References

- Appendices

- Résumé

- ملخص

General Introduction

English is a global language. By the turn of the twenty first century, it has become the world dominant language in several fields such as science, politics, medicine, economy, education, communication and so forth. Interestingly, it is the native or the official language (L1) of several countries and the second language (L2) in almost the rest of the world. Consequently, learning English has become more than a necessity for governments. For this purpose, they deployed considerable financial and human resources to make this process successful in addition to their relentless quest for developing the most effective and useful English language educational programs. Parallely, emphasis was placed on the learners as the corner stone and on the axis of the teaching-learning process by motivating them to effectively use this language relying on various means such as rewards and praise.

Rewards and praise play a fundamental role in the process of learning because they give the learners a better motivation to make further efforts and give their best during classroom interaction. Additionally, they push work-avoidant and shy learners to be involved in the learning process, getting rid of shyness, confusion and doubt. Importantly, the present dissertation examines the attitudes of middle school learners towards using rewards to enhance their motivation during classroom interaction.

1- Background of the Study

Rewards and their effect on motivation are considered as one of the most important pedagogical research topics in language teaching and learning, The role of rewards in learning has received the attention of many scholars and psychologists: for instance, the following publications investigated the importance of giving rewards to learners (Deci, 1971, Deci &

Ryan, 1985; Kohn, 1993; Flora, 2004; Brophy, 2004, 2010; Deci & Ryan 2008). Social-cognitive researchers have made more than 100 studies in order to determine how external motives, such as rewards, engender motivated behaviours and the learners' performance in the classroom (Carton, 1996). The review of studies (Camron & Pierce, 1994; Deci & Ryan 1985; Dickinson, 1989; Morgan, 1984; Wiersma, 1992) in the area of rewards, seems to repeatedly confirm the impact of tangible rewards (e.g., prizes, tokens, money, and awards) in decreasing intrinsic motivation, while praise, on the other hand, increases it (Carton, 1996).

However, Eisenberger & Cameron (1996) worked on the detrimental effects of rewards on motivation and said that this notion was a myth. They agreed that the negative effects of rewards can easily be averted and that rewards can have positive effects on learners' motivation and performance in the classroom in general if they are properly administered.

2- Statement of the problem

One of the problematic issues in the field of learning and teaching is how to motivate pupils to take part in classroom interaction. They need to be motivated enough to participate when the floor is open for discussion. However, teachers face many problems when addressing this issue especially with non-responsive classes where pupils show low levels of motivations that negatively affect their productivity and prevent them from generating a comprehensible output.

Although rewards are considered as one of the most effective means to motivate learners, it is noticed that reliance on them is limited in many cases. In other cases, rewards are used with high achievers, who represent the active participants in the classroom, whereas low achievers and shy learners are left behind. Consequently, learners become less interested either to learn or to participate in classroom interaction, resorting and in the worst-case scenario to work avoidance. In other words, they become demotivated and thus shy away from the classroom interaction.

3- Aim of the Study

This study aims at unveiling the learners' attitudes towards the use of rewards as a means to enhance their motivation to become actively involved in classroom interactions.

4- Research Questions and Hypothesis

This research addresses the following questions:

- 1) What is the learners' reaction to rewards as a pedagogical means to increase their motivation?
- 2) How can rewards motivate learners to become active participants in classroom interaction?

5- Research Hypothesis

In light of the above questions, the following hypothesis is put forward: if learners were given rewards following a good performance, they would become more motivated to interact in the classroom.

6- Research Methodology

This study made use of a questionnaire as the main research instrument. The questionnaire was administered to a sample of 61 second year middle school pupils from Bouhannech Lakhdar Middle School, Tassift. The questions were tailored for the purpose of investigating the pupils' attitudes towards the use of rewards to enhance their motivation during classroom interaction.

After collecting the data, an analysis was conducted in order to demonstrate the importance of rewards as extrinsic incentives which may increase or decrease pupils' motivation to interact more in the classroom.

7- Structure of the Study

This study includes two major chapters. The first chapter consists of three main sections. The first section includes an overview about motivation, definitions of motivation, its importance and different theories and notions about it, while the second section is assigned for surveying classroom interaction, its role, types of classroom interaction and the impact of classroom interaction on English language EFL learning. Moreover, it pays attention to the impact of rewards and classroom interaction on learning English as a foreign language. Section three is primarily interested in speaking about rewards, their types and importance. Furthermore, it casts light on the the effect of rewards (reinforcers) on learning and on learners' engagement, in addition to the impact of rewards on motivating EFL learners to interact. However, the second chapter deals with the interpretation and analysis of the data collected from the administered questionnaire

Chapter One: Theoretical Background

Introduction

Nowadays, learning English has become a necessity for people. However, the path for proficiency, mastery and fluency is not always paved. Consequently, second language learners need to be motivated during the process of learning for a better engagement in the classroom activities. Interestingly, one of the most reliable means that educators and teachers depend on in order to motivate their learners is rewards. This chapter is divided into three sections. The first section is an overview of motivation. The second is concerned with classroom interaction. The last section is devoted to rewards.

Section One: Overview of Motivation

1.1.1 Definitions of Motivation

Motivation is a frequently used word both in our daily work and study. It is a complex concept which was studied by different researchers in many ways. Oxford dictionary defined it as “A reason or reasons for acting or behaving in a particular way. It is a desire or willingness to do something; enthusiasm” (Oxford Living dictionaries).

Berliner and Calfee (1996) stressed that, “motivation is the study of why people think and behave as they do... For example, why some students complete tasks despite enormous difficulty, while others give up at the slightest provocation” (p.63). Another definition given by Graham and Weiner (1996) in their article *Theories and Principles of Motivation* is that motivation is the look for the causes that make people acting and behaving as they do.

In general terms, motivation is a desire to perform and to achieve something (Rayan & Deci, 2000). It has to do with the attempt made by learners when leaning a foreign language as a consequence of their desire to learn it, that is to say, being motivated has nothing to do with the fact that we like to learn a foreign language but rather with the efforts made to learn it. In conclusion, we need to say that motivation as a frequently used word both in our daily work and study is of major importance which effects the performance and acquisition of foreign language learners.

1.1.2. Importance of Motivation

Motivation is considered as an important factor particularly when with teaching a second language. However, teachers tend to forget that it is their students' motivation that filter their learning activities. In other words, students control the flow of the lesson since they are the beating heart of the classroom. Madrid et al (1992) stressed that motivation is a decisive element highly required in any learner's second language (L2) context.

For the sake of learning a language, the learner should have the eagerness to communicate something to someone; that is to say, he should be motivated. Reinforcement can take place only after the objective is attained. It is generally assumed that learners will seek language exposure only if they feel motivated (Madrid et al, 1992). Furthermore, Oxford and Nyikos (1989) stated that motivation generally pushes the learners to search for the use of a variety of learning strategies to have better mastery over the target language (as cited in Oxford, 1992). Again, Gardner (1985), said that motivation encourages greater overall effort on the part of language learners and it results in success in terms of general language proficiency. So, from these definitions we understand that motivation is one of the most important determinant factors for

explaining the failure or success of a language learner, and because of this, teachers should look for effective techniques to motivate learners.

1.1.3. Theories of Motivation

After introducing the importance of motivation in learning; it is necessary to speak about the different theories to motivation since they have seen motivation from different viewpoints.

1.1.3.1. Humanistic Theory

This theory focused on the learner as a whole person, that is, the needs of the learner must be addressed and satisfied. It states that needs exert a powerful pressure on individuals until the need is satisfied. The leading figure of this theory is Abraham Maslow. He classified the basic needs of people into seven distinctive parts organized in the form of a pyramid as shown in (figure 1). According to Maslow, individuals must seek to satisfy all their needs from the basic ones to the top ones (McLeod, 2017).

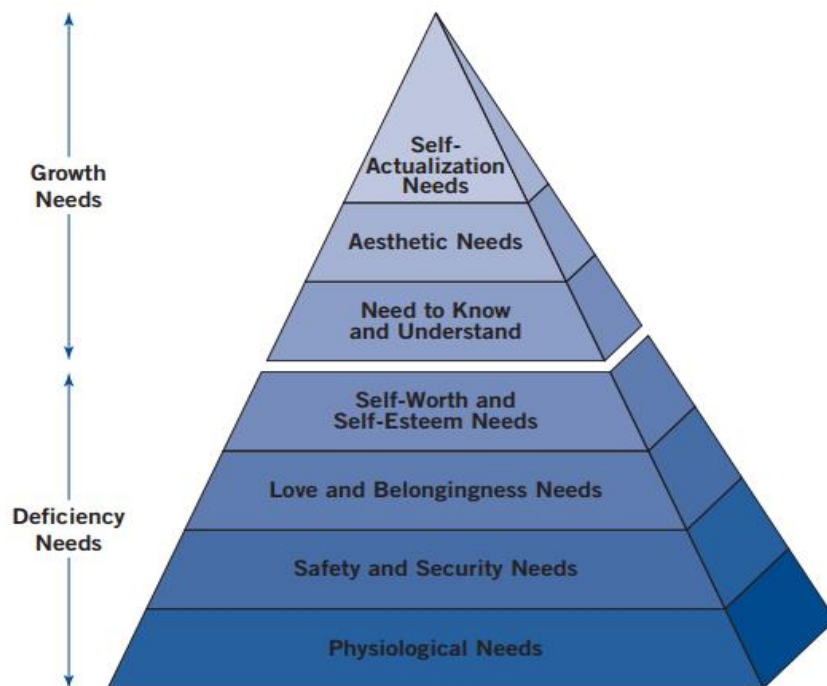


Figure 1: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (McLeod, 2017).

Maslow (1970) classified the physiological needs of individuals at the base of the pyramid because it represents the most basic need people have; in other words, it is the need for survival: their eternal struggle for food, water, and shelter comes before anything else and if any of the previous needs is missing, people are motivated to meet the missing ones. All the other remaining needs including freedom from doubt, fear, and anxiety; security; safety; stability; need for order and law; and so forth can come after the physiological needs are fully satisfied. The prominent goal here is a positive prediction about the world and the future (Maslow, 1970). After the first two needs are satisfied, individuals can aim for the needs associated with love and belonging. These needs are related to the personal relationships human beings develop for people they interact with such as friends, family members, classmates, partners, rivals and so on. They can be achieved when the relationships stated earlier are satisfactory. Satisfactory relationships imply that an individual is accepted by others. Maslow argued that the former "... will hunger for affectionate relations with people in general, namely, for a place in his group or family, and he will strive with great intensity to achieve this goal" (p. 43). It means that, after satisfying their need for love and belonging, individuals can start to develop positive feelings of self-esteem, and be proud of the work they perform in themselves as people (Maslow, 1970).

At this stage, Maslow grouped the first four needs in the pyramid and called them deficiency needs. They are essential and must be attained by any individual before the latter is motivated to aim for other experiences belonging to the upper levels of the pyramid (Maslow, 1970).

As a matter of fact, Human beings are curious since the first day they see light; it is in their genes. Maslow (1970) described them as "... a defining characteristic, attracted to the mysterious, to the unknown, to the chaotic, unorganized, and unexplained" (p. 49). This curiosity to know is

best expressed by children who relentlessly ask dozens of questions about different things. Aesthetic needs come sixth; They reflect the needs to express oneself in pleasing ways, to appreciate beauty, organization and shape. The self-actualization needs occupy the top position of the pyramid; which are, a person's desires to become everything he or she wants in the future: in other words, to be aware enough about the underlined objectives and to deploy all his potentials, capacities, and talents. According to Maslow (2007), it is rarely satisfied or never satisfied. Again, it is impossible to address this need without satisfying the six other needs stated earlier.

The three needs stated in the upper levels are called growth needs. They can never be satisfied completely. Deficiency needs differ from Growth needs in the sense that, in the former, motivation diminishes after a need is satisfied, whereas in the latter, people's motivation increases when the needs are met (Maslow, 2007)

1.1.3.2. Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation Theory

According to Ryan and Deci (2000), intrinsic motivation depicts an activity performed only for own satisfaction without any external expectance. Four key factors are responsible to trigger up intrinsic motivation which are: "challenge, curiosity, control and fantasy" (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In the field of education, lots of self-control and positive attitude is very much needed to sustain the motivation. In addition, Pérez-López and Contero (2013), Lepper, Corpus and Iyengar (2005) asserted that there are some positive bonding intrinsic motivation shares with academic achievement. Intrinsic motivation guides a learner to take part in academic activities for the sake of experiencing fun, challenge and particularity without any external pressure or expecting external rewards or gifts (Ryan & Deci, 2000a, 2016b). There is no need for drives, urges or punishments when a person is intrinsically motivated, because the activity is a reward in itself (Woolfolk, 2004)

The second type of motivation is Extrinsic motivation. It is different from intrinsic motivation in the sense that people can do activities and bear behaviors which are not intrinsically motivating. So, they tend to do activities which are extrinsically motivating. Generally speaking, we do an extrinsically motivating activity for its instrumental value rather than for the enjoyment of the activity in itself (Rayan & Deci, 2000). Rayan and Deci defined extrinsic motivation as external incentives or forces that lead an individual to engage in an activity. According to them, extrinsic motivation is determined by external forces such as rewards and punishments; and being extrinsically motivated, means that we may have no interest in the task in itself; the final gain is what we care about (Rayan & Deci, 2000). According to Tohidi & Jabbari (2012), motivation can initially be developed extrinsically then transformed into an intrinsic motivation during the learning process. In this case, motivation ensures self-control and engagement.

Rayan and Deci (2000) proposed four levels of external regulation or extrinsic motivation. The first level is the least autonomous among the four which they label external regulation. For instance, work-avoidant students tend to obtain teacher rewards and avoid punishments. This behavior is demonstrated to satisfy an external authority or attain an externally imposed reward, in the sense that the students would have a much better response to punishments or to the offer of extrinsic rewards. The center of control is external in this case. The second level, represent the introjected regulation. Students may start in an activity because they think they are obliged and may feel guilty when they do not do this activity (Rayan & Deci, 2000). They called this 'introjected regulation' because motivation here is born from an internalized, pressuring voice; these feelings seem to be controlling the person. The source of motivation for this behavior are feelings like guilt, worry or shame not only for the temptation of rewards or the fear from punishments and which, in fact, are internal to the person, but the source is still external because

the objective behind the activity may be to please the others (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The third level is known as ‘identified regulation’. Individuals engage in a task because they identified with its importance and accepted it as a regulation of their own because it benefits them in achieving a goal. As an illustration, a person may recognize that studying grammar for English class is essential to the end of becoming a successful writer.

Unlike external regulation which may be for a more immediate positive reward, identified regulation is used to achieve an end that affects an individual's personal well-being and desires. The center of causality is more internal to the individual as he feels it is very important to him not just to others. In this case, the goals are justified by instrumental reasons rather than intrinsic interests (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The last level and which is the most autonomous amongst the four is called ‘integrated regulation’. It arises when a person has fully integrated various internal and external sources of information into their own self-schema and engage in a behavior because of its personal importance. His behavior is influenced by integrated regulation when he experiences self-examination then he internalizes and links the reasons that cause an action to take place. This final level is still instrumental rather than intrinsic but it represents autonomy (Rigby et al 1992; Ryan; cited in Pintrich 1999)

1.1.3.3. Self-Determination Theory

Self- Determination Theory (SDT) is a theory developed by the American professor of psychology Edward L. Deci and the American professor in clinical psychology Richard Ryan in the eighties of the last century, the fruit of their work was a book written in 1985 entitled “*Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination in Human Behaviour*” which designed the principal concepts of the self-determination theory (SDT).

SDT is a broad theory in psychology which deals with human motivation, personality development, and wellness, with relation to the innate psychological human needs (Ryan & Deci, 2017). It studied why and how people make their decisions and choices, away from any influence of any external factor, this internal motif “intrinsic motivation (IM)” that guide people, was the first interest of SDT, but later on it expanded to cover both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, in addition to generating new perspectives on well-being, vitality, life-goals, and relationship quality (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

1.1.3.3.1. Self -Determination Theory (SDT) Model

According to the Self-determination model, there are three universal and innate psychological needs, which are Autonomy, Competence, and Relatedness, whenever these needs are satisfied, they lead to optimal motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2002).

SDT assumes that the humans’ nature continually exhibits positive features, do efforts and grant their freedom of making own choices, this is known as the Inherent Growth Tendencies. In addition, humans have that innate psychological need for self-motivation. When the three elementary psychological needs are met, this will increase health and well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2002). These needs are common to all humans; however, they may show differences considering cultural background, personal experiences and era.

1.1.3.3.2. The Three Elementary Psychological Needs

Self-determination theory specifies that the environment and social settings promote intrinsic motivation when they satisfy three innate psychological needs:



Figure 02: Self -Determination Theory Psychological Needs.

1.1.3.3.2.1. Autonomy

Autonomy expresses volition, and liberty. People need to have that feeling of control over themselves, monitoring their behaviour and mastering their own destiny. Deci and Ryan argued that extrinsic incentives for behaviours that are motivated from within (intrinsic) decrease intrinsic motivation, consequently a decrease of autonomy. They conclude that for promoting autonomy and intrinsic motivation it is better to avoid granting extrinsic rewards for intrinsic behaviours, rather intrinsic rewards in this case will give people a sense of liberty and more control over themselves (Ryan & Deci, 2002).

Autonomy also is concerned with learner's ability to control his or her cognitive processes, learning management and learning content which are tightly connected to learner's attitudes towards his or her independence, responsibility, choice, decision making, critical reflection and detachment.

1.1.3.3.2.2. Competence

It is the second psychological need which concerns the need to control the outcome, hand in hand with the control ones' own experiences. Ryan and Deci discovered that giving unexpected

positive feedback bestowing as a reward of good learning behaviour, then leads to higher competence level. However, it decreases the intrinsic motivation. The need of competence according to Ryan and Deci (1985) includes also, peoples' feeling of confident and the ability to reach the objectives and desired results as well as denying negative outcomes.

1.1.3.3.2.3. Relatedness

The need for relatedness is about the need of being connected with other individuals and the environment in general (Jacobs & Eccles, 2000). Jacobs and Eccles defined relatedness as “a feeling of being securely connected to the social world and to see oneself as worthy of love and respect.

Ryan and Deci (1989) reported that “relatedness refers to a person's striving to relate to and care for others, to feel that others are relating authentically to one's self, to feel satisfying and coherent involvement with the social world”. That is, as social animals, humans need to communicate with others and have the feeling of belonging, they need to feel attached to other individuals or groups of people.

1.1.3.4. Social cognitive Theory

Social cognitive theory (SCT) first was known as the Social Learning Theory (SLT). It was created by Stanford psychology professor Albert Bandura during the 1960s and it has been implemented in certain fields including education, psychology and communication. SCT refers to the acquisition of knowledge via observational learning, interaction, experiences and modeling media (Bandura, 2001). The objective of SCT is to explain how individuals adapt their behavior by controlling and reinforcing in order to achieve a goal-directed behavior that cannot be affected by the factor of time (Bandura 1997). Bandura conducted an experiment to prove the effect of social influences on people and children in particular. SCT describes the link between environment

factor, personal factor and behavior. They are said to be connected and that there is an unquestionable consequence for every action, that is, people can decide to engage in an activity only when they think that they can exert a certain control on the activity after evaluating the activity and one's abilities and after expecting the possible consequences (Bandura, 1997). Environment factor can influence people and can be classified as social and physical. The social environment refers to family and friends whereas physical environment refers to the comforts (Bandura 1997).

1.1.3.5. Expectancy Theory

Expectancy theory was developed by Vroom of the School of Management in Yale in 1964. This theory was developed based on the employees' motivation in working environments and later it was expanded and revised. This theory focused on the cognitive factors that lead to motivation and how they are related to each other (Vroom, 1964). That is, it is stated that there is a solid relationship between the amount of effort put into an activity and the performance that can be achieved and appreciation received for the effort and performance (Bauer, Surface, Ely, & Orvis, 2016). This theory confirmed that strong effort will result in better performance and lead to rewards eventually (Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996).

Vroom highlighted the importance of outcomes, and not the needs unlike Maslow. The theory stated that the eagerness and passion to perform in a particular manner is dependent on the worker's expectation of the definite outcome rewarded for his performance and also on the temptation of the outcome on the individual (Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996).

The Expectancy Theory consisted of four main assumptions (Vroom, 1964). The first assumption is that people first apply for jobs or start participating in some activities with expectations about their actual needs, motivations, and past experiences which influence the

reaction towards the work in hand. The second assumption is that behavior results from conscious choices. That is to say, people have the freedom to choose the suitable behaviors relevant to their expectancy calculations. The third assumption is that each individual seeks different things from the organization such as, healthy working environment, good salary, better reputation, and challenge). The fourth assumption is that people choose among alternatives so as to optimize outcomes and to ensure pleasure and reduce pain (Vroom, 1964).

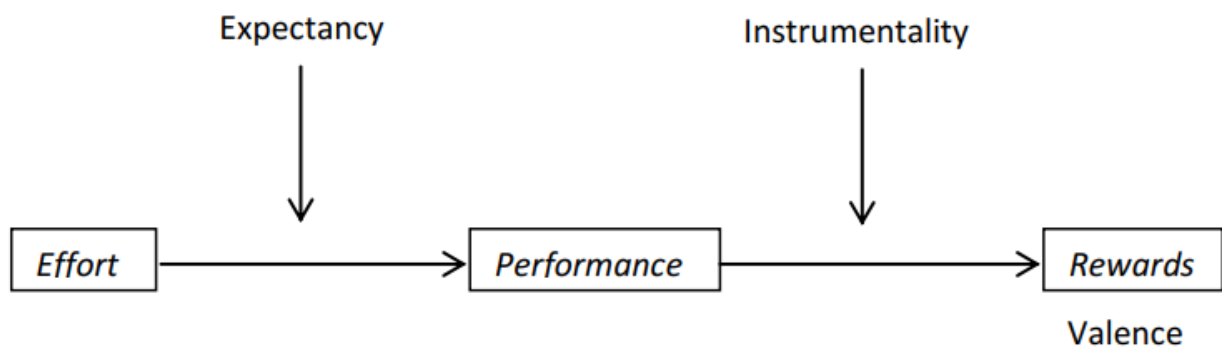


Figure 3. Basic expectancy model

There are three stages shown in (figure 3) before receiving any reward (Bauer et al, 2016). At the expectancy stage, the student believes that if he/she puts a genuine or maximum effort in a task, he/she will reach an acceptable level of performance (Bauer et al, 2016). Then, the level of achieved task performance will be rewarded as a logical outcome and this stage is known as an instrumentality. Lastly, valence, or the value and the student's preference of the rewards is more or less positive and known as intrinsic attractiveness at the final stage of expectancy theory (Lunenburg, 2011).

Vroom proposed that motivation, instrumentality, expectancy and valence are strongly interrelated by the following equation (Lunenburg, 2011):

$$\text{Motivation} = \text{Expectancy} \times \text{Instrumentality} \times \text{Valence.}$$

It means that motivation is high when, instrumentality, expectancy and valence are high. Similarly, if any factor of the three equals zero, the level of motivation equals zero. Therefore, for instance, even if a student expects that his/her perseverance and diligence will result in a performance leading to a reward, motivation will be equal to zero if the valence of the reward is zero (Lunenburg, 2011).

1.1.3.6. Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

In 1959, Herzberg made a study on the job attitudes and the personal feelings of 203 engineers and accountants towards their working environments. This study was performed to pinpoint the factors which had led to satisfaction or dissatisfaction of the employees in their work place.

From the data collected, Herzberg (1959) distinguished between two major categories that have an effect on job satisfaction. Hygiene factors hover around the 'context' or doing of the job. They are necessary for the existence of motivation at a work environment and they include, physical working conditions, supervision, job security, salary, benefits, company administration and policy and interpersonal relations (Ruthankoon, 2003). Conversely, motivation factors make job attitudes positive since they satisfy the individual's desire for self-actualization. Motivation factors are the 'content' of the job and they include recognition, achievement, responsibility, the work itself, and advancement (Ruthankoon & Ogunlana, (2003). This theory separated the factors into extrinsic and intrinsic motivators. The 'job content factors' which are considered as intrinsic motivators, define the performances, responsibilities and achievements that of people in their work leading to satisfaction; These factors have a great contribution to the individuals' feelings of satisfaction.

The job context factors represent the extrinsic factors which relate more to the environment or the working place than to the nature of the job as such which a worker just has little control over it; (Schermerhorn, Hunt, & Osborn, 2003). Herzberg (1959) mentioned that these factors are what cause job satisfaction. However, he stressed that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are two feelings that should not be treated as antonyms since the factors which cause job satisfaction are different from the factors which cause dissatisfaction. Hence, dissatisfaction is not the antonym of satisfaction, but rather, *no* satisfaction. Namely, it is a neutral state in between in which the individual cannot be described as satisfied or dissatisfied. Similarly, *no* dissatisfaction is the antonym of dissatisfaction (Herzberg, Mausnes, Peterson, & Capwell, 1959).

Therefore, for the purpose of increasing job satisfaction and ultimately job performance for an employee or coworker, employers or managers need to deal with the factors that affect one's job satisfaction. The most direct and effective approach is to work on the intrinsic, job content factors. Giving workers recognition and encouragement for a task done helps them to feel more valued within the company and rises self-esteem and gives them a sense of achievement and responsibility. (Schermerhorn et al, 2003). With a reversed relationship, managers should focus more on the level of job dissatisfaction among their employees. The direct way to tackle dissatisfaction in the work place is to focus on the hygiene or job context factors (Schermerhorn et al, 2003). In the Two-Factor Theory, when trying to improve an extrinsic factor such as the working conditions that effects job dissatisfaction, this will not change the employees' perception of whether they are content with their work; it will only prevent them from being dissatisfied (Schermerhorn et al, 2003).

Section Two: Classroom Interaction

1.2.1. Definition of Classroom Interaction:

According to Kalantari (2009), classroom interaction refers to the interaction between teachers and learners in the classroom settings since teaching is an interactive act.

Interestingly, classroom interaction is a verbal and non-verbal practice that strengthens two very important skills which are speaking and listening. However, every interaction situation has the potential for co-operation or conflict depending on the personal interpretations, attitudes and intentions.

Classroom interaction helps learners think critically, and share their views with their peers. Consequently, Dagarin (2004) defined classroom interaction as “a two way-process between the participants in the learning process. The teacher influences the learners and vice versa” (p.128). In other words, interactive work is mutual between teacher and his students.

1.2.2. The Importance of Classroom Interaction

Classroom interaction plays a major role in the process of learning a second language. It was a center of interest for many researchers who focused their studies on its importance in L2 learning. According to Ellis (as cited in Chaudron, 1988), when we give greater opportunities to speak to L2 learners, they can accomplish more practice in the TL; their motivation will increase to engage in further communication and reach a successful communication, eventually. In other words, the role of classroom interaction is significant in L2 learning since it pushes learners to communicate in the TL; furthermore, allowing learners to speak in the classroom setting is considered as a motivational factor for them to do their best. Chaudron (1988) stated that:

Interaction is viewed as significant because it is argued that only through interaction can the learners decompose the TL structures and derive meaning from classroom events. Interaction gives learners the opportunities to incorporate TL structures into their own speech, and meaningfulness for learners of classroom events of any kind, whether through interactive or not, will depend on the extent to which communication has been jointly constructed between the teacher and learners. (p.10)

In the light of what has been said before, classroom interaction is considered as an important factor through which learners can analyze a discourse and get meaning and this fact will enhance their chances to polish their communicative skills.

According to Hatch (2007), “language learning evolves out of learning how to carry on conversation, out of learning how to communicate” (as cited in Mackey, 2007, p.2). That is to say, communication is of capital importance in FL learning. In addition, Nunan (1991) stated that learners acquire language only when they actively engage and interact with their peers for the sake of communicating in the TL. Also, Içbay (2008) argued that classroom interaction is considered as one of the platforms where any actuality about any classroom phenomena is constructed, shared, and be meaningful. That is to say, the core of learning a TL is knowing how to manipulate it communicatively.

Hedge (2000) in turn, added that classroom interaction helps the learners to generate more accurate and appropriate language, which serves as an input for other students. A proof for what has been said is the widespread focus of pair work and group work as a common feature of contemporary classrooms. To express it differently, classroom interaction plays the role of a

reinforcer since it pushes learners to produce more appropriate and meaningful sentences. Also, it provides students with the chance to hear what their peers or teachers say (Hedge, 2000).

1.2.3. Types of Classroom Interaction

There are many types of classroom interaction; However, the most prominent one is: the teacher-student interaction and student-student interaction.

1.2.3.1 Teacher-Student Interaction

Teacher-student interaction is considered as an important source of motivation when learning in EFL classrooms. This type of interaction takes place either between the teacher and a particular learner or between the teacher and the whole class.

The first form of this interaction is teacher-students interaction. It is established when the teacher starts a conversation with the whole class at the same time. He can be a leader, controller or model. That is, the teacher has the authority to decide about the type and the process of the activity. The prominent function of this interaction is to control practicing of certain language structures or vocabulary. Mostly, the activities associated with this form of interaction are repetition of particular structures after the teacher. This type of activity is also called *drill by* Dagarin (2004).

The second form of this interaction is teacher-student interaction; it happens when the teacher addresses only one student or particular group of students to answer a particular question or to take part in a discussion within the classroom. This form is often used for evaluating individual students. It can also be used for an informal conversation between the teacher and a student or particular group at the beginning of the session or in order to lead students into a semi-guided activity (Dagarin, 2004.).

Scrivener (2005, p.85) has proposed a Figure to demonstrate teacher-student interaction:

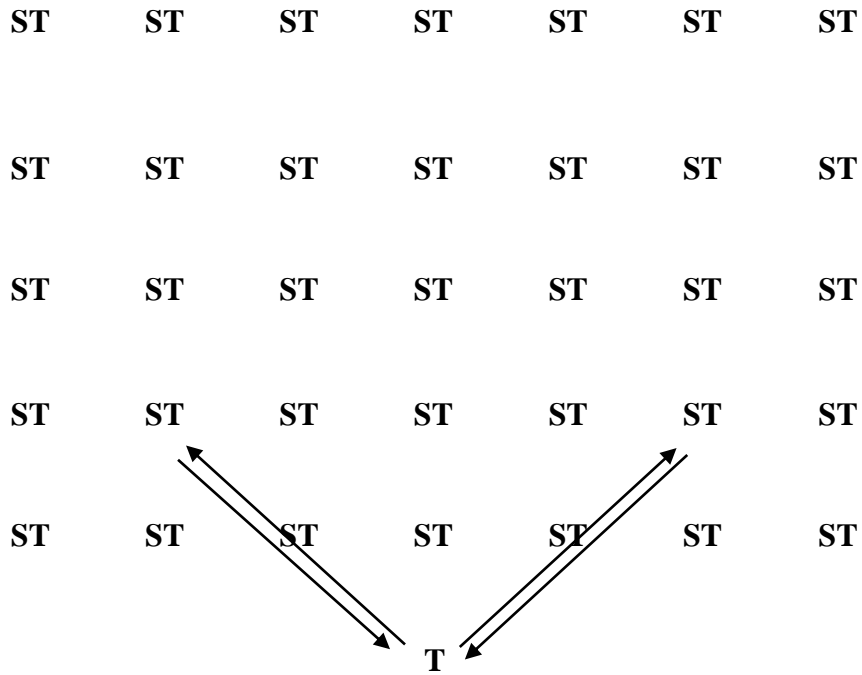


Figure 04: Teacher-Student Interaction

In this Figure, Scrivener (2005) has described how teacher-student interaction takes place within the classroom whether from the teacher (T) to the students (ST) or from the students to the teacher. Each time, the teacher choses a student to take part in classroom discussions. Teacher-student interaction is divided into two different types:

1.2.3.1.1 The IRF Exchange

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) characterized IRF, which stands for Initiation-response-Feedback, as the most common type of interaction that existed in EFL classrooms. This type of exchange has been described by Van Lier (1996) as a, “closed rather than an open discourse format.” (p.152) since it reduces the learners’ participation just to one turn out of three (i.e. the second turn

or response) which is between the first starting turn (initiation) and the second evaluative turn (feedback or follow-up turn).

Van Lier (1996, p.153) summarized the various characteristics of IRF exchange as follows:

- It consists of three turns long. The first and the third turns are produced by the teacher, whereas the second turn is produced by the student.
- The teacher is responsible to start and end the exchange.
- The first turn of the teacher turn aimed at eliciting a verbal response from the learner. Teachers are the primary source of knowledge or at least have specific ideas in their minds about the suitable answer.
- The second teacher's turn. i.e. the third turn of the exchange is like a commenting on the student's turn.
- From the third turn, the student can understand whether or not the teacher is interested in the response, or in the form of the answer.
- The teacher is the leader; the learner is a follower.

The validity of IRF has been deeply criticized by many researchers as being more about the learner saying what the teacher wants to hear than really communicating. Nassaji and Wells (2000) have made a detailed presentation of different possibilities and configurations that may IRF offer the learning process. They concluded their study with that; the IRF exchange is not necessarily a useless exchange, it can be considered as effective when the third turn (the F turn) is regarded as open not evaluative (that is why they called the F Follow-up rather than Feedback).

1.2.3.1.2 The Contingent Interaction

The contingent interaction or the pedagogical conversation was defined by Rivera (2010) as a conversation that aims at constructing communicative regularity. Namely, the main objective of the contingent interaction was developing the students' communication skills.

According to Vygotsky (1986), the sentences generated by learners during classroom interaction are the result of motives such as needs or desires which lead to questions to know, bewilderment to explanation or request. Since the motives of the learners change constantly, the oral speech will be unconsciously determined accordingly. Significantly, the contingent interaction pushes the learners to be active participants in classroom discussions to develop themselves and overcome difficulties of L2.

Van Lier (1996) gave vital implications for developing foreign language (FL) learning and proficiency, one of them is that the learner's amount of exchange is higher and richer than IRF one; it constitutes 50% of the turns. That is to say, learners may have better opportunities to communicate in the TL. Appropriately, the teacher's dominance starting and expanding the discussion is over. Even the learner has the chance to initiate the discussion and develop it the way he wants to build his own talk. Consequently, the exchange becomes more authentic since the interlocutors share real information and the teacher is not evaluating the student's contribution but commenting on it and giving the learners chances to express themselves spontaneously and freely.

1.2.3.2 Student-Student Interaction

Many researchers have stressed that student–student interaction is the core of EFL learning. This kind of interaction occurs either between student to student or students to students. Student-student dynamics can be very helpful in learning (Rivera, 2010). That is, when a group is cohesive,

its members can achieve success, and often more than any student can accomplish alone. Moreover, various ways in which learners can interact meaningfully have become favored in the classroom setting (Rivera, 2010). Student-student interaction has two main forms. The first of these is called pair work; it takes place between two students. In this type of interaction, students are assigned to finish a work with one of their peers. The teacher plays the role of ‘consultant’ or adviser but he can interfere whenever needed. The second form is the one which includes many students; it is called group work. Similar to pair work, the teacher’s function is the same. Those two forms of interaction are particularly essential in order to encourage interaction among learners (Dagarin, 2004). That is to say, student-student interaction is considered as a powerful incentive for learners to develop and polish their skills when they engage in conversations with their classmates. The research that is made by Long et al (as cited in Dagarin, 2004) has shown that students perform better when they work in pair and group work than the other forms of interaction. In other words, when students engage in an activity pairing with other peers, they can feel comfortable and at ease.

Scrivener (2005, p.85) has proposed a Figure to exhibit student-student interaction:

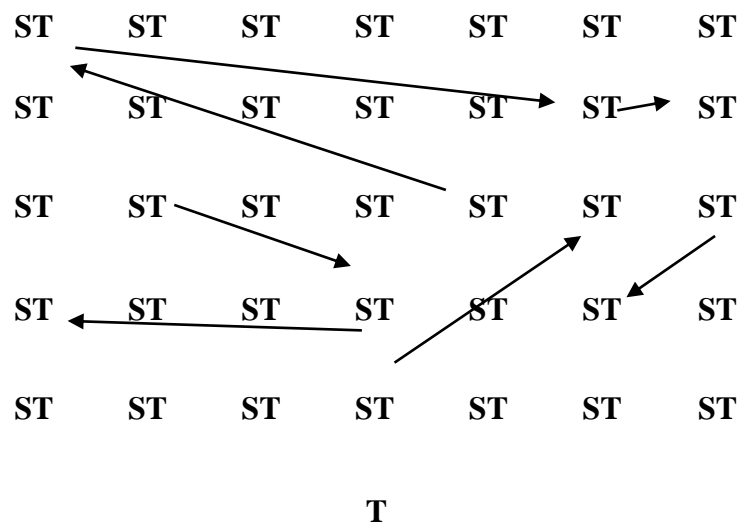


Figure 04: Student-Student Interaction

In this Figure, Scrivener describes how student-student interaction takes place within the classroom setting either among student to student or students to students. Ellis (2003) stated that when the pupils use the L2 when communicating in pairs or in group works and when they decide what to say and how to say at the moment of speaking, this results in an automatic use of language. This is considered as one feature of a good level of proficiency.

1.2.4. The Impact of Classroom Interaction on English Language learning

Classroom interaction is an excellent way for English language learners to enhance their language competencies. To that end, teachers use different classroom management strategies that may set an environment that affect the interactions between teachers and their pupils, in either a positive or negative manner. Many studies stated that sometimes teachers engage in behaviours which contribute to positive social interaction with pupils. Therefore, perhaps general classroom management strategies do not really provide the appropriate setting and environment that promote the interactions between teachers and pupils (Jack et al, 1996)

Kumpulainen and Wray (2002) said that classroom interaction especially in second language learning, need at least two learners who work in cooperation to accomplish the communicating process, the learners should share some semiotic rules. Interaction then is a learning process in general and language skills development in particular (Kumpulainen & Wray, 2002).

Many researchers proved that keeping silent in the classroom without being active may affect the acquisition of the foreign language, classroom interaction gives learners who lack the ability to interact and communicate with their teachers and mates using the foreign language the opportunity to use and practice the language in real situations (Kumpulainen & Wray, 2002).

Classroom interaction then is critical to teaching and learning, class discussion and interaction are used by the instructors in order to create a more interactive classroom.

Section Three: Overview of Rewards

1.3.1. Definition of Rewards

For centuries, rewards are used by educators, parents and tutors as a means of encouragement of individuals for their effort, performance and good behaviour. Whereas at the end of the seventeenth and the beginning of the eighteenth of the last century, researchers in educational psychology focused more and more on rewards and their effects on learners' performance, thus rewards become a problematic issue in the field of educational psychology (Cameron & Pierce, 2002).

Bilouk (2015) defined a reward as:

“an external incentive for encouraging the engagement in an activity or a task.

Rewards can be; monetary, symbolic, or as a verbal or nonverbal feedback. It is a reward that holds the transmission of regulating knowledge to the individual”

Additionally, Ryan and Deci (2000) defined rewards as “factor that influences learners' sense of competence, autonomy and relatedness positively nurtures intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation, on the other hand, is thwarted by factors that affect the perception of the psychological needs of competence, autonomy and relatedness negatively”.

Fareri and colleagues called reward-seeking an impetus; a motivating force of everyday human behaviour. They pointed out that whereas behaviour early in life is motivated by immediate rewards that satisfy primary needs such as food, later in life more value is placed on long-term rewards such as a successful career (Fareri, Martin, & Delgado, 2008).

Others called rewards the crux of goal directed behaviour and concluded that rewards are not only at the centre of neuro-scientific research but also are essential to a large number of other disciplines focused on human behaviour, such as psychology, education, and economics.

1.3.2. Types of Rewards

1.3.2.1. Controlling Rewards

Controlling rewards are used to control, command, and monitor one's behaviour. Leaders of the cognitive evaluation theory (CET) believe that extrinsic rewards have a remarkable effectiveness on one's behaviour, performance and motivation. However, CET leaders wanted to raise the awareness about the negative outcomes from using external rewards, therefore, they concluded that rewards cause a diminution in intrinsic motivation influenced by a shift in self-determination from internal to external. Hence, the employment of ER's controlling feature undermines autonomy; this latter consequently decreases intrinsic motivation's level (Deci & Ryan, 2002). However, this point of view has been opposed. James E. Zull (2002), for instance, argued that controlling rewards influence learners positively if they are aimed at the right target, the negative influences, appear because of the misuse of ER Without any relation to the internal life of learning.

So, teachers' duty is to have a deeper understanding of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, self-determination, and also different types of rewards and their expected influences on learning. They have to carefully use extrinsic rewards to control the learning outcomes and enhance learners' performance.

1.3.2.2. Informational Reward

Informational reward tells learners about their impact on the environment, in his research Koestner, Zuckerman, & Koestner (1987), revealed the connection between rewards and intrinsic motivation. Koestner employed different classroom management and different task types; in the first task, he used hidden figures under a test-like condition, the second one was a hidden figures task under a game-like condition. The rewards Koestner bestowed for learners' performance were

verbal rewards, either ability-focused reward, effort-focused reward, or no reward, he concluded that learners under the game-like condition were more intrinsically motivated than those under the test-like condition. Moreover, those who obtained the ability-focused prize rewards displayed higher intrinsic motivation than those receiving effort-focused prize or no prizes at all (Koestner et al, 1987).

Therefore, the informational feature of rewards is more effective on increasing intrinsic motivation than the comparative feature. However, the way informational rewards are used, and how learners receive and interpret them influence their behaviour and performance.

1.3.2.3. Verbal Rewards

In their research “*Extrinsic Rewards and Intrinsic Motivation in Education: Reconsidered Once Again*” Deci, Koestner, & Ryan (2001) mentioned that:

Although we do not usually use the term verbal rewards, preferring instead to speak of "positive feedback," we do use that term here in order to include the positive-feedback studies within the general category of reward effects. Verbal rewards typically contain explicit positive performance feedback, so CET predicts that they are likely to enhance perceived competence and thus enhance intrinsic motivation.

Put it differently, Verbal rewards may have a controlling feature which induces people to engage and participate in behaviours for the sake of gaining prizes. So verbal rewards may undermine intrinsic motivation (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 2001), for that reason CET suggested that the interpersonal context or environment where the verbal rewards (or positive feedback) are used, can be considered as informational on controlling. Deci, Ryan and Koestner said that the

context within which positive feedback is administered referred to the social settings like classrooms, since it influences learners' motivation and self-determination (Deci et al, 2001)

Researchers in the field consider the interpersonal context within which verbal rewards are administered as controlling because people feel that they are compelled by it to think, and behave in particular way so verbal rewards in such a context are considered controlling rather than informational (Ryan & Deci, 1985), CET for instance seen that if a teacher manage in interpersonal context for his/her students to do. The verbal rewards, used by the teacher are tend to be experienced as controlling.

1.3.2.4. Tangible Rewards

Unlike verbal rewards, tangible rewards are generally used to encourage people to engage in a desired behaviour, which they might not engage in if they are not rewarded. Therefore, cognitive evaluation theory suggested that tangible rewards will decrease intrinsic motivation, because of the tendency to use them as controlling. However, people may engage in a behaviour for the sake of the reward itself, they may need to expect that the behaviour leads to the reward.

Moreover, and to avoid doing a task for the sake of rewards, and as a result decreasing intrinsic motivation, it is better to use unexpected rewards to prize for doing a task because unexpected rewards lead to promote intrinsic motivation. However, expected tangible rewards can be managed through different contingences; they can be awarded in condition of the appearance of some kind of behaviours when people do a task.

Deci et al (2001) specified three types of reward contingencies. The first type is 'task-non contingent rewards'; they are simply granted for participation in a task and do not require a full engagement in the activity in itself. Then, the second type is 'task-contingent rewards' in which

doing and completing the activity is necessary. The last type is ‘performance-contingent rewards’ and they require excellency when doing an activity.

1.3.3. The Importance of Rewards

Educational psychology researchers stated the importance of rewards and the prospect of rewards, concurring that they represent the ultimate factors that motivate a behaviour and the key to controlling learning, actions, behaviour and decisions (Leenders, Chevelley, Missimer, & König, 2001).

In neuroscience, rewards are generally considered to be positive reinforcers that promote learning, effect behaviour as well as are associated with pleasant feelings; Schultz (2007) on his side said that,

“rewards are any objects, events, situations or activates that attain positive motivational properties from internal brain processes. Rewards increase the probability and intensity of behavioural actions leading to such objects (learning, also called positive reinforcement), generate approach and consummatory behaviour and constitute outcomes of economic decision-making, and induce subjective feelings of pleasure and hedonia”.
(Shultz, 2007)

It means that the general public perception always associate rewards, which the regulator of behaviour, with pleasant feelings, happiness and satisfaction, while researchers’ perspective of rewards comprises a wider range of functions related with learning theories, and economic decision-making.

Schultz (2007) further mentioned the crucial importance of primary rewards which are used with survival processes such as food and water, and of higher order rewards such as money; and

for cognitive and social rewards for other aspects of behaviour. He concluded that some brain processes are stimulated by primary and higher order rewards.

Dragana Jovanovic and Marina Matejevicb (2014) stated that rewards do not hold any negative effect, instead, there exists a strong relationship between task-oriented motivation and external incentives. Consequently, it is fair to say that rewards are intended to promote our freedom rather than limiting it.

1.3.4. The Effect of Rewards (Reinforcers) on Learning

During the last 50 years, researchers found that rewards have different effects on education, the most powerful impact is by stimulating intrinsic motivation, which in turns, produces many behavioural aspects that promote school success, like more interest in tasks, risk taking and conquering of new challenges (Adelman & Taylor, 1990).

Harter (1983) mentioned that, in learning, rewards have the effect of making children suffering from learning disabilities actually perform better than the expectation made by psychological tests.

Others, however, argued that external rewards have a negative effect in school. Namely, rewards do not promote or enhance learning, rather they are harmful, because the use of rewards do not stimulate learners to do a task, but impulses them to get the reward.

Kohne (1993) considered punishment and rewards to be two sides of the same coin as they are both penalising. They have the effect of controlling the behaviour in the sense that the latter is conditioned by the promised reward. As if we are threatening a child that he will get nothing unless he does the task correctly.

Moreover, punishment and reward could not make changes in learners' attitudes or effect their behavioural performance, but they can change what learners do, in other words learners will go back to their old behaviours if the rewarding system stops.

Kohn further argued that rewards kill creativity (Bilouk, 2015). Rewards can decrease learners' interest in tasks, they have been shown to have undermining effects on learning in general. Moreover, rewards lead to more errors in learning.

In a study done by Maehar and Stalling in 1972, it was found that learners consistently chose easier tasks to complete, if they are rewarded by the teacher, so the behaviours performed in this case are not the desirable ones, of the intrinsically motivated learners (Maehr & Stalling, 1972)

Rewards was usually used with children who have learning disabilities or mild handicaps, in addition to special education classrooms, however the system of using rewards was proven ineffective.

Many researches have proven that the rewards used in schools have a negative effect on the learners' performance, greetings cards and stickers for instance were common in schools, however they lead to less learning, more errors, undermining the creativity of learners and repulsion, less attraction and motivation of some tasks that former were highly motivating (Master & Mokros, 1973)

It has been also proven that even with people who have learning disabilities, or with special education classrooms, negative effects of rewards appeared. But there were some studies in human behaviours that examined the effects of extrinsic rewards on motor behaviours and learning; those behavioural studies supported those approaches acknowledging the positive effect of rewards on learning. Wulf and Lewthwaite (2016), on this side, stated the work of Abe and his colleagues found that punishing learners for low performance in a specific task resulted in less effective

learning than rewarding another group of learners to do the same task. However, both groups showed the same performance outside the experiment.

1.3.5. The Impact of Rewards (Reinforcers) on Learners' Engagement

Goslin (2003) in his book (*Engaging Minds*) stressed the core value of punishment and rewards in rising motivation to learn. Different types of rewards have been used for engagement in learning, with particular learning tasks, some rewards seem to be intrinsic, those tasks are known as being interesting and challenging. Moreover, some particular learning tasks can easily stimulate learners' feeling of satisfaction and accomplishment which made the engagement in those tasks a rewarding experience (Goslin, 2003).

The other types of rewards are extrinsic to the learning task; they can be monetary rewards, grades, or additional marks granted by the teacher in school, or even praise from a parent. In many learning tasks, learners can be bestowed both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards for their engagement (Goslin, 2003). The effectiveness of rewards on learners' engagement in learning tasks differs according to their types, for example a learner experiences an immediate feeling of gratification if he/she is given a praise from a teacher or just an intrinsic enjoyment from within.

However, other rewards such as admission to college or employment in a good job, have no immediate effect on learners' engagement but only distantly related to the learning task. Gosling (2003), also mentioned that parents unconsciously do plenty of things parents unconsciously do to either motivate their children to perform better or to acquire new skills and to strengthen some behaviours depend on the characteristics of human beings. Rewards are used in just about every learning environment such as schools, universities, music and acting lessons.

1.3.6. The Impact of Rewards on Motivating Learners to Interact

One of the most effective strategies to stimulate learners to interact in the classroom is by using rewards. “A reward is an incentive that induces learners’ engagement in a particular task. It can take many forms: monetary, symbolic reward, or feedback” (Burton, Ray, & Mehta, 2003).

Before bestowing any kind of rewards, it is so important to know how learners perceive such external motivator, in order to reach the desirable behavioural outcomes. Therefore, the way rewards are offered to engage learners in classroom interactions, determines its positive or negative effects.

Even if rewards as external incentives have been used for long time ago, researchers still argue about their effectiveness and appropriate use, some believe that external rewards have a detrimental effect on intrinsic motivation of the learner, for instance if a learner is bestowed a prize for his/her participation in a classroom interaction, this learner is less likely to engage in the same task when no prize is offered (Goslin, 2003). He also argued that extrinsic rewards have an effect on the learning process and when we say learning we also refer to interaction which is a part of the learning process (Goslin, 2003)

Conclusion

We have seen in this three-section chapter the variables of our research hypothesis which are: motivation, rewards and classroom interaction. Firstly, we have dealt with motivation, its importance, and some of the numerous theories which addressed that motif. The second section displayed classroom interaction. We talked about its role in teaching and learning, then we numerated its types and we finished with its impact, along with rewards, on second language learning. After that, we demonstrated the types and importance of rewards, in addition to their impact on learning and learners' engagement

Chapter Two: Data Analyses and Interpretations

Introduction

The present research is an assumption to investigate the learners' attitude towards using rewards to enhance their motivation during classroom interaction. Bearing in mind that learners, along with teachers, are the most important animators of the learning/ teaching process and their views and attitudes play a major role in the development of this process.

This chapter describes the method and the procedures we used in order to collect data and it presents our research general findings. Furthermore, it highlights the descriptions, administrations, analysis, and discussions of the delivered questionnaire.

2.1. The Choice of the Method

In this research, we used a descriptive method for data collection since it is the most suitable to describe the behaviors and attitudes of our sample population. Furthermore, it aims at making a correlation between rewards and motivation. We opted for the use of a questionnaire administered to learners as the suitable means to carry out our study. Interestingly, the questionnaire aims at eliciting the attitudes of learners about the role of rewards in triggering off their motivation. Walliman (2001) stressed that the method of asking questions is used for the purpose of collecting both; qualitative and quantitative information required from the participants. Relying on a questionnaire as a means of collecting data helps the researcher to formulate questions and obtain replies without the need to talk to any respondent.

2.2. The Questionnaire

2.2.1 The Sample

The population chosen for our study covered a total of 192 second year middle school pupils at Bouhannech Lakhdar Middle School, Tassift for the school year 2018-2019. The whole

population was divided into six mixed abilities classes from which, we have randomly selected two classes; that is to say, equivalent to 61 pupils or 31 % of the population. In this study, we did not focus on the factor of gender but just on the total number of participants in general. The choice of this level was due to the fact that public school pupils still find English as an attractive subject at this age; knowing that it is only their second year as EFL learners. However, the level of interaction inside the classroom is higher than with first year pupils because most of them have already mastered some of the basics that enable them to communicate in English.

2.2.2 Description of the Questionnaire

The student's questionnaire consists of 20 (twenty) multiple choice and open-ended questions divided into three sections. Since they were anonymous, the pupils shared the targeted information very easily and in a limited period of time

The questions were divided into three major sections:

Section One: Background Knowledge About the Participants (Q1-Q6)

The first set of questions aimed at knowing the pupils' inclination toward the goal orientations. That is to say, to know the different goals the participants seem to adopt. Importantly, Q1 is about the main goal behind learning, whereas, Q2 asks about the pupils' tendency towards playing a prominent role in the class and being the center of interest of both their peers and teachers. Q3 represents the second part of the previous question, through which pupils who chose a negative reply will justify their statements by choosing a given reason or providing their own. Additionally, Q4 seeks to know whether there is a change in the pupils' behavior when they see their colleagues participate during a lesson. Moreover, Q5 inquires the effect of getting an average mark on the pupils' drives for perseverance while Q6 is to check the ambition of the pupils; that is, whether the mark got is satisfactory as long as it is above the average.

Section Two: Pupils' Attitudes Towards Classroom Interaction (Q7-Q11)

This section is made up of 5 (five) multiple choice questions on classroom interaction. Q7 is meant to ask the pupils and particularly work-avoidant ones how frequently they take the risk to answer tough questions. Q8 investigates how often the pupils become hesitant to answer questions when they fail to answer the first one. In addition, Q9 seeks information about the frequency of not taking the initiative to answer questions. The aim of Q10 asks if the pupils choose to interact with their teacher and peers or just to keep a low profile. Q11 tries to determine to what extent the pupils avoid interacting and participating during a lesson because of their fear of mistakes and negative feedback.

Section three: The Student's Attitudes Towards Rewards and Motivation (Q12-Q20)

The third section of the questionnaire deals with rewards and how effective they are in enhancing motivation from the perspective of pupils. Q12 to 14 are about the reaction of pupils from rewards. Similarly, Q15 enquires how often rewards push pupils to participate more in classroom discussions. In addition, Q16 explores whether studying becomes easier when it is supported with rewards, while Q17 is about the pupils' opinion concerning the effectiveness of rewards on putting more efforts in learning. Pupils in Q18 are asked to describe their feeling when they are excluded from classroom discussions. Likewise, Q19 enquires the impact of getting a reward on the pupils' self-esteem. And finally, Q20 asks about the feeling of the pupils if the teacher calls them geniuses.

2.2.3. Administration of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was delivered to two classes of middle school pupils on 13 May 2019 during regular classes. Before administering the questionnaire, we translated it into Arabic relying on our personal efforts. A whole hour was dedicated to explain and simplify the questions of the

questionnaire taking into account the student's freshness to English. Some of the answered copies were returned immediately after the pupils finished them while the rest were recovered at the end of the session. the questionnaire was administered in a pleasurable atmosphere only after reassuring the pupils that it is not a test of any sort and that their names are not required. Therefore, this resulted in having effective answers from the pupils.

2.2.4. Analysis of the Questionnaire

Section One: Background Knowledge About the Participants

Q 01: Why do you think you are studying?

Table 1

The Reason for Studying

Options	Number	Percentage
a) To please your parents	02	3.27
b) To achieve your goals	47	77.04
c) To meet friends	01	1.63
d) Because all people do	0	0
a + b	09	14.75
b + d	02	3.27
Total	61	100

In this table, we notice that the majority of pupils questioned (77.04 %) affirmed that their aim of studying is to achieve their goals in life, while (14.75%) added another aim from studying which is "to please their parents". However, only one pupil (1.63 %) chose the third choice which is to meet friends. Pupils gave other reasons of why they are studying, they vary from getting a

good job, and working for the development of the country to making their dreams true and traveling to many places, or just to find a pretext to escape home.

Q 02: Do you like to be the centre of your classmates' and teacher's attention?

Table 2

The Pupils' Position on Attracting Attention in the Classroom

Options	Number	Percentage
a) Yes	48	78.68
b) No	13	21.31
Total	61	100

From the obtained results, we affirm that the majority of pupils (78.68%) like to be the centre of attention in the classroom, while (21.31%) do not.

Q 03: If yes, why?

Table 3

The Reason for Attracting Attention

Options	Number	Percentage
a) You like to be always the best	09	18.75
b) That's motivate you to work harder	16	33.33
c) You gain more self-confidence	22	45.83
a + c	01	2.08
Total	48	100

In this table, we wanted to know the reasons behind the majority of pupils' choice in Q2, we noticed that (45.83%) affirmed that being the centre of attention gave more self-confidence whereas, (33.33%) argued that it is a motivation for working harder, and (18.75%) of pupils went for the first choice which is to be always the best. Also, only (2.08%) provided the choices a + b, but some pupils added other reasons like being smart and loved.

Q 04: Do you get annoyed when your teacher praises your classmates instead?

Table 4

The Pupils' Behaviour When Their Peers are Praised Instead

Options	Number	Percentage
a) Yes	14	22.95
b) No	47	77.04
Total	61	100

What is shown in this table is that a great deal of pupils (77.04%) do not care if their teacher praises another classmate instead of them, whereas (22.95%) feel annoyed if they are not praised.

Q 05: When you get an average mark in the exam, do you try to work harder?

Table 5

The Impact of Getting the Average on the Pupils' Performance

Options	Number	Percentage
a) Yes	56	91.80
b) No	05	08.19
Total	61	100

As this table shows, almost all the pupils (91.80%) confirmed that if they get an average mark in the exam, they try to do their best and work harder in the future, whereas the rest (8.19%) decided not to work harder even if they got an average mark.

Q 06: If no, is it because getting the average is sufficient for you?

Table 6

The Sufficiency of the Average Mark

Options	Number	Percentage
a) Yes	02	40
b) No	03	60
Total	05	100

As it is shown in the obtained results, two of the five pupils who said "No" in "Q 05" justified their choice by affirming that an average mark is sufficient for them, while the other three pupils also said "No" for the proposition we gave in Q 6 i.e. they have other reasons for not working harder in order to get a better mark.

Section Two: The Pupils' Attitudes Towards Classroom Interaction (Q7-Q11)

Q 07: Do you take the risk of answering difficult questions, even if you are uncertain about the answer?

Table 7

The Frequency of Pupils' Risk Taking

Options	Number	Percentage
a) Always	14	22.95
b) Often	12	19.67
c) Sometimes	18	29.50
d) Rarely	07	11.47
e) Never	10	16.39
Total	61	100

In this table, we noticed that the proportions obtained are approximately the same; (29.50%) of the pupils sometimes take the risk of answering difficult questions, even if they are not sure the answer is true. Also, (22.95%) of them always do, and (19.67%) said often, but the noticeable result is that (16.39%) of pupils never tried to answer difficult question. In addition, (11.47%) said that they rarely answer such questions, which may cause difficulties for both pupils and teachers during the process of learning and teaching.

Q 08: When your answer of a question is wrong, do you hesitate to answer another one?

Table 8

The Effect of Wrong Answers on the Pupils' Self-Esteem

Options	Number	Percentage
a) Always	03	04.91
b) Often	03	04.91
c) Sometimes	12	19.67
d) Rarely	07	11.47
e) Never	36	59.01
Total	61	100

The results mentioned in the above table indicate that more than half of the pupils questioned (59.01%) never hesitate to answer other questions when their first response is wrong i.e., they do not give up if they fail to answer a question, contrarily they keep trying with other questions. While (19.67%) said that they sometimes hesitate to have another try, (11.47%) confirmed that they rarely care about their failure to answer a question and stop trying to answer other questions. However, three pupils (4.91%) said that they always hesitate to answer more questions after making mistakes.

Q 09: Do you venture an answer when the teacher asks you?

Table 9

The Frequency of Initiating Interaction

Options	Number	Percentage
a) Always	16	26.22
b) Often	04	6.55
c) Sometimes	10	16.39
d) Rarely	08	13.11
e) Never	23	37.70
Total	61	100

We noticed in this table that many pupils (37.70%) affirmed that they never wait for their teacher to point them to answer questions, whereas (26.22%) always do not answer any question unless the teacher point them. Other pupils (16.39%) asserted that they sometimes do not take the initiative to answer their teacher's questions, while (6.55%) said they often do not do so. Also, (13.11%) argued that they rarely answer teacher's questions if he/she does not point them in particular.

Q 10 : Do you interact with the teacher and classmates when the floor is open for discussion?

Table 10

The Frequency of the Pupils' Participation in Classroom Interaction

Options	Number	Percentage
a) Always	35	57.37
b) Often	05	08.19
c) Sometimes	10	16.39
d) Rarely	04	6.55
e) Never	07	11.47
Total	61	100

The present question intended to gain information about pupils' attitudes towards classroom interaction. The results obtained demonstrated that (57.37%) of pupils always interact and participate in classroom discussions with their classmate and teachers, while (16.39%) asserted that they sometimes integrate in discussions. However, (11.47%) argued that they have never participated in classroom interactions, maybe because they lack self-confidence and need to be motivated. Some pupils said that they often participate, whereas four pupils (6.55%) mentioned that they rarely interact in the classroom.

Q 11: Does fear from committing mistakes prevent you from interacting or participating in the classroom?

Table 11

The Frequency of Work Avoidance Because of Self-Confidence Issues

Options	Number	Percentage
a) Always	06	9.83
b) Often	18	29.50
c) Sometimes	03	04.91
d) Rarely	05	08.19
e) Never	29	47.54
Total	61	100

The obtained results from Q11 revealed that almost half of the pupils (47.54%) affirmed that they have never avoided to interact and participate in classroom lest they make mistakes. Moreover, (29.50%) claimed that they often avoided interacting and participating in the classroom. Additionally, (9.83%) assert that they always do not interact in class because of their fear of making mistakes, the rest of pupils' answers varied; (8.19%) said rarely and (4.91%) said that their fear of making mistakes prevent them from participating and interacting in the classroom.

Section three: the students' attitudes towards rewards and motivation (Q12-Q20)**Q 12: Do you like to be praised in front of your classmates?**

Table 12

The Pupils' Perspective Towards Praise

Options	N	%
a) Yes	52	85.24
b) No	09	14.76
Total	61	100

The above table indicates that (85.24%) of pupils like to be praised in front of their classmates, whereas nine pupils (14.75%) argued that they do not like to be in such a situation. This leads us to say that maybe those pupils are timid or they just do not care about being praised or not.

Q 13: Do you feel more enthusiastic and motivated to participate in the class when your teacher praises you?

Table 13

The Impact of Praise on the Pupils' Motivation and Interaction

Options	Number	Percentage
a) Yes	57	93.44
b) No	04	6.56
Total	61	100

The pupils' responses in table 14 indicate that the majority of them (93.44%) have that feeling of enthusiasm and motivation to interact and participate in the classroom when their teacher praises them. So, this strongly proves that rewards positively affect pupil's motivation to participate in class. Nevertheless, four pupils (6.56%) see the opposite; they do not feel motivated when the teacher rewards them.

Q 14: Do you like to be rewarded for your good performance?

Table 14

The Pupils' Attitudes Towards Rewarding Good Performance

Options	Number	Percentage
a) Yes	51	83.60
b) No	10	16.39
Total	61	100

The results of this table support the results obtained from table 14; the majority of pupils (83.60%) wanted to be rewarded for their good performance. However, only (16.39%) prefer not to be rewarded at all.

Q 15: Does getting rewards from the teacher, whether stickers or additional marks in the exam, motivates you to participate more in discussions?

Table 15

The Effect of Extrinsic Motivators in Increasing Classroom Participation

Options	Number	Percentage
a) Always	33	54.09
b) Often	09	14.75
c) Sometimes	14	22.95
d) Rarely	04	6.55
e) Never	01	1.63
Total	61	100

In this table, the majority of pupils (54.09%) asserted that extrinsic rewards used by their teacher, increase their motivation, while (22.95%) of them affirmed that they sometimes feel motivated when their teacher rewards or praises them. In addition (14.75%) of them declared that extrinsic rewards often affect their motivation positively to participate in classroom discussions. Finally, (6.55%) of pupils argued that they rarely felt motivated after being rewarded, and one pupil said that he/she never feels motivated when rewarded.

Q 16: Does getting rewards from the teacher make studying seems easier?

Table 16

Rewards in Simplifying the Process of Learning

Options	Number	Percentage
a) Always	41	67.21
b) Often	11	18.03
c) Sometimes	05	8.19
d) Rarely	01	1.63
e) Never	03	4.91
Total	61	100

As shown in table 16, the majority of pupils (67.21%) asserted that the process of studying seems easier when they get rewarded. Additionally, (18.03%) of our sample favoured this notion by affirming that, often, studying becomes more easier due to the teacher's rewards, and (8.19%) said that only sometimes studying become easier. However, three pupils (4.91%) argued that studying has never become easier even with the reinforcers used by their teacher. Thus, it became clear that they maybe have some learning disabilities. Finally, only one pupil (1.91%) claimed that rewards rarely made studying easier.

Q 17: Do you think that being praised, encourages you to make extra efforts?

Table 17

The Significance of Praise in Increasing Performance

Options	Number	Percentage
a) Yes	54	88.52
b) No	07	11.47
Total	61	100

In this table, we have the results of a question about the pupils' attitudes towards rewards and praise. The pupils' responses revealed that (88.52%) of them get encouraged and motivated to make more effort when they are rewarded. On the other hand, (11.47%) of them argued that rewards do not motivate them to interact and participate in the classroom.

Q 18: Do you feel disappointed when your teacher does not thank you when you participate in the classroom?

Table 18

The Pupils' Disappointment When They are not Rewarded

Options	Number	Percentage
a) Always	05	8.19
b) Often	03	04.91
c) Sometimes	20	32.78
d) Rarely	13	21.31
e) Never	20	32.78
Total	61	100

What we can get from the above table is that a great deal of pupils does not mind if their teacher does not thank them when they participate in the classroom. We have two equal attributions: (32.78%) confirmed that they sometimes feel disappointed, and the same amount said that they sometimes feel so. Other pupils (21.31%) argued that they rarely feel disappointed if they are not rewarded. However, five pupils (8.19%) affirmed that they always feel annoyed if their teacher does not grant them rewards when they participate in the classroom. Moreover, three pupils (04.91%) argued that they often feel disappointed if they are not rewarded for their participation in classroom interactions.

Q 19: Do you feel more self-confident when your work is rewarded by your teacher?

Table 19

The Frequency of Rewards Increasing Self-confidence

Options	Number	Percentage
a) Always	45	73.77
b) Often	06	9.83
c) Sometimes	05	08.19
d) Rarely	00	00
e) Never	05	08.19
Total	61	100

From the attained results, we can say that the greater part of pupils (73.77%) confirmed that they always feel more self-confident when the teacher praises them, while (9.83%) said that they often feel more self-confident when they are rewarded. Also, five pupils (8.19%) argued that

they never feel more self-confident as a consequence of their teacher's prize, while other five pupils said that sometimes their teacher's prizes raised their self-confidence.

Q 20: If your teacher characterizes you as genius, how would you feel?

Table 20

The Feeling of the Learners After Receiving a Verbal Reward

Options	Number	Percentage
a) Motivated	14	22.95
b) You are the best	05	8.19
c) Self-confident	35	57.37
d) That you are a real genius	04	6.55
a + c	01	01.63
a + c + d	01	01.63
b + d	01	01.63
Total	61	100

The result obtained from this table denotes that pupils would be positively affected by their teacher's praise or compliments. That is, if he/she characterises the pupils as geniuses, (57.37%) would feel self-confident, while (22.95%) of them would feel motivated, (8.19%) would feel that they are the best elements and (6.55%) would believe that they are real geniuses. Three pupils (03) made multiple choices.

2.3. Discussions of the Results

After analysing the results yielded by the pupils' questionnaires, the results of this research will be discussed in relation to the following main research questions:

- 1) What are the learners' attitudes towards using rewards to enhance their motivation during classroom interaction?
- 2) How can rewards motivate learners to become active participants in classroom interaction?

2.3.1. The Pupils' Reaction to Rewards as a Pedagogical Means to increase their Motivation

The current study conducted in Bouhannèche Lakhdar middle school and through which we wanted to highlight the learners' perspective concerning the use of extrinsic reinforcers in order to motivate them to participate more in classroom interaction using English. Interestingly, the results obtained from the questionnaire indicated that the pupils feel more enthusiastic and believe that any reinforcers used by the teacher whether extrinsic or intrinsic rewards, encouraged them to exert serious efforts. Also, they affirmed that rewards have the power of reducing difficulties in learning and making it easier. Additionally, a low proportion of pupils do not mind if they are not rewarded in the classroom, because rewards are not their aim from studying. To put it differently, it has no negative effect on their performance in the classroom. This statement is barely distinguishable from that of Herzberg et al (1959) who asserted that the presence or absence of extrinsic factors (Hygiene Factors) such as rewards doesn't necessarily cause demotivation or dissatisfaction but a state in between called *no satisfaction*. On the other hand, almost all of them assert that they like to be rewarded and that rewards raise their motivation to interact and participate more in the classroom, especially if it is for their well performance. Also, they show a tendency not to care about getting no rewards for their good performance when participating in classroom interactions.

This change in the pupils' behaviour lends support to Arnold and Brown's (1999) view that tangible rewards should be temporary, and should be dispensed with when they are no more required because internal rewards triumph.

The majority of the pupils have to some extent a high intrinsic motivation, and thus self-determination. They affirmed that they take the initiative to interact and participate in the classroom. They argued that they will never give up and that they will keep trying and working to enhance their levels.

Furthermore, some pupils have a tendency towards risk taking. The latter was defined by Bern (1971), as, "a behaviour that someone is willing to make something new and different regardless of paying their attention to success or failure primarily" (cited in Lin & Wang, 2015, p. 113-114). They answer difficult questions even if they are not sure about the correctness of the answer; if their answer is wrong, they do not hesitate to have another try i.e. they have no fear of making mistakes. Moreover, they engage in classroom interaction and participate in open discussions whether with their teacher or classmates.

2.3.2. The Effect of Rewards in Motivating Learners to Become Active Participants

The findings of the questionnaire show that rewards have a salient impact on the pupils' participation in classroom activities and discussion; in the sense that they have the effect of reinforcing the pupils' self-confidence and integrating them within the group works. In addition, physical and abstract rewards have been confirmed to be of capital importance for the learning process.

Conclusion

To conclude, the attained results of this research work have proved that reliance on the use of either physical or abstract rewards positively affect the pupils' motivation since they give the pupils a reason to work harder when they recognize how valuable was their contribution to the lesson. Furthermore, rewards have the effect of enhancing the pupils' self-confidence and help them to participate more and become risk takers rather than work-avoidants.

From the results obtained after analyzing the questionnaire, we can affirm that the learners are aware about the efficiency of rewards in enhancing their motivation. They affirm also that the teacher's role during classroom interaction monitoring, guiding and rewarding behaviors and performances is essential in the teaching-learning process.

Limitations of the Study

Our study lasted for almost two days for the sake of collecting data from our samples and to have an overview about how learners deal with tangible rewards and how rewards affect their motivation. However, the time allocated to the conduction of this research was not sufficient to have a better understanding of the effect of rewards in increasing motivation.

The descriptive method used in this study is considered as another limitation since the data collected from the questionnaires are not sufficient to assert how efficient are the rewards. Also, the results cannot be considered as totally reliable because we cannot assert that they reflect what the pupils truly believe, putting into consideration that some of the pupils did not take the task assigned as serious as they should while others just completed it because they were told so.

Another limitation of this study is that it focused on only one level which second year. Thus, the findings cannot be overgeneralized on the other levels.

Recommendations for Further Research

This part suggests the need for further research. Thus, starting from the findings of our research then the limitations noted, we recommend a longitudinal study accompanied by classroom observation in order to witness the real change in the learners' behaviour after getting used to the technique of reward.

In the future, it might be more suitable to try a different method such as an experimental design and an analytical method in order to get precise data about the effect of rewards on enhancing motivation. In other words, a pre-test and a post-test are required at that stage.

We also recommend a comprehensive study that encompasses different learning levels including middle school, high school, and university to have a better understanding on how rewards affect motivation on a wide range taking into account both the learning levels and the age groups.

General Conclusion

Motivating the students has always been the overriding concern of many researchers in the field of EFL. Therefore, teachers started adapting various methods and strategies for the purpose of motivating the students and giving them the chance to be actively involved in classroom interaction. One way to address this situation safely, is by granting rewards since they represent a goad for the students to get rid of shyness and hesitation and participate more.

The present research is divided into two main parts. The first chapter is devoted to the review of the related literature, it is made up of two sections. The first section attempted to shed the light on the concept of motivation, its definition, importance and theories, then the second section dealt with an overview about rewards and classroom interaction and the nature of relationship the binds them together. The second chapter, on the other hand, is devoted to the practical part. It explored the means of research, the sample, the description of the questionnaire used, its analysis, data discussion, and a conclusion to the chapter.

All in all, the findings of this research work revealed that the learners positively reacted to the method of using rewards and that the latter were agreed upon as an effective in boosting their motivation and urge them to work harder and take part in classroom interaction. Also, the pupils believed that the rewards granted to them seem to have the ability of reducing difficulties in learning, making them feel more enthusiastic and more motivated to effectively take part of classroom discussions; that is to say, rewards help the pupils to develop a tendency to become active participants and risk-takers as a result of the increasing self-confidence. This leads to say that the hypothesis set forth at the outset of the present study has been confirmed.

References

- Van Eerde, W., & Thierry, H. (1996). Vroom's Expectancy Models and Work-Related Criteria: A Meta-Analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81*(5), 575-586.
- Adelman, H. S., & Taylor, L. (1990). Intrinsic Motivation And School Misbehavior: Some Intervention Implications. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, pp.* 541-550.
- Bandura, A. (1989). Human Agency in Social Cognitive Theory. *American Psychologist, 44*(9), 1175-1184.
- Bandura, A. (1994). Self-Efficacy. *Encyclopedia of Human, 4*, 71-81.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The Exercise Of Control*. New York : W.H. Freeman.
- Bandura, A. (2001). Social Cognitive Theory of Mass Communication. *MEDIAPSYCHOLOGY, 3*, 265–299.
- Bauer, K. N., Surface, E. A., Ely, K., & Orvis, K. A. (2016). Vroom's Expectancy Models and Work-Related Criteria: A Meta analytically investigating the role type of motivation plays in the prediction of key training outcomes . *Journal of psychology, 3*(1), 33-50.
- berliner, D. C., & Calfee, R. C. (1996). *Handbook of Educational Psychology*. Routledge.
- Bilouk, I. (2015). The Impact of Extrinsic Reward on Learners' Performance and Motivation in Reading. *Revue Sciences Humaines, p.* 45.
- Burton, A. B., Ray, G. E., & Mehta, S. (2003). Children's Evaluations Peer Influence: The Role of Relationship Type and Social Situation. *Child Study Journal, pp.* 235-255.

- Carton, J. S. (1996). The Differential Effects of Tangible Rewards and Prais on Intrinsic Motivation: A Comparison of Cognitive Evaluation Theory and Operant Theory. *The Behaviour Analyst, 19*(2), 237-238.
- Chaudron, C. (1988). *Research on teaching and learning*. Cambridge Applied Linguistics: Cambridge University Press.
- Dagarin, M. (2004). Classroom Interaction And Communication Strategies In Learning English As A Foreign Language. *English Language Overseas Perspectives and Enquiries, 1*((1-2)), 127-139.
- Ellis, R. (1985). *Understanding Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Fareri, D. S., Martin, L. N., & Delgado, M. R. (2008). Reward-Related Processing in Human Brain: Developmental Consideration. *Development and Psychopathology*, pp. 1191–1211.
- Goslin, D. A. (2003). *Engaging Minds: Motivation and Learning in America's Schools*. New York: R& L Education.
- Hall, J. K., & Walsh, M. (2002). *Teacher-Student Interaction And Language Learning*. USA: Cambridge University Press.
- Harter, S. (1983). Developmental Prespectives on the Self-System in E.M. In P. H. Mussen, *Handbook of Child Psychology* (pp. 278-386). New York: Wiley.
- Hedge, T. (2000). *Teaching And Learning In The Language Classroom*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Herzberg, F., Mausnes, B., Peterson, R. O., & Capwell, D. F. (1959). *Job Attitudes: Review Of Research And Opinion*. Pittsburg: Psychological Service of Pittsburg.
- Içbay, A, M. (2008). *The Role of Classroom Interaction in The Construction of Classroom Order: A conversation analytic study (Published Doctoral Thesis in Philosophy)*. Middle East Technical University
- Jack, S. L., Shores, R. E., Denny, K. R., DeBrier, T., & DePaepe, P. (1996). An Analysis of the Relationship of Teachers' Reported Use of Classroom Management Strategies on Types of Classroom Interactions. *Journal of Behavioral Education*, p. 68.
- Jacobs, J. A., & Eccles, J. (2000). Parents, Task Values, and Real-Life Achievement-Related Choices. In S. C., *Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation: The Search for Optimal Motivation and Performance* (pp. 407-420). San Diego: Academic Press.
- Jovanovic, D., & Matejevic, M. (2014). Relationship between Rewards and Intrinsic Motivation for Learning. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, p. 460.
- Kalantari, R. (2009). Teaching for Classroom Interaction. *International Journal of Language studies*, 3(4), 425-434.
- Koestner, R., Zuckerman, M., & Koestner, J. (1987). Praise, Involvement, And Intrinsic Motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, pp. 383-390.
- Kohn, A. (1993). *Punished by Rewards: the Trouble with Gold Stars, Incentive Plans, A's, Praise and other Bribes*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Kumpulainen, K., & Wray, D. (2002). *Classroom Interaction and Social Learning: From Theory to Practice*. New York: Routledge Falmer.

- Leenders, K., Chevelley, A., Missimer, J., & König, G. (2001). Reward Mechanisms in the Brain and their Role in Dependence: Evidence from Neurophysiological and Neuroimaging Studies. *Brain Research Review*, pp. 130-140.
- Lepper, M. R., Corpus, J. H., & Iyengar, S. S. (2005). Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivational Orientations in the Classroom: *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 97, 2, 184.
- Lunenburg, F. C. (2011). Expectancy Theory of Motivation: Motivating by Altering Expectations. *INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF MANAGEMENT, BUSINESS, AND ADMINISTRATION*, 15(1).
- Mackey, A. (2007). *Conversational Interaction in Second Language Acquisition: A Collection of Empirical Studies*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Maehr, M. L., & Stalling, W. M. (1972). Freedom from External Evaluation. *Child Development*, pp. 177-185.
- Maslow, A. A. (2007). *Motivation and personality*. Harper & Row, Publishers 1954.
- Master, J. C., & Mokros, J. R. (1973). Effect of Incentive Magnitude upon Discriminative Learning and Choice Preference in Young Children. *Child Development*, pp. 225-231.
- McLeod, A. S. (2007). Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Retrieved from www.simplypsychology.org/maslow.html
- Motivation. (2019). In <https://www.lexico.com>. Retrieved from <https://www.lexico.com/en/definition/motivation>
- Nassaji, H., & Wells, G. (2000). What's the use of 'triadic dialogue'?: an investigation of teacher-student interaction. *Applied Linguistics*, DOI: 10.1093/applin/21.3.376.

- Nunan, D. (1991). *Language teaching methodology: A text book for teachers*. London: Prince Hall.
- Pérez-López, D., & Contero, M. (2013). Delivering Educational Multimedia Contents Through an Augmented Reality Application: A Case Study On Its Impact On Knowledge Acquisition And Retention. *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology - TOJET*, 12, 4, 19-28.
- Pintrich, P. R. (1999). The Role of Motivation in Promoting and Sustaining Self-Regulated Learning. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 31, 459-470.
- Rivera, J. H. (2010). Authentic Oral Interaction in the EFL Class: What it means, what it does not. *Profile Journal*, 12(1), 47-61.
- Ruthankoon, R., & Ogunlana, S. O. ((2003). Testing Herzberg's Two - Factor Theory in the Thai. *Engineering, Construction and Architectural Management*, 10(5), 333-341.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (1985). *Intrinsic Motivation And Self-Determination in Human Behavior*. New York: Plenum Press.
- Ryan, R. M. (2000, January). Self-Determination Theory and the Facilitation of Intrinsic Motivation, Social Development, and Well-Being. *American Psychologist*, pp. 68-78.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2017). *Self-determination theory: basic psychological needs in motivation, development, and wellness*. New York: Guilford Publishing.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2002). *The Handbook of Self-Determination Research*. New York: The University of Rochester Press.

- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations: Classic Definitions and New Directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology New Directions*, 25, 54–67.
Retrieved from <http://www.idealibrary.com>
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2016). Optimizing Students' Motivation in the Era of Testing and Pressure: A selfdetermination theory perspective. *Springer Singapore*, 9-29.
- Schermerhorn, J. R., Hunt, J. G., & Osborn, R. N. (2003). *Organizational Behavior* (7th edition ed.). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Scriven, J. (2005). *Learning teaching*. UK: Macmillan Education.
- Shultz, W. (2007). Reward. *Scholarpedia*, pp. 1-10.
- Sinclair, J. M., & Coulthard, M. (1975). *Towards an Analysis of Discourse : the English used by teachers and pupils*. London : Oxford University Press.
- Tohidi, H., & Jabbari, M. M. (2012). The effects of motivation in education. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral*, 31, 820-824.
- van Lier, L. (1996). *Interaction in the Language Curriculum: Awareness, Autonomy And Authenticity*. London: Longman.
- Vroom, V. (1964). *Work and Motivation*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Vygotsky, L. (1986). *Thought and Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Wang, Y., & Lin, Y. (2015). A Study on Correlation of Risk-Taking and the Oral Production of English Majors in China. *English Language Teaching*, 8(10), 113-114.
doi:10.5539/elt.v8n10p113

Zull, J. E. (2002, September). *The Art of Changing the Brain: Enriching the Practice of Teaching by Exploring the Biology of Learning*. Virginia: Stylus Publishing.

Appendices

Appendix A:

The Questionnaire (Arabic Version)

الاستبيان

يرجى وضع علامة X في الخانة المقابلة للإجابة

1/ لماذا تظن أنك تدرس؟

لإرضاء والديك

لتحقيق أهدافك

لالتقاء الأصدقاء

لأن الجميع يفعل ذلك

أسباب أخرى أذكرها

2/ هل يستهويك أن تكون مركز اهتمام الأستاذ والزملاء؟

نعم

لا

3/ إذا كانت الإجابة بنعم، لماذا؟

تحب أن تكون الأفضل دائما

يحفزك ذلك للعمل أكثر

يزيدك ذلك ثقة بنفسك

أسباب أخرى أذكرها.....

4/ هل تتضايق عندما يتلقى زملاؤك في القسم المدح من طرف الأستاذ بدلا منك؟

نعم

لا

5/ عندما تحصل على علامة متوسطة في الاختبار هل تحاول العمل أكثر؟

نعم

لا

6/ إذا كانت الإجابة ب لا ، هل لأن هذه العلامة كافية بالنسبة إليك؟

نعم

لا

7/ هل تغامر بالإجابة عن الأسئلة الصعبة حتى ولو لم تكن متأكدا من أن الإجابة صحيحة؟

دائما

غالبا

أحيانا

نادرا

أبدا

8/ عندما تجيب إجابة خاطئة، هل يجعلك ذلك تنردد في الإجابة عن أسئلة أخرى؟

دائما

غالبا

أحيانا

نادرا

أبدا

9/ هل تبادر في الإجابة عن أسئلة الأستاذ، عندما يطلب منك ذلك؟

دائما

غالبا

أحيانا

نادرا

أبدا

10/ هل تتفاعل مع الأستاذ والزملاء عندما يفتح الأستاذ المجال للنقاش والحوار؟

دائما

غالبا

أحيانا

نادرا

أبدا

11/ هل يمنعك الخوف من ارتكاب الأخطاء وتوبيخ الأستاذ أن تتفاعل داخل القسم تشارك في النقاش؟

دائما

غالبا

أحيانا

نادرا

أبدا

12/ هل تحب أن يمدحك الأستاذ أمام زملائك؟

نعم

لا

13/ عندما يمدحك الأستاذ، هل تشعر بالحماس والتحفيز للمشاركة (التفاعل) أكثر في القسم.

نعم

لا

14/ هل تحب أن تكافئ مقابل أدائك الجيد في الدراسة؟

نعم

لا

15/ هل يحفزك الحصول على مكافأة من الأستاذ كبطاقة تشجيعية أو نقاط زائدة للمشاركة أكثر في المناقشة

دائما

غالبا

أحيانا

نادرا

أبدا

16/ هل تلقي المكافآت والمدح من الأستاذ يجعل الدراسة تبدو أسهل.

دائما

غالبا

أحيانا

نادرا

أبدا

17/ هل تعتقد أن الحصول على مكافئات تشجيعية يحفزك لبذل مجهود أكبر في القسم؟

نعم

لا

18/ هل تشعر بالإحباط عندما لا يشكرك الأستاذ على إثرائك للنقاش في القسم؟

دائماً

غالباً

أحياناً

نادراً

أبداً

19/ عندما تتلقى مكافئة من الأستاذ، هل يزيدك ذلك ثقة بنفسك؟

دائماً

غالباً

أحياناً

نادراً

أبداً

20/ إذا وصفك أستاذك بالعقري بماذا سيشعرك ذلك؟

بالتحفيز

بأنك الأفضل بين زملائك

بالثقة في النفس

بأنك حقا عقري

Appendix B :

The Questionnaire (English Version)

Section One: Background Knowledge About the Participants

Q 01: Why do you think you are studying?

- To achieve your goals
- To meet friends
- Because all people do
- To please your parents
- Other reasons :

Q 02: Do you like to be the centre of your classmates' and teacher's attention?

- Yes
- No

If yes, why?

- You like to be always the best
- That's motivate you to work harder
- You gain more self-confidence

Q 04: Do you get annoyed when your teacher praises your classmates instead?

- Yes
- No

Q 05: When you get an average mark in the exam, do you try to work harder?

- Yes
- No

Q 06: If no, is it because getting the average is sufficient for you?

Yes

No

Q 07 : Do you take the risk of answering difficult questions, even if you are uncertain about the answer?

Always

Often

Sometimes

Rarely

Never

Q 08: When your answer of a question is wrong, do you hesitate to answer another one?

Always

Often

Sometimes

Rarely

Never

Q 09 Do you venture an answer when the teacher asks you?

Always

Often

Sometimes

Rarely

Never

Q 10 : Do you interact with the teacher and classmates when the floor is open for discussion?

- Always
- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never

Q 11 : Does fear from committing mistakes prevent you from interacting or participating in the classroom?

- Always
- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never

Q 12 : Do you like to be praised in front of your classmates?

- Always
- Often
- Sometimes
- Rarely
- Never

Q 13 :Do you feel more enthusiastic and motivated to participate in the class when your teacher praises you?

- Yes
- No

Q 14 : Do you like to be rewarded for your good performance?

Yes

No

Q 15 : Does getting rewards from the teacher, whether stickers or additional marks in the exam, motivates you to participate more in discussions?

Always

Often

Sometimes

Rarely

Never

Q 16 : Does getting rewards from the teacher make studying seems easier?

Always

Often

Sometimes

Rarely

Never

Q 17 : Do you think that being praised, encourages you to make extra efforts?

Yes

No

Q 18 : Do you feel disappointed when your teacher does not thank you when you participate in the classroom?

Always

Often

Sometimes

Rarely

Never

Q 19 : Do you feel more self-confident when your work is rewarded by your teacher?

Always

Often

Sometimes

Rarely

Never

Q 20 : If your teacher characterizes you as genius, how would you feel?

Motivated

You are the best

Self-confident

That you are a real genius

Résumé

Cette étude examine le point de vue des apprenants sur la mise en œuvre des récompenses en tant que motif extrinsèque qui les incite à interagir et à participer davantage en classe. Afin d'examiner la corrélation actuelle entre les récompenses et la motivation, il est supposé que si les apprenants recevaient des récompenses suite à une bonne performance, ils seraient plus motivés pour interagir en classe. Pour tester la validité de notre hypothèse, un questionnaire a été remis à un groupe de 61 élèves de deuxième année du collège Bouhaneche Lakhdar, Tassift, Jijel afin de connaître leur attitude en ce qui concerne l'utilisation des récompenses pour améliorer la motivation lors des interactions en classe. Par conséquent, les résultats obtenus à partir de la théorie et de la pratique ont montré que les élèves se sentent plus enthousiastes en croyant que les renforts utilisés par l'enseignant les encouragent à déployer de sérieux efforts. De plus, ils ont affirmé que les récompenses réduisent les difficultés d'apprentissage, ce qui facilite la tâche et permet de bien faire des résultats lorsqu'on participe aux interactions en classe. En d'autres termes, le travail d'analyse a confirmé l'hypothèse de l'étude selon laquelle les élèves ont une attitude positive à l'égard des récompenses.

ملخص

تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى الكشف عن وجهة نظر المتعلمين حول تطبيق واستعمال المكافآت كحافز خارجي يدفعهم إلى التفاعل والمشاركة بشكل أكبر وفعال في الفصل الدراسي. من أجل التحقيق في العلاقة الرابطة بين المكافآت الدافعية، افترضنا أنه إذا مُنح المتعلمون مكافآت بعد أدائهم الجيد، فسيصبحون أكثر تحمسًا للتفاعل في الفصل الدراسي. لاختبار صحة فرضيتنا، تمت صياغة استبيان وتسليمه إلى مجموعة من 61 تلميذًا يدرسون في السنة الثانية متوسط في مدرسة بوحناش لخضر، تأسست بغرض الاستعلام عن مواقفهم الشخصية فيما يتعلق باستخدام المكافآت في تعزيز دافعيتهم للتعلم والمشاركة أثناء التفاعلات الصفية. وبالتالي، أظهرت النتائج التي تم الحصول عليها من الأجزاء النظرية والعملية من بحثنا أن الطلاب يشعرون بمزيد من الحماس لاعتقادهم بأن التحفيزات التي يستخدمها المعلم تشجعهم على بذل جهود أكبر. وبالإضافة إلى ذلك، فقد عبر التلاميذ عن اعتقادهم بأن المكافآت تقلل من صعوبات التعلم، مما يجعلها تبتدأ وأسهل كما ويعطي نتائج أفضل عند المشاركة في التفاعلات الصفية. بمعنى آخر، أكد العمل التحليلي فرضية الدراسة بأن التلاميذ لديهم مواقف إيجابية تجاه المكافآت.

