

The Impact of Personality traits and Emotions on Motivation in Relation to
Teacher-Student Rapport: The Case of Algerian EFL Undergraduate Students.

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Abstract

Building rapport is considered very crucial to maintain a good relationship between teachers and their students, especially if the primary goal is to boost students' motivation. Some psychological features are also important considering such as students' emotions and personality traits. Accordingly, this research aims at investigating the impact that teacher-student rapport can have on students' motivation to learn English, taking into consideration their personality traits and emotions. The purpose is to unveil any possible interrelationship between students' personality traits, motivation and emotions and the rapport they have with their teachers. A case study design has been selected for the purposes of this study. Participants are 203 undergraduate students and 15 English language teachers. The study adopted a mixed-methods approach. Quantitative data were collected through two sets of questionnaires chosen to identify students' personalities (Big Five Inventory (BFI) developed by John and Benet-Martinez, 1998) and then their level of motivation (adapted version of Gardner's AMTB (Attitudes/Motivation Test Battery) questionnaire, 1974). Qualitative data, on the other hand, were gathered through student interviews, classroom observations, fieldnotes and an open-ended questionnaire for teachers. The results showed that teachers play a prominent role in motivating their students through having a good rapport with them. Emotions have helped identify whether students were happy with their teachers in class, which in turn impacted upon students' motivation. Results have also highlighted that motivated learners tended to show similarity on the following personality dimensions: Extraversion, Conscientiousness, and Agreeableness. However, it was difficult to detect an obvious link between students' personality traits and teacher-students' rapport. Finally, the majority of teachers believed that building rapport in class is essential for the process of teaching and learning.

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List of Abbreviations

AMTB: Attitude/Motivation Test Battery

BFI: Big Five Inventory

CBA: Competency Based Approach

EAP: English for Academic purposes

EFL: English Foreign Learning

ELT: English Language Teaching

ESP: English for Specific Purposes

LMD: Licence Master Doctorate

PET: Plutchik's Psycho-Evolutionary Theory

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

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Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Rationale for the study

Teachers have long been considered to be agents of change, irrespective of whether they are teaching children, adolescents, or adults (Hargreaves et al., 2010). This explains why research has heavily focused on quality teaching, teaching methods, and learning processes (Brown & Lee, 2015; Oxford, 2011; Richards, 2015; Waters, 2012; Yang, 2016). Accordingly, educational psychology seems to be among the recent streams that are studied in depth nowadays. Indeed, linking psychology to teaching and education facilitates an understanding of how learners and teachers feel, learn and teach. The field of psychology has in fact been merged with applied linguistics and TEFL in an attempt to study how individual students and teachers can achieve the learning and teaching of a foreign language. This has led to the development of the field of language learning and teaching psychology (Mercer, Ryan, & Williams, 2012), which has drawn the interest of many researchers (Babakhani, 2013; Dewaele, 2012; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Hazrati-Viari et al., 2011; Oz, 2014; Pourfeiz, 2015). As a field, it has focused on a number of constructs such as motivation, personality traits, emotions, beliefs, attitudes, etc. These features are mainly known as ‘individual differences.

Additionally, the relationship between the teacher and their students is an area that is crucially investigated in the field of applied linguistics (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Joe et al., 2017; Lamb, 2017; Moskovsky et al., 2012; Nguyen, 2007; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012; Sánchez et al., 2013, Suryati, 2015). It is believed that teachers are solely responsible for building rapport with their students as this can help build their trust and facilitate their learning (Swenson, 2010; Webb & Barrett, 2014). Correspondingly, I presume that if teachers take into

consideration other psychological factors such as students' motivation, personalities and emotions, they are able to better understand their students and thus achieve their goal to build rapport.

1.2 Significance of the study

From the above discussion, I presume that language learning psychology is still wide and has not been sufficiently tackled. Indeed, there has been many studies focusing especially on learner motivation and personality traits (Dewaele, 2012, 2013c; Doiz, 2014; Dörnyei & Gardner, 2001; Gardner, 2010; Ghapanchi et al., 2011; Lamb, 2017). Still, from my own research and readings, little has been done on combining together psychological factors like motivation, personality traits and emotions, and exploring how they shape teacher-student rapport.

Nonetheless, there have been a small number of studies combining motivation and personality traits (Clark & Schroth, 2010; Corr et al., 2013; DeYoung et al., 2007; Kaufman et al., 2008; Komarraju & karau, 2005; Komarraju et al., 2009), teacher-student rapport and motivation (Bekleyen, 2011; Bouras & Keskes, 2014; Sanchez et al, 2013), emotions and personality traits (Dewaele, 2013a; Dornyei & Ryan, 2015; Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015; Maltby, 2017), teacher-student rapport and emotion (Dewaele e al., 2019; Pianta & Hamre, 2009), and teacher-student rapport and student personality traits (Koenig et al., 2010; Rudasill & Rimm-Kaufman, 2009; Shiner & Caspi, 2003; Saft & Pianta, 2001; Sthulman & Pianta, 2002; Zee et al., 2013). However, the present study aims to investigate a wider link, encompassing motivation, emotions, personality and their relation to teacher-student rapport.

Furthermore, from my own readings, I conclude that the north African world has seen limited research on language learning psychology. The only few such studies that I have come across include only motivation (Ghout-khenoune, 2014) and anxiety (Djebbari, 2014; Melouah, 2013).

Algeria as the country where the study took place is still concerned with finding and selecting the best method to use to promote better learning and avoiding neglecting students as individuals (Amrate, 2021; Bouzar et al., 2012; Guerza, 2015; Sabria, 2016). Moreover, teachers in Algeria seem not to be aware of or interested in their student's psychology.

The original reason that has led me to consider studying students' psychology in Algerian higher education is my own experience as a student alongside my whole process of learning. Being a very reserved student, I have always been neglected and seen as abnormal by many teachers during primary, secondary and high school. Nonetheless, I was very good at certain subjects like mathematics and foreign languages, which led the teachers of those subjects to encourage me more. I appreciated them as their approach helped me achieve good academic results. When at university, I gained more confidence and built a close relationship with different teachers. This made me question why students differ in their relationships and rapport with the same teacher. I speculated that this might have to do with the personality either of the teachers or the students. Consequently, I became more inclined to study a number of psychological factors to understand if student-teacher rapport plays a role in students' motivation, in relation to their personality traits and emotions as well.

1.3 Context of the study

1.3.1 Language policy in Algeria

In 1990, Arabic has become the official language in Algeria. Nonetheless, most Algerians speak rather a dialectal Arabic which has many other intruding languages like French, Spanish or even Turkish. Still, modern standard Arabic is taught in schools and understood by most Algerians.

Berbers, on the other hand, speak the Amazigh language, which was recognized as an official language in 2016, but they also speak and understand Arabic or dialectal Arabic.

Before the policy of 'Arabization', Algeria had 'French' as its official language, which was imposed by the French colonization. Nowadays, many people still speak and understand French as it is still taught in schools and used in many administrative paperwork. Even though the policy of 'Arabization' has been implemented in Algerian schools, it has not yet been totally implemented in Higher Education as many domains such as medicine, biology, mathematics, and technical sciences are still taught in French. Correspondingly, France has tried by all means to erase the Algerian identity by imposing their language and culture, which has strongly impacted the educational system and the language as well (Djebarri, 2014).

Benrabah (2007) has described the language policy reform into three phases: first, the colonial reform where France has imposed its language on the political, educational and economic system as the French language was considered premium and the Arabic language stood as steady language in the second position. The second phase comes after independence (late 1960s to late 1990s) also known as the nationalist transition, where the Arabic language was gradually imposed in the educational sector. The third phase, which began in the early 2000s and is still ongoing now, corresponds to the shifting into the free assertive market where there are fewer assertive Arabization policies and more opening to the international world, and new technology. Accordingly, many academics concerned with the education reform in Algeria are now more interested in introducing the English language to the educational system than ever before.

1.3.2 Education and ELT in Algeria

The linguistic background of Algeria is known to be rich and complex. As discussed earlier, Algeria was introduced to the French language during the French colonial period. That is why French is still used and recognized in Algeria despite the fight against the colonial reforms to preserve the Algerian identity of Arabization and Islamization. French now is considered as the first foreign language of Algeria and taught from third year in primary schools. English, on the other hand, is considered as a second foreign language in Algeria and taught in middle schools. This diversity of languages in Algeria is known as “linguistic plurality” Medjahed (2011: 73).

The English language is not socially used like French. However, Djebbari (2014) has stated that the national curriculum acknowledges the significance of mastering English and, more importantly, being able to speak and communicate by using the English language. Being an international language, the English language is nowadays automatically imposing itself especially via social media. The new generation are more aware of the importance of this language as it is evident that English is starting to take part in the social life day after day. The English language is taught in middle schools, secondary schools and almost all universities. Although, my research concerns students of higher education, it is important to see the historical background of these students and how they have come to know English so far, and the curriculum they underwent during their academic years from primary to secondary school. For instance, one of the major point that could help understand this research is the way teachers taught and communicated English to their students as part of establishing rapport with them based on the type of the curriculum.

In 2005, the national curriculum has introduced the competency-based approach (CBA) as an approach to teaching foreign languages. It involves providing students with the necessary and basic language competencies, knowledge and skills to be able to solve complex problems unlike the old

traditional teaching of grammar and lexis (Boukhentache, 2020). In other words, the Algerian CBA constitutes of the knowledge, abilities (how to do) and attitudes (how to behave), and this is via learning basic skills such as:

- Interacting orally in English,
- Interpreting oral and written text
- Producing Oral and written texts (SE1 Syllabus, 2005)

1.4.3.1 ELT in middle schools¹

In 2001/2002, the Algerian curriculum has witnessed a major reform where three years of studies at middle schools were increased to four years. In addition, the English language is to be taught two grades earlier (i.e., 6th grade, or first year in middle school). Evidently, the new design of textbooks and curriculum has been based on the CBA. This curriculum involves acquainting the learners with the basics of the English language for three hours per week. Moreover, this new curriculum encourages teamwork among learners and project making via working and solving problems together as this will help them communicate and use the language better (Djebbari, 2014). This curriculum aims at consolidating the linguistic and cultural aspects of the language.

1.4.3.2 ELT in secondary schools²

After completing four years at middle school, students launch into another three years at secondary school. According to Djebbari (2014), students are now introduced to different skills such as

¹ Middle school comes after primary school as it consists of four years and then an exam is held at the end of the fourth year to access secondary school.

² Secondary school consists of three years where students prepare for the Baccalaureate exam which is held at the end of the third year to pass and join universities.

writing, speaking, grammar, and phonology, where they are tested for their competencies. The goal in secondary school is more interactive as students are encouraged to speak and use the language when they interact with their teachers. Accordingly, to focus on oral tasks, textbooks offer a variety of activities, idioms, jokes and puzzles.

1.3.3 Higher Education and ELT in Algeria

English is taught in almost all universities even as ESP (English for Specific Purposes) and EAP (English for Academic Purposes). The educational system in Algeria has started introducing the LMD system in 2004. LMD, which stands for license, master and doctorate, is widely known in the Anglo-Saxon world. The license is accorded after three years of study instead of four years in the previous system, the master's degree is granted after two years of study, and the doctorate degree is conferred after three to four years of research, which used to go up to seven years in the old system.

The Ministry of Higher Education has set some main objectives behind implementing this new system:

- Ensure a high teaching quality according to the social demands and in terms of access to Higher Education.
- Achieve harmony with socio-economic development in all possible interactions between the university and the world.
- Be more open to global developments, particularly in science and technology.
- Encourage international cooperation and diversity.
- Lay the foundations of good governance based on participation and consultation

(Djebbari, 2014, p.130)

In other words, this reform encourages innovation within Algerian universities, meeting the demands of the global world and following new research internationally to lay the foundations for the future of Higher Education in Algeria. Nonetheless, there has been some resistance against the LMD system claiming that it does not fit into the wider educational system of Algeria (Mami, 2013; Megnounif, 2009; Meliani, 2010).

1.3.4 The Department of Foreign Languages at Tlemcen University

The Department of Foreign Languages at Tlemcen University has been known under different names and underwent some reforms. The first foundation was in 1986, when it was called Faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages. It was not until 1995 that the Faculty has become autonomous and composed of French and English as foreign languages. In 1998, the Faculty has been merged with other faculties and the name changed to Faculty of Letters and Human and Social Sciences. However, in 2010 the two faculties were split into two different faculties, and this is where the Department of Foreign Languages has been created comprising English, French, Spanish and translation.

The LMD system was not implemented in the English department until 2008. The goal is first to prepare students during the first three years to obtain their license degree, which is equivalent to a BA in the Anglo-Saxon world. Modules are approximately the same during the first two years and attendance is compulsory. Students can take modules on literature, grammar, translation, linguistics, study skills, phonetics, reading comprehension and oral production. In the third and final year of the license stage, modules are more elaborate and developed; they include phonology, cognitive psychology, methodology, ESP (English for specific purposes), didactics, etc. To finalize

their three years and get their license degree (called university BA degree in the Anglo-Saxon world) students are expected to write a training report about a teaching experience.

It is not until the master's degree where students can choose their pathway as there are only three specialties: Didactics, language sciences, and language culture. Students are introduced to different modules depending on their specialty as they are also trained for writing a thesis at the end of the two complete years of their master's degree. Students can work on a topic of their choice and select their supervisors as well. After being conferred the degree, they can sit for a national doctoral contest that is held every year throughout the entire country. If they are accepted, they will have to choose a topic and their supervisor and conduct their study for a period of three to four years. They are allowed to do some teaching at departmental level and are obliged to publish at least one article in an international journal before submitting their thesis.

1.4 Overview of Research Methodology

The study adopts a mixed method approach involving quantitative and qualitative data. First, quantitative data were obtained through two questionnaires (The Big Five Inventory (BFI) developed by John and Benet-Martinez, 1998 and adapted version of Gardner's AMTB (Attitudes/Motivation Test Battery) questionnaire, 1974), where students' personality types and motivation were assessed. Qualitative data were gathered through student interviews online and face-to-face, an open-ended questionnaire with teachers (online questionnaire sent via email) and classroom observations (for a period of two weeks).

The participants of this study were mainly 1st and 2nd year undergraduate students of English at Tlemcen University in addition to some of their teachers. Non-probabilistic sampling and namely convenient and purposive sampling were used for the 203 students who participated in the

quantitative data collection. Concerning the qualitative part, 25 students were selected for the interviews based on their personality type and one classroom was selected for the observation. This classroom comprised 40 students. Additionally, 15 teachers responded to the open-ended questionnaire.

Data were collected over a period of seven months (February 2019 to December 2019) with interruption over the summer. Classroom observations took place over a period of four weeks where I observed one classroom multiple times to see how students were interacting with six of their teachers. Data were analyzed consecutively after their collection. For instance, the first half of the collected data which are quantitative were analyzed in a descriptive way using frequencies, means and standards in the SPSS software. On the other hand, qualitative data has been analyzed profoundly through multiple readings followed by breaking down the data according to the researched goals. Evidently, many tables and charts have been used to depict the similarities and dissimilarities in the participants' answers as well as their compatibility with classroom observation. Qualitative data has also served to confirm and explain the results obtained quantitatively.

1.5 Structure of the thesis

The thesis consists of six chapters. This first chapter presents the rationale for the study, its objectives, research questions, context, overview of the methodology and the structure of the thesis.

The second chapter presents the relevant literature review and background studies on the topic. It critically discusses the definitions, psychological interpretations and previous research findings on

the main variables of this study (i.e., motivation, personality traits, emotions and teacher-student rapport) in education and ELT.

The third chapter describes the research methodology of the study by first discussing the research paradigm followed by the research questions. It then explains the case study design and mixed-method approach to followingly present in detail the sample and research instruments. Finally, the chapter shows how data were analyzed, by also shedding light on reliability, validity and research ethics that were taken into consideration.

The fourth chapter presents the data analysis as per research question, after providing a summary of students' and teachers' biodata. Graphs and tables are used to elucidate the obtained results and help when interpreting the data later. The fifth chapter discusses the findings of this research in comparison with previous research on the topic and interprets those findings by attempting to draw implications for classroom practice which take into account psychological aspects of foreign language learning. The final, sixth chapter offers a summary of the findings, limitations of the study, and implications and recommendations for teacher practice and future research.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

It is generally acknowledged that when psychology is dealt with in the various aspects of education, it allows teachers to meet the logic behind different dilemmas which assist them in setting a teaching and learning process to the best of their abilities (Littleton et al., 2011). Williams et al. (2015) state that student-teacher relationships maybe considered as central when displaying the positive atmosphere of a classroom. Many teachers though neglect the psychological dimension of teaching and learning as they tend to teach and focus on the whole class rather than the individuals themselves (Cook, 2013).

People differ from each other, not only from their DNA or fingerprints; they are noticed to be different even in their behaviour and their way of dealing with situations: some would panic and shout in an earthquake and some would just freeze; some would faint in front of an audience and others would just embrace the talk naturally. These differences are present in daily life through various domains. Accordingly, recent research tends to look at those differences within students in their learning. For instance, in foreign language learning, the term commonly used to describe this distinctiveness is “Individual differences”. Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) define it as dimensions covering individual features that may be administered to all humans and which come in various levels (e.g., cognitive, cultural, physical, etc.).

To narrow down the term "Individual differences", eminent researchers have drawn interest in personality as a significant latent construct to study people's differences (Ashton, 2018; Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015; Cooper, 2010) and specifically students of foreign languages (Babakhani, 2013; Dewaele, 2012; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Hazrati-Viari et al., 2011; Oz, 2014; Pourfeiz, 2015). Personality or personality traits are considered to exhibit the most distinctive features among

individuals (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). Notwithstanding, other individual variables have been studied so far such as: emotions (Arnold, 1999; MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012; Mendez Lopez & Cardenas, 2014; Miyahara, 2015; Oxford & Bolaños-Sanchez, 2016; Robinson, 2002) and motivation (Dewaele, 2013b; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Dörnyei & Schmidt, 2001; Gregersen, 2013; Nakata, 2006; Lasagabaster et al., 2014; Ushioda, 2012). These latter variables are deemed to work together even though emotion has been largely neglected if not minorly dealt with in the field of psychology and language learning (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015).

This chapter is going to present a literature review on the above-mentioned concepts (personality, emotion and motivation), considering both general psychological perspectives and prominent research held in the field of second language acquisition (SLA). However, beforehand this chapter will give an insight about the multi-disciplinarity and its importance in research. Subsequently, the chapter will move to the relationship and the link between the former mentioned variables and how they were viewed in other studies. Teacher role and practice in EFL teaching will be then highlighted as important aspects covering basically teacher-student rapport. Eventually, a conclusion will be set at the end of this chapter which will lead to the following chapter.

2.2 Multi-disciplinarity in ELT

Nowadays, many studies like scientific research are growingly focusing on collaborations to tackle complex real-life issues. For instance, many researchers, policymakers or administrators are regarding the use of a multidisciplinary field to promote research collaborations especially interdisciplinary ones which concern different researchers from different disciplines (Zuo & Zhao, 2018). The field of ELT also has known this multi-disciplinarity in its research for Klein (2009)

has called it “common wisdom” that ELT is part of or relying on other disciplines to make its research about teaching English more valuable and knowledgeable.

The concept of multi-disciplinarity is widely confused or also linked to the term inter-disciplinarity, that is why it is important to shed light on the meaning of the two concepts. Multi-disciplinarity involves the coexistence of two or more disciplines in one research as it fosters knowledge and information through different inputs for a research problem is regarded from multiple viewpoints using facts, theories, methods and concepts (Derrick et al., 2012; Gnanamurali & Frederick, 2019, Klein, 2009; Wagner et al., 2011). On the other hand, interdisciplinarity accentuates more on the integration of knowledge from different disciplines (Derrick et al., 2012; Wagner et al., 2011).

Teachers and researchers of ELT believe that the collaboration and contribution of various disciplines help better understand themes, notions, or the subject itself as this endeavour lead to develop good instructional outcome when teaching English (Gnanamurali & Frederick, 2019). Additionally, if researchers adhere to only one discipline approach this will limit the scope for English teaching and thus knowledge, notions and theories will be restricted as well (Ibid, 2019).

Respectively, this study aims at drawing a picture through a multidisciplinary approach involving different disciplines (Psychology, Education, and ELT) and themes (personality, rapport, motivation and emotion). In other words, this study plans on adding elements from the discipline of psychology (personality, emotion, and motivation) to explain and explore the aspect of student-teacher rapport in class in ELT. This allows the study to look into different aspects and viewpoints. Followingly, the later mentioned themes will be defined in accordance with the various disciplines involved in this study.

2.3 Personality

Personality is regarded as a construct that arouses the interest of many people including scientists and psychologists. Still, the area puzzles many researchers with its vagueness and miscomprehension (Feist, 1990). Defining the term personality is not as simple as it sounds. Each person would interpret it based on their own knowledge and field of study. Laymen tend to use the concept of personality in subjective judgements such as concluding that dull, tough and cold persons have 'no personality' or social, honest, and educated persons have 'a good personality'. Scholars, on the other hand, are more objective, as they try to answer questions like why people are different and what makes them different (i.e. characteristics) (Cervone et al., 2005; Feist, 1990).

This section will delineate the term 'personality' under first the main field of psychology considering different emerging theories. Next, it will introduce theories of personality traits and, finally, link personality to the field of SLA by presenting various empirical studies and used assessment measures.

2.3.1 Personality Psychology

Indeed, long ago 'psychology' was rather known under the umbrella of philosophy which in turn included many of today's widely known disciplines (Dumont, 2010). Personality psychology became an ongoing trend in the 20th century (Feist et al., 2013). As psychology is the major branch that deals with personality in its distinct aspects, it is important to browse through how the concept of personality was interpreted by different psychologists and how different theories were conceived throughout time.

Many years ago, theologians, philosophers and other scholars had an urge for answering questions about the nature of humans and if they had any underlying disposition. Ancient Greek thinkers such as Theophrastus, Hippocrates and Galen were intrigued by the diversity of people as they wrote about the different features they noticed in individuals (Ashton, 2018). In the same vein, Sigmund Freud is believed to be the pioneer thinker who brought forth the notion of personality in 1900 via 'dream interpretation' leading rise to modern theories mainly in the field of psychology (Feist et al., 2013; Friedman & Schustack, 2006). Yet, the American psychologist Gordon Allport was the one who made the term 'personality' widely popular in 1937 in his published work: *A Psychological Interpretation* (Maltby et al., 2017). The word 'personality' is derived from the Latin 'persona', which means 'mask' (Hergenhahn & Olson, 2007).

Allport (1961) attempted to draw a very broad definition that can encompass some essential elements to consider: "*Personality is a dynamic organization, inside the person, of psychophysical systems that create the person's characteristic patterns of behaviour, thoughts and feelings*" (p. 11). This interpretation relies on the fact that persons generate all along their life a sort of an active process from their living experiences and occurring changes that shapes the psychophysical side (body and mind) which is referred to as 'personality'. Correspondingly, an individual's stable features are constructed during the process from different angles like: affective (feeling), cognitive (thinking) and behavioural (behaving) (Carver & Scheier, 2012; Maltby et al., 2017).

Furthermore, according to Allport (1961), the study of personality may rely on two distinct approaches known as 'idiographic' and 'nomothetic'. The idiographic approach supports the idea that everyone is different from the other as they need to be assessed separately. Most data are then collected qualitatively via diaries, interviews or therapeutic observations under the method of case study (Maltby et al., 2017). Contrastively, the nomothetic approach claims that there is a set of variables that we can count on to discern human personalities. This approach uses mainly

quantitative measures through sets of personality questionnaires (ibid). Indeed, those two approaches both hold some disadvantages, as the former makes it complicated to generalize and the latter may lead to superficial results. That is why some researchers nowadays tend to mix methods using both qualitative and quantitative research to obtain more reliable results (ibid).

Continuously, Friedman and Schustack (2006) asserted that the study of personality psychology tends to draw attention to eight aspects which also help to clarify the concept of 'personality': '*unconscious aspects*' as people may be affected by their parents' behaviours and expose them unconsciously in their manners when dealing with different situations; '*ego forces*' where a person endeavors to create a '*self*' identity; '*biological aspects*', that is each person is proven to be genetically and physically unique; '*conditionality*', which makes people bound by their environment and culturally framed; '*cognitive dimensions*', as each person possesses internal cognitive abilities to interpret the world in his/her manner; '*spiritual dimensions*', which enable people to question their existence and seek prosperity and self-contentment; and finally, '*growing interactions*' that occur between individuals and the environment.

Based on the above aspects, eight divergent perspectives were put forth: Psychoanalytic, neo-analytic/ego, biological, behaviourist, cognitive, trait, humanistic and interactionist (Friedman & Schustack, 2006). Each perspective starts with a focal point to view personality as it gives us a prospective angle to regard (Carver & Scheier, 2012). No one can tell which perspective is right or wrong for when combined they all lead to a global understanding of personality (ibid). For instance, the 'trait perspective' starts with the sense that people have stable features that show themselves differently according to situations, except that those features are profoundly enclosed in an individual (ibid).

2.3.2 Personality Traits

Personality trait is an approach that accentuates ‘individual differences’ as it studies the paramount differences and similarities among individuals (Ashton, 2018; Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015). Personality psychologists had as objective to pinpoint the major dimensions that differentiate people from each other, examine the stability of these dimensions and draw a clarification of the origin of these distinctions (Cooper, 2002). As an illustration, in a situation where a person feels tired after a long period of work does not indicate that they are different from the others (similarity). However, the approach of trait intends to focus on the level of fatigue that this person feels after a long-time effort (difference) (Ashton, 2018).

Ashton (2018) mentioned that between 1970 and 1980, numerous researchers questioned the existence of personality traits as they claimed a very light regularity of changeable behaviours among people across multiple situations. Nevertheless, when those behaviours are assessed through considerable situations via the global median of each individual’s inclinations, people dissimilarities are very significant and apparent, which proves the existence of personality traits. For instance, all people would most likely feel anger towards an insult, still the degree of anger differs from one person to another depending on the person’s level of anger control. In other words, when it is found that a person scores high on a trait, it does not constantly make them demonstrate a particular behaviour, thought or feeling, instead, they are more likely to behave, think or feel that way in a greater range of situations. In the case of an ‘optimistic’ person, they have the tendency to be optimistic, yet not in all circumstances (Ashton, 2018).

2.3.3 Personality trait theories

People have the tendency to describe others by attributing to them different long-term characteristics. Trait theorists do the same thing, albeit scientifically with the use of factor analysis (Cooper, 2010). Trait theories are deemed to be the most favourable way to study and measure personality (ibid). However, there are quite a large proportion of competitive theories that hold their own perspectives and basis (Ewen, 2010). From ancient Greeks till now, several scholars have tried to define personality and discern the major features that can describe an individual. Consequently, some had a great impact whereas others elapsed inconspicuous.

2.3.3.1 Hippocrates's/ Galen's Theory (temperament theory)

The thought that people differ from each other goes back to at least around 400 BC in light of Hippocrates's philosophy and then Galen later on about 150 AD, where they classified people in four categories (sanguine, choleric, phlegmatic and melancholic) which were referred to as substance abundance in the fluid of the body (Carver & Scheier, 2012). Accordingly, Chamorro-Premuzic (2015) described the four personality types as follows. First, people with 'Sanguine' temperament are known to be optimistic, passionate and lively; they are in most cases happy with their lives and possess a sound physical and mental health. This type was named 'sanguine' from the Latin word 'sanguis' meaning blood, because sanguine people were thought to hold high blood levels in their systems which make them strong and energetic. Second, the 'Choleric' type are described as belligerent, erratic and moody persons. They are believed to release from their gall bladder a high proportion of a chemical called 'yellow bile'. The third type is 'Phlegmatic', referred to as quiet, serene and passive people. The term 'phlegmatic' was associated to the 'phlegm', which is the mucus of lungs. And finally, the 'Melancholic' temperament as the name indicates,

pessimistic, distressed, thoughtful and unhappy people. They were believed to have a defect in the organ known as 'black bile'.

Even though these biological perceptions were soon dropped and sharply criticized, they had on the way an impact on various thinkers such as Immanuel Kant (1724- 1804) who published 'Anthropology from the Pragmatic Viewpoint' where he recalled the four types stated by the Greeks in a detailed definition of individuals (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015). In the same way, Hans Eysenck (1916-1997) is believed to be the biggest admirer of the Greeks' theory as he established a personality theory for determining temperament dimensions that are very much alike the Hippocrates/Galen theory (ibid).

2.3.3.2 Eysenck's Theory

In a more recent past, Jung (1933) appealed that people come in two forms: introverts who favor single-based works; or extraverts who like social group activities. These types are, however, argued to be completely unconnected as they represent two different separate discontinued sets. Consequently, these personality types were not properly put into the scene until the emergence of Hans Eysenck's work in the beginning of the 1950s (Friedman & Schustack, 2006).

In 1947, Eysenck introduced a 'two-dimensional model' of personality founded on 'Neuroticism and Extraversion' (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015). These dimensions correlate with the above-mentioned Greek temperaments. In other words, Extraversion lies under the conjunction of both choleric and sanguine types, whereas Introversion combines Phlegmatic and Melancholic temperaments. Furthermore, Neuroticism could be a mixture of Melancholic and Choleric temperaments, while Sanguine and Phlegmatic types could be represented as Emotional Stability (ibid). Correspondingly, Chamorro-Premuzic (2015) and Engler (2014) described the cited dimensions as follows.

Extraversion/Introversion: this factor evaluates the intensity by which individuals appear to be regularly communicative, sociable and dynamic. Extraverts are known to appreciate companionship as they easily express their thoughts and feelings; they are optimistic, lively and confident. Contrarily, introverts depreciate the social company; they are likely to be constrained, silent, shy and lacking confidence.

Neuroticism/ Emotional Stability: this trait focuses on the degree by which people are continually anxious and distressed. Those who score high on Neuroticism are most of the times nervous, pessimistic, alarmed and show low self-esteem. On the contrary, people who score low on Neuroticism are emotionally stable, harmonious, optimistic and confident.

In the late 1970s, Eysenck added another personality dimension which is 'Psychoticism'. This third trait popularized the so called 'Eysenck's Gigantic Three' or 'Eysenck's PEN model' which encompasses the aforementioned dimension and the newly introduced one (Engler, 2014). Chamorro-Premuzic (2015) defined the third trait as follows.

Psychoticism/ Tender-mindedness: this factor measures the level of people's compliance, belligerence and affection to others. People with a high score on psychoticism are portrayed as emotionally ruthless, daring, abrupt and adventurous; also, they are known to be sociopathic, that is they grant little consideration to social norms. In contrast, people with a low score on Psychoticism are loving, concerned and trustworthy; they are more inclined to follow community rules.

The main advantage of Eysenck's theory is that he tried to take into consideration the biological aspects of personality (psychophysical) as he presented detailed empirical and statistical works clarifying the biological causes behind each personality dimension (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015; Friedman & Schustack, 2006). Notwithstanding, this theory has not gained as massive recognition as the substitute theory of the Big Five Model (Costa & McCrae, 1985), which involves five global traits: Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness and Neuroticism.

2.3.3.3 The Big Five

A crucial question which seemed to turn around in the trait approach is the number of traits that exist. For instance, there are thousands of words qualified in describing people in the English language; however, this certainly does not mean that there are as many personalities as those words (Friedman & Schustack, 2006). To be able to study personality, the trait approach should adopt a precise number of traits (Friedman & Schustack, 2006). In the same vein, several contemporary researchers launched a query for the basic personality traits (Carver & Scheier, 2012). Allport and Cattell, two major figures in the field of personality, fundamentally contributed to the emergence of the so-called Big Five Factors (Engler, 2014).

Allport identified 17,953 words in the English language which may represent personality aspects; this has followingly assisted Cattell (1943) to shorten the list to sixteen personality traits based on his factor analysis (Engler, 2014). Cattell asserted that there are kind of layers of traits as some are more significant and may act as a base derivation for other traits (Friedman & Schustack, 2006). Even though Cattell's lexical-based model led to the rise of the Big five, he never used the five factors in his works as he thought five to be poor as a number (Engler, 2014). Yet, other subsequent researchers opted for the five types such as: Tupes and Christal (1961), Norman (1963),

Goldberg (1981), Digman (1990) and particularly the Americans Paul Costa and Robert McCrae (1989) whose approach on the five-factor analysis was the most persuasive as their traits' conception brought forth the name of 'the Big Five Model' (Maltby et al., 2017).

Disparate naming has been given to the characteristics of the Big Five Model. Still, the most commonly dealt with are: Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness (Engler, 2014). To recognize the above factors, globally known acronyms are used such as: NEOAC or OCEAN (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015; Engler, 2014). The two primary personality traits which are Neuroticism and Extraversion are quite the same as previously described by Eysenck, whereas the concept of Psychoticism would be referred to in the combination of the dimensions of low Agreeableness, high Openness, and low Conscientiousness. Yet, Eysenck disagreed with this conception as he rather interpreted Agreeableness as a mixture of low Psychoticism, low Neuroticism and high Extraversion, considering Openness as a sign of intelligence rather than a temperament (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015). To expound more, Chamorro-Premuzic (2015) and Maltby et al. (2017) defined the three subsidiary dimensions as follows.

Openness to Experience: this trait measures the tendency of people to participate in intellectual tasks and seek new knowledge. Individuals with high Openness are described as fanciful, creative, ingenious and openminded. Conversely, people with low Openness are conservative, traditional and dislike newness.

Agreeableness: this dimension assesses the inclination towards friendliness and trustworthiness. People with a high score in Agreeableness are known as caring, sympathetic, affectionate and easygoing. On the other hand, people who score low are described as skeptical, hostile, rude and unhelpful.

Conscientiousness: this trait evaluates the level of responsibility, maturity and self-restraint. People with high score in Conscientiousness are known for their effectiveness, organization, perseverance. and productivity. Contrastively, individuals with low Conscientiousness are referred to as careless, unreliable and indifferent.

Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) declared that the term 'Big Five' was first cited by Lewis Goldberg (1981); however, later research has mostly related it to Costa and McCrae studies. Costa and McCrae were mainly concerned with the study of personality through the aging process as they needed to establish a full and effective method for personality measurement (Ashton, 2018). Therefore, they analyzed some questionnaire scales based on Cattell's former lexical work and then linked the findings with other late lexical research findings, which eventually assured Costa and McCrae that the Big Five structure was the finest method to classify personality traits.

Initially, Costa and McCrae (1985) put forth the so called 'NEO Personality Inventory' or shortly 'NEO-PI' to assess the factors of the 'Big Five Model' (Ashton, 2018; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). This questionnaire was then later revisited by Costa and McCrae (1992): the 'NEO Personality Inventory—Revised' or 'NEO-PI-R' which is a questionnaire encompassing 240 items, wherein each of the 'Big Five' dimensions are displayed with six other sub-layers of features that are consecutively measured by eight items (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). Subsequently, a short NEO Five-Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI) was administered and extensively employed (Ashton, 2018; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). Lately, an even shorter version was conceived by Goldberg (1993), called the Big Five Inventory (BFI), consisting of only 44 items and six facets under each dimension (John & Srivastava, 1999).

Beyond any doubt, the Big Five has marked the field of personality and the five-factor analysis is still highly acknowledged in recent research, granted that other dimensional models have emerged lately such as: the HEXAGO Model (it refines the dimensions of Agreeableness and Neuroticism and adds a sixth traits which is Honesty/Humility) and the Big One (also called general factor of personality; GFP); this super factor can replace all the five dimensions analysis for someone scoring high in GFP means that they have low score in Neuroticism and high score in all the other four factors (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Pierchurska-Kuciel, 2020). Additionally, other personality traits measures are widely used as in the case of the popular Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), which is mainly based on Carl Jung's theory which includes three bipolar types: extraversion/introversion, sensing/intuiting, and thinking/feeling; MBTI has added another additional dichotomy which is judging/perceiving (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015).

2.3.4 Personality and SLA

Dewaele (2012) argued that it is confusing to see that aptitude and motivation have had a colossal consideration in the field of SLA, whereas personality has received little attention. Relatively, Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) posited that perhaps from an educational viewpoint, personality factors do not pose a huge influence like other variables such as motivation and aptitude. This, however, has not stopped researchers from investigating the field of personality in education and SLA.

The main reason that led educational researchers to incorporate personality in their studies is to be able to predict students' achievements via their personality traits (Dewaele, 2012). In other words, they wanted to identify the traits which bring success. Dewaele (2012) added that researchers found little connection between personality and achievement due to the massive variables such as emotions and motivation that can change in every situation, which led them to withdraw from

digging deeper into the complexity of the study. Contrariwise, Chamorro-Premuzic (2015) argued that the study of personality in relation to educational achievements has been prevalingly researched especially through the assessment of schools and university final exams, attendances and participations. Noticeably, it is believed that on the one hand, cognitive abilities give us an insight into what an individual can do, whereas on the other hand, personality traits anticipate the forthcoming act of an individual (Furnham & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2004).

The idea that an effective language learner owns a particular set of personality traits is universally supported (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). For instance, Dörnyei & Ryan (2015) explained that in a research done by Lalonde, Lee, and Gardner (1987), 83% of teachers agreed and admitted that effective language learners are mostly characterized by features such as: careful, persistent, ongoing, self-reliant, curious, implicated, coordinated, lively, adaptable and confident; and in another study done by Swain and Burnaby (1976), it was asserted that nearly the same features stated above were proved to be the beliefs of parents for getting success. These studies are, however, just speculations and beliefs of teachers and parents about personality traits and success which have not totally been proven to be true by other personality traits achievement-related analyses.

Several researchers have sought to study the widely spreading model which is 'the Big Five' and its effects on SLA and Education employing different variables. Specifically, O'Connor & Paunonen (2007) have used the Big Five as a predictor to investigate university students' performance and achievements. The research followed a meta-analysis study which showed that some of the dimensions are related to academic success, whereas others are negatively associated. They claimed that facets of the Big Five are more adequate and accurate in predicting the academic success rather than the global traits. Another study at the University of Constanta in Romania considered the traits of Neuroticism, Extraversion and Psychoticism. It was shown that the role of

individual differences and particularly personality dimensions have a crucial impact upon academic achievement. For instance, it was found that Neuroticism and Psychoticism were negatively correlated to academic performance and judgement/perception dimension was positively correlated with academic performances (Chamorro-Premuzic & Furnham, 2003; Chamorro-Premuzic & Furnham, 2005; Ciorbea & Pasarica, 2013).

In SLA, some researchers have used the Big Five model with some other variables to predict the academic performance such as attitudes, motivation (Oz 2014) and willingness to communicate (Pourfeiz, 2015). In a study done at the University of Ankara, Turkey, Pourfeiz (2015) used the IPIP (international personality item pool) and the A-FLL (Attitude towards language learning scale) on university students majoring in English and found that it is important to take into account the students' personality traits and their attitudes towards foreign language learning as it may help the teacher get a neat sight of the future outcomes. The results showed that apart from Neuroticism, all other factors may predict students' attitudes towards foreign language learning. Concerning willingness to communicate, Oz (2014) found that Extraversion and openness to experience were the major factors that correlated with an urge to communicate in the second language as he claimed that it is important for teachers to know who is more willing to practise the language orally.

Based on the Big Five dimensions, below are insights of some results of the recent studies found in each trait:

Conscientiousness:

This trait factor is found to relate more to academic success as students who score high in Conscientiousness are responsible, organized and more willing to take their studies seriously compared to students who score low as they are more likely to miss classes and neglect their homework (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015). In the same vein, Ehrman (2008) claimed that

Conscientious students tend to be hard on themselves as they always want to achieve more and do better. Babakhani (2014) adds in his research that Conscientiousness relates positively with self-regulated learners and their academic success as his findings match the above insights and, thus, describes them as “*achievement-oriented and chosen master goals*” (p. 3546). Additionally, Wilson (2008) has found that British learners studying French as a second language were more likely to succeed in their course. Nonetheless, some researchers claim that an exceedingly high score in Conscientiousness may lead to lower grade point average (Cucina & Vasilopoulos, 2005; O’Connor & Paunonen, 2007). This is in line with Dewaele’s (2013c) perception that even though conscientious students would be expected to be hard workers, this should not influence by any means their L2 production.

Neuroticism:

This factor is believed to be negatively correlated with academic achievements especially when it is related to exams, as Neurotic students may experience anxiety, fear and low self-esteem which may lead them to perform poorly in their exams (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015). In SLA, it was found that students who score high in Neuroticism tend to experience high foreign language anxiety (Dewaele, 2012). Surprisingly, in a rather early study done by Robinson et al. (1994), they found that neurotic students perform well in oral and written exams. Much in the same vein, Dewaele (2013a) confirmed this point in his study, where he claimed that there is obviously a relationship between Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety and Neuroticism/Emotional Stability as trait anxiety is strongly related to Neuroticism. Nevertheless, Oz (2014) argued through his findings that there is little relationship between Neurotic students and willingness to communicate (Oral). Eventually, Neuroticism generates anxiety which drives students to have negative attitudes towards language learning, thus failing to perform well in the target language (Pourfeiz, 2015).

Openness to Experience:

This dimension is deemed to predict well educational and foreign language performances as students with high Openness to Experience have high passion and curiosity, they are creative, flexible and have perceptive (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015; Dewaele, 2012). Ehrman (2008) noted in turn that learners who score high in Openness to Experience tend to focus more on word connotations, consider different possibilities, approve continual change, maintain high capacity in reading, and grasp easily native speech and currently used expressions. Similarly, Oz (2014) found that Openness to experience is a powerful predictor of students' willingness to communicate and thus may contribute to second language learning. Furthermore, Pourfeiz (2015) concluded that students with Openness to Experience hold positive attitudes towards the target language and thus are more prone to learn and succeed. Nevertheless, many studies could not find a clear relationship between this factor and students' final grades (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015; O'Connor & Paunonen, 2007).

Agreeableness:

It is acknowledged that cooperative, trustworthy and direct learners are awaited to hold positive attitudes towards the foreign language, which drives them to perform well as they may voluntarily exhibit social interactions with speakers of the target language (Oz, 2014; Pourfeiz, 2015). Babakhani (2014) adds that students with high score in Agreeableness have good self-regulated learning techniques and do achieve well in academic tasks; they are flexible, loving and caring; and are less likely to cause any disagreement with their teachers and classmates. However, this relationship to academic achievement was contended by O'Connor and Paunonen (2007), who claimed that:

Agreeableness has been mostly unassociated with post-secondary performance. The small body of empirical research that has uncovered significant relations between that factor and academic achievement has produced mixed results; some research finding positive relation, and other research finding a negative relation. (p. 978)

Ultimately, O'Connor and Pauonen (2007) confirmed their saying by their study as they found that Agreeableness does not represent a great significance in predicting academic achievements. Likewise, Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) noted that Agreeableness is unconnected with second language learning as researchers may need to reconsider other variables and details that may link the factor to SLA such as age or the length of studies.

Extraversion:

This dimension is the most widely explored area in Education and SLA (Dewaele, 2012, Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). It is not surprising that teachers may prefer and await positive outcomes from students who are cooperative, lively, social, communicative, humorous and optimistic. However, this is not always the case as they may neglect the hard-working side of the introverts because they are silent, distant, calm, inactive and unsociable (Dewaele, 2012). Chamorro-Premuzic (2015) declared that academic achievement should be evaluated by the type of assessment extravert/introvert students undertake. For instance, extravert students are found to perform better in oral, communicative tasks, whereas introvert students are seen to perform better in writing and intellectual tasks. Moreover, extrovert and introvert students are seen to follow distinct learning strategies as extroverts would interact with others and ask questions, whereas introverts tend to seek knowledge by themselves without asking for help (Wakamoto, 2009). In other words, introvert learners use more metacognitive and cognitive strategies than extroverts do (Kayaoğlu, 2013).

Notwithstanding, Ehrman (2008) found that introvert learners are the best second language performers as they are instinctive, logic and sharp thinkers. Yet, in other studies, researchers have found little evidence indicating the connection between extraversion and introversion with academic performance (Ciorbea & Pasarica, 2013; Dewaele, 2013a).

Conclusively, Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) pointed out that it was clear that when assembling the different research done in Personality and SLA, there is somehow a complexity in predicting success, that is why several researchers tend to avoid including personality in their studies. Nonetheless, we cannot deny the fact that any aspects in personality proved to predict achievement which leads to thinking that maybe researchers need to use more elaborate instruments with a more detailed and effective research plan.

2.4 Emotion

Emotions are at the centre of all human behaviour because we experience them in our daily lives in different ways; emotions are regular companions which may be agreeable or unpleasant and most of the time difficult to interpret. However, can we give a comprehensive definition of 'Emotions', an explanation of their origins, and a cause of their variations? (Keltner et al., 2014; Schirmer, 2015). Niedenthal and Ric (2017) even questioned if we will still be humans if we felt nothing, no anger, no pride, no fear and no happiness. Yet, early philosophers did think that emotions represent the animalistic remaining signs of our past as they indicate weakness and hindrance for attaining reason; they sometimes related them to women and children only (Keltner et al., 2014; Niedenthal & Ric, 2017). Accordingly, it is perceived that even nowadays, in some cultures, Emotion is still regarded as defective and reflecting psychological instabilities if an

individual expresses their emotions. Contrarily, early philosophers like Aristotle did not suppose that morality stands for reason alone or passion alone, but he believed that passion and reason stand together to understand morality. Similarly, Vygotsky (1987) believed the same way as he compared passion and reason to the elements of fire (Oxygen and Hydrogen) for we cannot understand the phenomenon of fire if we separate these two elements apart.

Like most of the concepts, psychologists find it difficult to give a clear definition of 'Emotion', which led them to invent distinct theories (Keltner et al., 2014). Therefore, this section will shed light on the most intriguing theories of Emotion that have been conceived over time, which have tried to give a clear definition and explanation of Emotion, and eventually display disparate research related to SLA.

2.4.1 Perspectives on Emotion

Before delving deeper into Emotion, let us consider the other terms that are constantly related and used interchangeably with Emotion such as 'Affect', 'Feeling', and 'Mood'. Psychologists and neuroscientists may interpret 'Affect' in two connotations: it can represent all visible features of emotions or rather the physical disruption and bodily apparent aspects like blushes and sobs; or 'Affect' can generally be used to express an influence as being somehow affected by something but not really knowing what the name of that impact is (Wetherell, 2012). The term 'Mood' is used when talking about a state that lasts longer than an emotion. Mood happens for no reason whereas emotions occur for a specific cause, for instance, one may feel anger because of somebody irritating them, however, one happens to be in a bothered mood for no specific justification (Keltner et al., 2014). In short, although 'Mood' and 'Affect' often appear in studies, psychologists tend to use the term 'Emotion' more frequently.

Concerning 'Feelings', this is a more complicated term than the others to be discussed in conjunction/juxtaposition with emotions. Still, psychologists did draw some differences. In particular, feelings are believed to be related to one's previous experiences as Shouse (2005) stated that infants cannot have feelings as they have not yet experienced anything but rather affect and emotions. Additionally, when emotions are believed to be physiological, feelings are thought to be more related to sensations like feeling 'cold' or 'hungry' (Beligon, 2020). Indeed, the definition of 'feeling' goes deeper than that.

From the starting point of Emotion as a field of study, psychologists and other scientists have suggested a number of varied definitions. Despite their variation, there is also some commonality. Plutchik (2003) presents this as follows:

...the notion that emotions are usually triggered by one's interpretations of events, that they involve strong reactions of many bodily systems, that emotional expressions are based on genetic mechanisms, that they communicate information from one person to another, and that they help the individual adapt to changing environmental situations. Such adaptations contribute in some way to the chances of survival and to the regulation of social interactions among people. (p. 1)

This quotation explains that emotions occur in response to different situations, which trigger discernible physical answers. It also claims that emotions are genetically innate and are a route for communication and life adaptation. Yet, these diffused acknowledgements do not impede the difficulty of clearly defining and studying Emotion (Plutchik, 2003). Plutchik (2003) added that this complexity is the reason why only a small number of universities over the world give great importance to Emotion in their courses and research; some psychologists in the 1950s have even

completely dropped including Emotion in their works. This difficulty may be the cause of the miscellaneous theories and approaches introduced from early years until now.

2.4.1.1 Traditional studies of Emotion

Originally, ancient Greek philosophers are considered to be the pioneering thinkers who introduced different continuous perspectives on Emotion as they broke apart thinking and feeling and set forth the role of both cognition and body (Schirmer, 2015). These early conceptions were further developed by René Descartes during the post-Renaissance period, who related emotions to the brain, proposed two layers of emotions known as primary and secondary, and set forth their practicality and useful implication (ibid). Subsequently, the 19th and 20th century saw scientific methods and evidence-based research. This period introduced the Evolutionary, Physiological, Neurological and Psychotherapeutic approaches of mainly Charles Darwin, William James, Walter Cannon and Sigmund Freud, which ultimately influenced recent thinking about Emotion (Plutchik, 2003).

Initially, Darwin, a major contributor in modern biology, published the popular book of emotions—*The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals* (1972). Darwin is known for his theory of evolution as humans had evolved through time from other species. In the same vein, he believed that emotional expressions observed in animals strongly relate to humans as they have evolved as well. He also believed that emotions represent a means of communication and social interaction (Keltner et al., 2014; Plutchik, 2003). James, who is an American psychologist, focused on the nature of emotions, by studying the individual nervous system and how its awakening moves the body and leads to various responses (Keltner et al., 2014; Plutchik, 2003). He thus declared that

"... the bodily changes follow directly the PERCEPTION of the exciting fact, and that our feeling of the same changes as they occur IS the emotion..." (James, 1884, p, 204).

Cannon, the American physician, triggered the interest of the consecutive scientists upon the role of emotions in the brain. His major focus was to identify the locality of emotions in the brain which he could somehow do with a series of cat experiments where he severed different neural connections creating decorticate cats. For instance, these cats when provoked still showed emotions by their behaviour like growling and baring teeth. Cannon could eventually conclude that the parts of the brain that are responsible for generating emotional expressions stand separate from thought areas (Plutchik, 2003; Schirmer, 2015). The fourth famous thinker is Sigmund Freud, the founder of psychoanalysis; he managed to conduct his studies via his depressive, hysterical patients as he claims that adult emotions are derived from the individual's past. He also argued that emotions are not as simple as we think, they represent more complex processes happening in the brain involving whole-life marking events (Keltner et al., 2014; Plutchik, 2003).

These four thinkers have helped as pioneers in the emergence of recent theories on Emotion, leading contemporary psychologists to delve deeper in the study of Emotion. For instance, they have played a major role in the rise of many evolutionary theories such as Robert Plutchik's Psycho-Evolutionary Theory of Emotions or shortly 'PET' (1962). This theory relies on the fact that our emotions are developed through human evolutionary adaptation, mainly an influential inclination of the Darwinian evolutionary theory.

2.4.1.2 Plutchik's Psycho-Evolutionary Theory (PET)

The evolutionary theory has been the core concern of not only biologists but also other scientists, especially psychologists who happened to increasingly shift their interest to investigate the nature

of Emotions. Therefore, many evolutionary based psychologists have emerged so far, including Randolph Nesse (1990), Leda Cosmides and John Tooby (2000), and principally Robert Plutchik (1962). Accordingly, PET consists mainly of some key recurring concepts such as the structural model, the primary and secondary emotions, and the three-dimensional model (Plutchik, 1991, 2003).

There has been a belief among various philosophers and psychologists that some sets of emotions are considered as Basic or Primary, which are responsible for generating other emotions known as 'Secondary Emotions'. Various theorists proposed different numbers of basic Emotions ranging from 3 to 11 primary emotions. As a historical illustration, earlier in the past the French philosopher Rene Descartes (1596-1650) identified six basic emotions (love, hatred, desire, joy, sadness and admiration); the Dutch philosopher Baruch Spinoza (1632-1677) reduced the number to three basic emotions (joy, sorrow and desire). Darwin, however, presented seven groups of emotions which he believed to exist in both humans and animals (1. Low Spirit, Anxiety, Grief, Dejection, Despair; 2. Joy, High Spirit, Love, Tender Feeling, Devotion; 3. Reflection, Meditation, ill-Temperedness, Sulkiness, Determination; 4. Hatred and Anger; 5. Disdain, Contempt, Disgust, Guilt, Pride, Helplessness, Patience, Affirmation and Negation; 6. Surprise, Astonishment, Fear, Horror; 7. and Self-Attention, Shame, Shyness, Modesty, Blushing). This primary and secondary emotion listing trend was later pursued in the 20th century by recent theorists such as Ekman (1973), Izard (1971), Tomkins (1962) and Plutchik (1962).

Plutchik (1991, 2003) explains in his structural model the reason behind the existence of primary and secondary emotions as follows. Firstly, he said that it is obvious that there is intensity in words describing certain emotions, for example 'anger' could be intensified and labelled 'rage', as it can be reduced in intensity and called simply 'annoyance'. This suggests that there may be dimensions encompassing different levels of emotions. Secondly, emotions differ between them such as the

case of 'anger' which is closer to 'disgust' than it is to 'joy'. Thirdly, he states that people have the tendency to refer to emotions in antonyms like love and hate, happiness and sadness, and fear and anger, which is why the dimension of emotions may enclose a bipolar constitution. Conclusively, Plutchik claims that in combining these three conceptions of emotion (intensity, similarity and polarity), we are able to conceive a three-dimensional geometric model that resembles a cone; thus, *"The vertical dimension represents intensity of emotion, any cross-sectional circle represents similarity of emotions, and bipolarity is reflected by opposite points on the circle"* (Plutchik, 2003, p. 103).

Furthermore, Plutchik argues that if there are eight fundamental emotions (Joy, Anger, Anticipation, Disgust, Sorrow, Fear, Surprise, Acceptance), how can we refer to the massive language of emotions? His idea was derived from previous theories such as the model of the colored wheel of Isaac Newton which was further developed by other contemporary theorists. This wheel suggested that each emotion maybe interpreted by a colour as the primary shades are red, blue and yellow and the secondary colors are purple, orange and green; this happens via blending the primary colours and if black and white are added to them, a great range of shades are produced. Relatively, Plutchik adopted this coloured wheel theory and the theory of similarity to his model. That is combining two similar emotions may result in a new emotion, for example, mixing 'disgust' and 'anger' may give 'hatred' or 'hostility'. Hence, combining two or more emotions at different intensity degrees may generate a great number of emotional words.

To finish with the structural model, a last point was impinged; it was noticed that most of the terms used to describe emotions are often used to describe personality traits as well. From this perspective, emotions and personality traits are closely related as personality traits are believed to be derived from a blend of emotions (Plutchik, 2003). Eventually, this idea will be further discussed in the next section.

2.4.2 Emotion and Personality Traits

Traditionally, personality and emotion have been studied and taught separately. However, present research tends to focus on linking them together. Ortony et al. (2005) declared that personality represents the intelligible model of affect, behaviour, cognition and objectives in the same way emotion does in the unification of feeling, action, judgments and desires through a specific time and place. In other words, it is highlighted that *"personality is to emotion as climate is to weather"* (Revelle & Scherer, 2009, p. 01). This acknowledgment indicates that personality and emotion are connected to each other and cannot be kept apart.

Additionally, Plutchik (2003) explained in his structural model that the link between emotion and personality traits is noticed when an emotional state is regularly perceived within an individual. For instance, someone who has frequent expression of fear can mean that they have the characteristics of a timid person. The same goes with anger, which may allude to a troublesome person. Plutchik (1991) also claimed that the combination of two or more emotions can lead to the creation of a personality trait.

To clarify further, Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) illustrated that it has been found so far that anxiety is deeply involved in the dimension of Neuroticism/Emotional Stability, previously defined in this chapter in the Big Five Model. Additionally, Dewaele (2013a) has found that anxiety is also greatly connected with highly introverted students as it may lead them to perform badly when learning a second language. On the other hand, considering positive emotions, it was asserted that people who hold regular traits such as surprise, pleasure or pride are more likely to experience positive emotions like joy (Revelle & Scherer, 2009).

Eventually, it is apparent that personality traits and emotions have much in common being complementary and interrelated as they cannot be kept apart. It is thus important to consider them both in the field of Education and particularly in Second Language Learning and Teaching.

2.4.3 Emotion and SLA

It is widely recognized that emotions occupy a significant part in our daily life. However, they have been neglected to a certain extent if not minorly dealt with especially in Psychology and Education (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). Dörnyei (2005) claimed that this disregard may originally date back from the ancient Western conceptions where they set apart emotion and reason; that is why most early SLA research accentuates the cognitive dimension of learning. Nonetheless, when researchers noticed the existence of emotional factors, they principally started regarding the impact of 'anxiety' on second language learning (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015).

In the same vein, Schutz and Pekrun (2007) agreed that although classrooms were apparent to hold an emotional atmosphere, the emergence of the study of emotion in the field of education took an amount of time. They added that from thousands of studies held in emotion and education, most of them seemed to be interested in the phenomenon of 'anxiety', not taking into account other emotions such as disagreeable emotions (e.g., anger, hopelessness, shame and boredom) or agreeable emotions (e.g., enjoyment, hope and pride). In spite of that, the awareness of the importance of emotions in education and SLA has arisen in recent years, which led many scholars to conduct in-depth investigations.

Just like personality traits, there have been studies about emotion in education chiefly assessing students' achievements. 'Emotions achievements' as labelled by Heckhausen (1991) are those emotions that lead to quality or good activity outcomes. For instance, students may experience joy

and pride when attaining certain activities' target whereas others may experience shame and anger if they fail to do a task (Pekrun et al., 2007). Besides, there may be other types of emotions which occur during classroom tasks such as boredom or anger when instructions are not met by the students' needs, and vice versa with excitement. Yet, it is important to know that not all emotions are success related; some may be social like the case of developing an affection for classmates (Ibid, 2007).

Furthermore, Pekrun et al. (2007) set forth the theory of control-value, which denotes that the estimation of both value and control are essential for an achievement emotion to occur. In other words, when students value their learning environment and are confident about their success, they will enjoy learning, whereas if they are not interested, they will get bored easily. Likewise, if students believe they are going to fail because they know the exam is too important, they will experience anxiety, whereas if they do not think that the exam is valuable, there would be no fear. Accordingly, this theory suggests that:

values influence both the type of emotion experienced and its intensity. If an activity or outcome is valued positively, as implied by approach goals, positive emotions are assumed to be instigated. If the subjective value of the activity or outcome is negative, as implied by goals to avoid the activity or outcome, negative emotions are thought to be aroused (Pekrun et al., 2007, p. 22)

In short, it is believed that value and control play an important role in task achievements when positive emotions are displayed. Still, does this imply that positive emotions affect learning positively and negative emotions do the reverse? Pekrun et al. (2007) stated that it can be logically interpreted that to achieve a positive activity-related task, enjoyment for example may lead to

positive outcomes and negative emotions like boredom may lead to poor results. However, negative emotions like anger, shame and anxiety are regarded to be more complex. That is, an anxious student may work harder when there is stress surrounding them and thus succeed. This may be one of the reasons why 'anxiety' has intrigued the interest of many researchers (e.g, Gkonou et al., 2017; Horwitz, 2010; MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012; Spielmann & Radnofsky, 2001; Teimoun et al., 2019)

Correspondingly, SLA researchers have sought language anxiety as having the greatest impact on language learning as it is perceived to entail emotions of fear and worry from learning or using a language that is new and not familiar (MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012). Some language researchers even regarded language anxiety as an independent factor from trait anxiety because negative emotions are enticed only in learning situations (e.g. communication reluctant and having low academic grades) (MacIntyre, 1999).

In spite of the various studies that supported the idea that anxiety is primarily linked with negative and poor language performance) there are some studies that have actually shown that facilitative anxiety promotes learning. (Ehrman & Oxford, 1995). Yet, it was also suggested that there are rather levels of what they have called 'tension', a concept which is related to anxiety, that can be either damaging or helpful to language learning (Spielmann & Radnofsky, 2001). Therefore, speaking of levels, this can be referred to as layers of emotions just like previously proposed by Plutchik.

Detaching from anxiety as the sole significant emotion, there are indeed other emotions that play an important role in class. Respectively, in a research study conducted by Imai (2010) at Sophia University in Tokyo, he pondered over the role of emotions in SLA. Imai assessed the way second language learners expressed their emotions towards their course verbally throughout a whole semester. He found that disparate emotions were present along their learning courses such as

"confusion, boredom, regret, and empathy" (p. 288). These emotions occurred as a result of the students' goals' obstructions encountered in class. Imai eventually concluded that emotions do not necessarily help or stop students' inner cognition from learning as it was found that even emotions allegedly adverse to language learning like boredom and anger can be subject to achievements, depending on the way individuals control their emotions and make sense of their learning.

In another research conducted at the Institute of Languages at the Federal University of Minas Gerais in Brazil by Aragao (2011), the aim was to identify the possible relationship between students' beliefs and emotions towards foreign language learning. Aragao used a qualitative research design and collected data from narrative writings and visual representations. The findings highlighted that there is a close relationship between self-beliefs and emotions in foreign language learning. For instance, emotions like fear, embarrassment and shyness are firmly linked with the way students believe in themselves and their attitudes towards the foreign language. Therefore, self-esteem and self-concept about language learning can engender negative emotions which are considered to hinder learning.

On the other hand, some researchers have opted for the study of motivation in relation to emotion as these two constructs are believed to be deeply inter-related. Accordingly, MacIntyre and Vincze (2017) conducted a study on both positive and negative emotions in relation to motivation in second language learning. They worked with monolingual Italian secondary school students studying German as their second language. Results indicated that positive emotions are more strongly connected with motivation-related variables than with negative emotions; the only negative emotions that showed a link were anger and hate.

2.5 Motivation

Motivation has always been among the most studied concepts in Psychology and Education as well. Why are people sometimes motivated and sometimes not? What is it behind people's behaviors and choices in life? And what triggers the process of motivation? These questions and many others reflect the complexity of the construct, mainly because motivation approaches different sub-disciplines within Psychology and is profoundly involved in each of them (Petri & Govern, 2004; Wagner, 1999).

This section will start by defining the term 'motivation', then browse into some of the captivating motivation theories paving the way for the relationship between motivation, emotions and personality. At the end, research and works about motivation in SLA will be introduced.

2.5.1 Definition of Motivation

It is acknowledged that the most difficult task of motivation theorists is to give a clear explanation of what is meant by 'motivation'. The diversity in the existing definitions is above all due to the different perspectives each theorist holds regarding the role of motivation (Beck, 2004). Notwithstanding, it is agreed that motivation is derived from the Latin word 'movere', signifying 'to move'. From this point, Beck (2004) highlighted that motivation has to do with "movements, or actions, and what determines them" (p. 03).

In other words, motivation fundamentally drives individuals to act to accomplish a goal, or to satisfy a need or expectation, for all behaviors are meant to come under a force (motivation), except natural reflexes (Gopalan et al., 2017; Wagner, 1999). It was also mentioned that the concept of motivation is usually used to refer to the 'intensity' of behaviours, that is intense behaviours are

the result of higher motivation and vice versa; or the ‘persistence’, that is persistence behaviours come from a higher motivation despite the low intensity of certain behaviours (Petri & Govern, 2004). On the other hand, Dörnyei (2001) argues that ‘motivation’ is simply a theoretical or hypothetical word used to clarify the reasons behind people’s actions and thoughts.

The study of motivation has originally appeared in the field of philosophy and physiology. Biologically speaking, it was assumed by the instinct approach that all behaviours are genetically programmed and somehow these behaviours take place to reduce the motivation. On the other hand, another approach posited that when a change is detected, brain circuits are activated resulting in motivation and apparent behaviours (Petri & Govern, 2004). Indeed, motivation has seen a paradigm shift from different core fields starting from ‘biologically based drive perspective’ to ‘behavioural-mechanistic perspective and then a ‘cognitive-mediational/ constructivist perspective’ (Eccles et al., 1998). It has led to the emergence of multiple theories which have tried somehow to explain and classify ‘motivation’ into distinctive types and categories. That is why motivation cannot be defined by only one definition.

2.5.2 Motivation Theories

2.5.2.1 Maslow’s Hierarchy of needs

In the 1940s a new approach was presented to humanistic psychology by Abraham Harold Maslow (1908-1970), who has worked throughout his career on classifying human needs (Pichère & Cadiat, 2015). His followers later formalized his views and proposals and established a sort of pyramid to explain his approach (ibid, 2015).

Maslow’s conception is that human motivation is based on a hierarchy which he named ‘hierarchy of needs’ (see Figure 1.1). He refers to the existence of five levels of needs (physiological needs,

security needs, recognition needs (love), esteem needs and accomplishment needs). Maslow assumes that human needs are hierarchical, where they are subject to priority needs. For instance, the hierarchy moves from the lowest level of the pyramid which are physiological needs to socio-psychological needs with higher order needs (Rakowski, 2008). Maslow says that when a low level is satisfied, motivation climbs to the upper level of needs and this cannot be reversed (Drakopoulos & Grimani, 2013).

Figure 1: Maslow's Hierarchy of needs



Source: <https://www.studymumbai.com/wp-content/uploads/maslows-need-hierarchy-theory.jpg>

The first two lower levels of the hierarchy are described as 'Basic needs' which are fundamentally important to be satisfied before attaining other drives (Wagner, 1999). Accordingly, physiological needs refer to homeostatic needs such as thirst and hunger and non-homeostatic drives such as sex. Security needs, on the other hand, refer to the need to be safe and out of danger such as having a shelter or being financially secure (King, 2009). As an illustration, Maslow asserts that an artist

cannot make use of their creativity when they are starving and out awaiting adversity (Wagner, 1999).

The next two higher order levels are known as 'Psychological needs'. First comes 'love' or 'recognition needs' for after having accomplished the basic needs, people look for societal integration, acceptance and love (King, 2009). Subsequently, 'Esteem needs' follow, which either mean self-esteem (achievements and proficiencies) or seeking admiration and acceptance from others (Griffin, 2011). Finally, Maslow puts accomplishment needs or 'self-actualization needs' at the top of human motivation as they involve curiosity and killing boredom. People engaging at this level are thought to be on 'a high personal level' (Wagner, 1999). However, this level depends on each individual's wants and desires to fulfill their needs as it may come in a form of seeking knowledge, beauty or happiness (Griffin, 2011).

Consequently, this prevailing approach served many other theorists to conduct their works like the case of Clayton Alderfer in the late 1960s, who expanded and reformulated Maslow's needs hierarchy via adding other relevant needs (Existence, Relatedness, and Growth) in his so-called ERG theory (Kessler, 2013). Another well-known theorist who made use of Maslow's theory as a basis for his approach is MacClelland as he introduced three main motivators (Affiliation, Power, and Achievements), which are thought to vary in degree among individuals depending on their dominant needs (Miner, 2007).

2.5.2.2 Drive Reduction Theory

In early 1950s, Drive Theory came to substitute the instinct theory, thus two sets of dimensions were proposed: internal drives which are related to physiological needs such as being hungry or in pain; or external drives which occur due to the changes in the external environment like the case

of the presence of an attractive person or a yummy meal (Beck, 2004; Nevid, 2018; Petri & Govern, 2004). It stems from the basis of homeostasis, where the body works to sustain a stable internal state (Nevid, 2018). For example, when the body needs sugar, hunger appears, and the person needs to eat to reduce this need (Nevid, 2018).

In other words, Clark Hull (an American psychologist who looked for explaining motivation and learning via scientific laws of behaviour) believed that people have biological needs such as being hungry or thirsty and they constantly strive to satisfy and reduce those needs, which was later referred to as Drive Reduction (Nevid, 2018). However, those needs are not all the time biological for they can be psychological such as the need for comfort and safety (Ibid, 2018). Internal drives are called primary needs and those learnt via experiences such as how to attain certain goals in life are called secondary needs (Beck, 2004; Nevid, 2018).

Different from instinct theory, drive theory plays an important role in learning. For instance, we may learn to order a pizza when we are hungry and thus reduce the need which is likely to be repeated next time when the need arises (Beck, 2004; Nevid, 2018). Beck (2004) stated that “learned drives”, like ‘fear’, are enticed from previous internal stimuli like ‘pain’. Nevertheless, this theory has been regarded as deficient since it is concerned only with the reduction of unpleasant feelings, whereas people may have drives that generate pleasant feelings.

2.5.2.3 Incentive Motivation

First and foremost, it is important to initially look at the meaning of the concept of incentives. It is generally known as ‘goal object’ which motivates people as this goal differs among individuals and through time and place (Petri & Govern, 2004). Contrary to other theories which support that motivation is innate, this theory suggests that incentives are not internal drives but rather acquired

through external stimuli (ibid, 2004). For example, one can eat a big meal and is satiated but once he sees a delicious dessert, he is then tempted; the dessert here is an incentive (an external stimulus) (Brown, 2007).

In the early 1950s, the approach of incentive motivation was put into the scene by some theorists like Hull and Spence, where the basic idea was that the aspects of the individual's goal determine the change in their behaviour (Petri & Govern, 2004). Beck (2004) said that *“the concept of incentive motivation is based on the idea that rewards do not necessarily affect specific responses. Rather, the anticipation of rewards arouses whatever responses might be effective in obtaining the rewards”* (p, 206). It has been further explained by experiments done on rats where it was noticed that rats run faster and perform better in a maze when introduced to larger rewards (Petri & Govern, 2004). In other words, the type of rewards or incentives are the cause of behavioural change.

Recent perspectives on this theory suggest that incentive motivation is a result of mental processes. This process encloses internal neural activities like hunger and thirst and neural activities linked to external stimuli like an attracting person or food (Beck, 2004). This outlook has led to the introduction of two other types of motivation (intrinsic and extrinsic), which will be further considered in the following section.

2.5.2.4 Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation

Psychologists have always tried to answer the question ‘Why do behaviours occur?’, that is why two explanations emerged: people are either motivated under biological needs and desires such as hunger and thirst, or they are externally driven by a reward or shunned by a reprimand (Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000). This indicates that motivation is in all circumstances goal oriented. However,

later researchers pondered upon another type of motivation where people act or do things only by means of pleasure and amusement, which was later labelled as ‘intrinsic motivation’ (ibid, 2000). Intrinsic motivation is thought to be grounded in the innate, evolving needs for ‘competence’ and ‘self-determination’, where the initial rewards implicate experiences of ‘affectance’ and ‘autonomy’ (Deci & Ryan, 1985). In this sense, children are seen to experience learning intrinsically when facing challenges and solving puzzles, and the same thing happens in many situations with adults when painting or playing sports for example (ibid, 1985). Notwithstanding, Deci and Ryan (1985) define intrinsic motivation as “*the energy source that is central to the active nature of all organism*” (p: 11). In other words, intrinsic motivation involves behaviours that lead to internal rewards such as satisfaction rather than external rewards like money and food (Deci, 1975).

On the other hand, extrinsic motivation refers to behaviours or actions undertaken under the pretense of obtaining a result. Contrary to intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation happens because of external drives as many believe that it is nonautonomous. Nonetheless, the self-determination theory of Deci and Ryan suggests that intrinsic motivation varies in the degree of autonomy. For instance, a child doing their homework because they fear punishments and a student doing their project because they want a great career in the future; both cases are extrinsically driven but the first one is being controlled whereas in the second one the student has a choice (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

In short, Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation give a clear description of motivation. These types reveal two kinds of contrasting perspectives regarding the occurrence of human behaviours: one view supports the fact that motivation happens out of pleasure and the other view supports the existence of goals and external reinforcements.

2.5.3 Motivation and Emotions

The field of psychology regards emotion and motivation as very broad constructs that have unknown limits (Evans, 2014). Accordingly, it is widely acknowledged among laymen that people may do things because they are enjoyable and avoid things because they are hurtful (ibid, 2014). This view brought many theorists to jointly consider and study emotions and motivation, for both motivation and emotion reside in deep biological, psychological and social dimensions (deCatanzaro, 1999).

Originally, philosophers have always asked why people behave the way they do. It was always a debate between ‘Passion’ and ‘Reason’ (Beck, 2004). For instance, philosophers like Socrates perceived that people act according to what they think is right and logical, whereas scholars like Epicurus and Aristotle, asserted that people act out of passion as they do what pleases them and avoid what causes pain (deCatanzaro, 1999). With this in mind, William James (1890-1910) conjectured that there were two main sources of motivation, first are instincts derived from mechanisms founded through human evolution; and second is the occurrence of emotions where he explained that people behave according to how they feel (fearful, happy, sad or embarrassed) (Petri & Govern, 2004).

From what has been said so far and apart from cognition, emotions serve at least partially in motivation. Evans (2014) stated that the connection between emotions and motivation is not surprising when looking at their root, which is the same Latin word ‘movere’ meaning ‘to move’. It was then clearly stated that “*Our Emotions and drive are inextricably linked*” (deCatanzaro, 1999, p. 1). As an illustration for the presence of emotions, the Optimal Arousal theory of motivation is useful, which refers to the degree by which people feel themselves motivated mainly at the emotional level as it explores four intense emotions: Excitement, Relaxation, Boredom and

Anxiety (Apter, 1989). The main conception of this theory is that people seek external stimuli in order to feel optimal satisfaction (Bisson, 2009).

2.5.4 Motivation and Personality

It has been stated in the previous sections that personality trait theory deals with what makes people different from each other. In this sense, some theories opted to study those differences at the motivational level (Beck, 2004). Accordingly, many support the fact that personality traits are stable and invariable, however, some suggest that they may vary in terms of motivation. For instance, Chamorro-Premuzic (2011) highlighted that individuals may act differently because they vary in their personality traits, but this may not be the only cause as he illustrates this by someone who is known to be friendly, calm and easy-going, but may not act the same way if his wife was diagnosed with cancer. This example is classified under the concepts of mood and motivation as, unlike personality, they constantly vary.

Differently, the dynamic motivational theories such as the achievement motivation theory suggest that people strive for goals or incentives which may differ from one person to another, for example, a person can be described as “power hungry” which means that they work hard to reach the position of power and another one can be described as “high achiever” to mean that they aim for success (Beck, 2004). In the same vein, Beck (2004) stated that extroversion may be regarded as having positively high motivational traits and Neuroticism may have low motivational traits such as fear and distress.

Therefore, it is clear that personality cannot be studied alone to understand individual differences. Motivation is therefore an intriguing field to explore the change in individual behaviours. Thus, it is essential to combine the study of the stable side (personality) and the changing side (motivation).

To expand more, the relationship between motivation and personality traits was also highlighted in the biology of motivational control system explained by the theory of ‘reward’ and ‘punishment’ (Corr et al., 2013). In other words, motivation is believed to be standing in the basic systems of ‘approach’ and ‘avoidance’ depending on the individual's objectives (ibid, 2013). This means that avoiding punishments may be a sort of motivation for some individuals as well as with approaching success for others. Corr et al. (2013) have concluded in their review about personality and motivation that:

Basic motivational systems relating to reward and punishment seem well poised to provide the mechanistic basis for Extraversion and Neuroticism and their sub-traits, and they may also play important roles in Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, and Openness/Intellect. (p.171)

Correspondingly, one of the subfactors of Neuroticism was related to withdrawal including traits like anxiety, vulnerability, and self-consciousness (DeYoung et al., 2007). These traits may therefore lead to seeking avoidance for these people. Differently, extraversion was found to have two subfactors: 1. assertiveness which includes traits like drive, leadership and dominance and, as a result, may lead those people to reach rewards; and 2. enthusiasm which is related to friendliness and sociability and seeking positive emotions (ibid, 2007).

Regarding Openness to Experience, people who share this trait are known for their curiosity, which means that getting answers may be rewarding for them (Corr et al., 2013). Furthermore, concerning conscientiousness, people are known for their motivation to succeed (Markon et al., 2005). Indeed, this may be an indication of their avoidance of failure or their approach to success (Corr et al., 2013). Finally, Agreeableness may be defined as motivation towards other people as, like Conscientiousness, they have two motivational drives: rewards (pleasing and helping others) or punishments (failing to satisfy or hurting people) (ibid, 2013).

Regardless of the biological perspectives of the relationship between motivation and personality traits, many studies have tackled this topic in the educational setting (Clark & Schroth, 2010; Ghapanchi et al., 2011; Kaufman et al, 2008; Komarraju & Karau, 2005; Komarraju et al., 2009). Accordingly, Kaufman et al. (2008), who looked at two types of academic motivation, found that intrinsically motivated students were mainly extroverted, agreeable, conscientious and open to experience. On the contrary, extrinsically motivated students were extroverted and neurotic. However, Komarraju et al. (2009) found that intrinsically motivated college students were conscientious and open to experience wherein extrinsically motivated students were conscientious, extroverted and neurotic. They also found that students who lacked motivation were disagreeable and lacked conscientiousness.

Another study done by Clark and Schroth (2010) on college students indicated that intrinsically motivated students were mainly extroverted, agreeable, conscientious and open to experience whereas students who were extrinsically motivated were mainly extroverted, agreeable, conscientious and neurotic. It was also found that students lacking motivation tended to be disagreeable and careless. Despite the fact that the above-mentioned studies revealed different results, there are also some similarities and it is clear that they all come to the point that different personality characteristics could be matched with different types of motivation given individuals' different priorities.

Eventually, this relationship has also been highlighted in the field of language learning in a few studies where a significant relationship between personality factors and L2 motivation was found (e.g., Ghapanchi et al., 2011, Lalonde & Gardner, 1984). For instance, in a regression analysis among Iranian EFL students, it was found that personality is related to both L2 motivation and target language proficiency (Ghapanchi et al., 2011). Hence, motivation is not only related to

students' personalities but also the process of language learning, which will be further expanded in the next section.

2.5.5 L2 Motivation

Motivation is considered among the most frequently studied psychological factors in L2 learning as massive literature has been produced so far (Ushioda, 2012). The reason behind this interest is indeed clear since motivation is seen to be the first push to start learning a language and “the driving force” to continue the lengthy process of learning (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Ushioda, 2014). Additionally, Ushioda (2012) stated that while babies do not seem to have difficulty in acquiring their mother tongue, this is completely different with learning a second language. Therefore, motivation may be one of the key variables that differentiate first language acquisition from SLA and people's approach to learning (Ushioda, 2012).

Hadfield and Dörnyei (2013) claimed that most teachers perceive successful students as highly motivated, and unsuccessful students as less motivated if not at all. To this end, it is widely acknowledged that learners lacking motivation are unlikely to succeed even with the best teaching methods and curricula or at their greatest learning capacities (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013).

Consequently, many L2 motivation theories have emerged which have tried somehow to explain the concept independently from motivational psychology. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) argued that the field of L2 motivation has basically tried to cover particular social, psychological, behavioural and cultural intricacies that determine language learning, which in a sense separate it from other kinds of motivation. Notwithstanding, recent researchers reconsidered the need to align L2 motivation theory with the prevailing motivational psychology via integrating theoretical views

related to language learning (Ushioda, 2012). In this sense, Ushioda (2012) stated that “...*need for achievement, expectancy of success, or goal-setting, may usefully inform our analysis of L2 motivation processes and L2 learner behaviours*” (p. 60).

Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) divided the timescale of L2 motivation into three phases, mainly: the socio-psychological era (Integrative motivation, Robert Gardner and associates, 1959), the cognitive-situated era (e.g., self-determination model, Deci & Ryan, 1985), and the process-oriented era (L2 Motivation Self System, Dörnyei, 2005, 2009). From these eras, two theories will be displayed in the following lines.

2.5.5.1 Integrative motivation

The rise of L2 motivation research is known to have initiated in Canada in the 1990s by two socio-psychological researchers namely Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). Respectively, Gardner’s “socio-educational model” is considered to be the primary and most influential model in L2 motivational history (Gu, 2009). This model represents a dynamic theory, which implies that attitudes and motivation influence language achievement and vice versa (Gardner, 2001).

Gardner (2010) saw students’ desire and competence to learn aspects of another community as a major lead in the process of language learning which has been captured in the concept of ‘Integrativeness’. Gardner (2001) assumes that integrative motivation refers to developing a near-native like L2 and how positively the students relate themselves to the community and the target language. In other words, integrative motivation represents students’ “*genuine interest in learning the second language in order to come closer to the other language community*” (Gardner, 2001, p. 5).

Contrary to integrative motivation, another type of motivation has been proposed known as “instrumental motivation”. It is therefore characterized by “a goal to gain some social or economic reward through L2 achievement, thus referring to a more functional reason for language learning” (Carrió-Pastor & Mestre Mestre, 2013, p. 1). However, though the wide use of the diptych instrumental/integrative motivation, instrumental motivation has not received considerable interest like Gardner’s concept of integrativeness (Dörnyei, 2001).

Despite the fact that integrative motivation has gained massive applause from different scholars, others disagreed with this concept as they claimed that it is not well developed to exactly explain L2 motivation (Dörnyei, 2015). For instance, Dörnyei (2009) indicated that the concept of integrativeness and integrative motivation is quite cryptic and in the circumstances of foreign language learning, it has no sense without a direct connection with the target language society. That is why, based on Markus and Nurius’s (1986) possible selves, Dörnyei introduced three new dimensions: 1. “the Ideal L2 Self”, where students are more willing to imagine themselves speaking the target language rather than trying to ‘integrate’ into a foreign society (Włosowicz, 2013). 2. “the Ought-to L2 Self” which refers to hallmark students want to achieve to meet their expectation and stay away from eventual negative outcomes (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). 3. “the L2 Learning Experience” which reflects on the students' actual experience encompassing the surrounding motivating impacts such as the teacher, the curriculum, or the peer group (Ibid).

2.5.5.2 Self and Motivation

Pajares and Schunk (2002) have noticed that by the beginning of the century, the concept of ‘self’ has dominated research on motivation in education, as observed in concepts such as self-efficacy, self-esteem, self-belief, self-regulation and self-determination (previously explained in this

chapter). Originally, Markus and Nurius have published in 1986 a paper under the title of ‘Possible selves’ which marked the start for the interest in ‘self’ as an intriguing concept to be explored (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013). To this end, self-concept emerged. It refers to images of what one might become, wants to become and fears of becoming (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013; Ushioda, 2012). Subsequently, Dörnyei’s theory of L2 Motivational Self System appeared to be the most influential ‘self’ theory of its era (Dörnyei, 2015).

Self-concept came to reshape what was previously known as integrative and instrumental motivation in more elaborate terms, “Ideal self” and “Ought-to self”, clearly defined in Dörnyei’s Motivational Self System (Dörnyei 2005, 2009; Ushioda, 2012). Ideal L2 self refers to the vision of the L2 features one wants to attain and sees themselves as capable of bridging the gap between their actual self and future ideal self (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013; Ushioda, 2012). On the other hand, the ought-to L2 self represents the L2 aspects one ought to obtain to reach expectations and avoid negative consequences (such as failure in exams or upsetting parents) (Dörnyei, 2015; Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013; Ushioda, 2012). Additionally, Dörnyei added a third component, ‘the L2 learning experience’, which is not directly concerned with self but rather the environment and experience influencing it such as the teacher, the curriculum, the classmates and the experience of achievements (Dörnyei, 2015; Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013).

In short, Hadfield and Dörnyei (2013) conclude that:

the L2 Motivational Self System suggests that there are three primary sources of the motivation to learn a foreign/second language: the learner’s vision of her/himself as an effective L2 speaker, the social pressure from the learner’s environment and positive learning experiences (p. 4).

Eventually, research on L2 motivation has touched far beyond the socio-psychological and cognitive edges, as it sought to overview the whole learner's L2 motivational self-system.

2.5.5.3 Motivation and Emotion

From the rich literature that has been generated so far, it has been observed that motivation possesses a colossal value in the field of SLA. However, emotions seem to be shunned and not discussed despite the significant link highlighted previously in this section (Ross, 2015b). Indeed, although anxiety and confidence have been in the focus of many studies, still the neglect of other emotions is obvious (ibid, 2015b). Ross (2015b) posited that the reasons behind this disregard are abundant but confusing. One of the prominent reasons which may explain the little consideration is that emotions are hardly observable in an objective and reliable context (Rosenberg & Fredrickson, 1998).

Lopez and Aguillar (2013) reflected on the fact that emotions are present in every level of learning, especially in language learning, which is why it is highly recommended not to underestimate the role of emotions in language learning. Similarly, Oxford (1990, 2011) considered the affective side of the learner as one of the strongest determinants on achievement and failure in language learning. Moreover, emotion acts like an amplifier which generates energy to all human behaviour especially in language learning (Oxford, 2015). On the other hand, Ross (2015a) concluded in his thesis, where he explored the relationship between emotions and motivation in English language learning, that there is an important and special relationship between emotions, motivation and a learner's ideal self.

In short, Ross (2015b) argued that research had to start with investigating the cognitive side of learners (motivation) in order to explain language learning obstacles to later notice the gap and

start looking into the affective side of learners (emotions). Despite the complexity of researching emotions, there is a new stream about investigating affect into learning (ibid, 2015b).

2.6 Teacher-student rapport

2.6.1 Definition of rapport

Rapport can be experienced between family members, colleagues, friends, clients or even with new acquaintances (Manusov & Petterson, 2006). Rapport is described in many dictionaries as a 'harmonious relationship' or a 'relationship of mutual trust' (as cited in Ikiugu & Ciaravino, 2007, p. 129). Ikiugu and Ciaravino (2007) highlighted that a relation of mutual trust demands being authentic via communicating respect, care and empathy. Even though rapport and relationship are used interchangeably they are not synonyms, for rapport is regarded as a dynamic bond which yields an efficient interaction, whereas a relationship can experience non-efficient interactions such as quarrels and misunderstandings (Izard, 2002). Nonetheless, rapport can be a way for establishing or maintaining a good relationship. Gremler and Gwinner (2000) explained that rapport can function at the level of two dimensions: a personal attachment and an agreeable communication.

Originally, the notion of rapport and rapport building emerged from NLP (Neurolinguistic Programming). It is the result of "detailed observations and analysis of the words, voice tone, and body language used by expert therapists to establish rapport and effect changes in others" (Clabby & O'Connor, 2004, p. 541). Respectively, NLP suggests that succeeding in life demands having good relationships with people (Hamill & Kerr, 2013). For instance, rapport can be noticed in everyday life when people are deeply engaged in a conversation around a table; chatting at the bus

station; or when starting a conversation with someone one has just met and it goes on as if they have known them forever (Alder, 2002; Gibson, 2011).

Gibson (2011) argued that building rapport does not necessarily involve total agreement; it is simply showing interest and comprehension. In the same sense, Revell and Norman (1997) expounded that:

Rapport is the heart of a successful communication with other people. It's a way of maximizing similarities and minimizing differences between people at a non-conscious level. Without it, communication can fail, conflict can arise and everyone tends to lose out. With it, communication is positive and harmonious, and everyone is more likely to be happy and to achieve their outcomes (1997: 16)

To establish good rapport, one needs to match their behaviour with the addressee, and this may happen under three levels: language, voice and body (O'Connor 2012), i.e. the language represents the familiarity of the words being said, the voice refers to the tone, the speed and the volume, and the body encompasses gestures, facial expressions, posture and breathing (Gibson, 2011).

To this end, rapport has been widely known in fields like therapeutic and business, where building rapport with clients is essential. Still, rapport has also been researched in the field of education and concerns between the teacher and their students. The next section will thoroughly address this topic.

2.6.2 Rapport in Education

Based on the previous definitions of rapport, Brown and Lee (2015) construed that rapport is the relationship that is built upon trust and respect and can lead students feel themselves productive,

efficient and adept. Teachers who know the importance of rapport with their students have the tendency to work on it from the beginning of the year and strive to maintain it all along, as it allows the teacher and students to enjoy themselves and work in a pleasant atmosphere (Paterson, 2005). Likewise, Claridge and Lewis (2005) claimed that building a good connection with students is the path towards success.

Nevertheless, building rapport at the beginning can be simple for many teachers but the art of maintaining it is not exerted by everyone. Teachers often engage in behaviours that may lead to crush the rapport between their students (Buskist & Benassi, 2012). For instance, a study conducted by Thweatt and McCroskey (1998) and continuously by Richmond and McCroskey (2006), came with a series of teacher misbehaviour actions that students claimed to kill rapport such as coming late, being unprepared, suddenly canceling the class, insulting students, lacking knowledge, providing no feedback and giving irrelevant work to do. Ellis (2004) asserted that the primary role of a teacher is to promote learning, as more research needs to be done to investigate the required behaviours to be performed for the improvement of learning.

It was reported that building a good relationship with students can allow the teacher to construct a positive classroom atmosphere, for students score high in their grades when there is a mutual and frequent interaction with their teachers (Schaps et al., 1997; Wasley, 2006). Accordingly, it is acknowledged among many researchers that there is an apparent correlation between teacher-students' relationship and academic competence and achievement (e.g. Gest & Welsh, 2005; Shaps et al., 1997; Valiente et al., 2008; Wasley, 2006; Wentzel & Wigfield, 1998).

One of the main tools for good quality interaction between the teacher and students is communication (Ilie & Frasinianu, 2019). Ilie and Frasinianu (2019) added that the quality of teacher-student communication affects the quality of interaction, as it was stated that *“Didactic communication is a type of inter-human communication that aims to produce, provoke or induce a*

change in the behaviour of the "receiver"'" (2019: 62). Therefore, communication between the teacher and students should be assertive and effective, receptive and understanding (ibid, 2019). Besides, the embodiment of didactic communication is approached differently in just one educational institution as their area of study and this is mainly because each teacher has his/her own perspectives, personality and teaching philosophy (ibid, 2019).

2.6.2.1 Teacher-student rapport and SLA

Few studies have concentrated on the direct relationship between rapport and students' academic achievements in SLA. However, the topic of teacher-student rapport has been tackled and discussed by different scholars, showing the importance of building rapport with EFL students (e.g, Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003; Gkonou, 2021; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Joe et al, 2017; Lamb, 2017; Moskovsky et al, 2012; Nguyen, 2007; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012; Sánchez et al., 2013, Suryati, 2015). Respectively, Suryati (2015) claims that the target language is rarely used outside of the class by EFL learners since it is not their mother tongue, which makes the classroom the only primary input to practice the language, usually via teacher-student interaction. Therefore, building rapport can be efficient to establish communication with students through using the target language (Swenson, 2010; Webb & Barrett, 2014).

In addition, according to Sanchez et al. (2013), the relationship between the teacher and students can be a significant factor for students when acquiring a second language. For instance, teachers can use the target language to give instructions and information to EFL students and they can, in turn, learn the language and use it to communicate with the teacher (Nguyen, 2007). Moreover, in a study done in the Chinese EFL context (Ma et al., 2018) and focusing on the association between teacher-student relationship and academic achievement via a multiple mediation model of self-

efficacy, cognitive strategy, metacognitive strategy and academic performance, the authors found that positive teacher-student relationship can help increase students' English proficiency by promoting self-efficacy and learning strategy as mediators. This model was used to facilitate the explanation of the link between teacher-student relationship and self-efficacy, cognitive strategy, metacognitive strategy and academic performance.

Correspondingly, significant classroom achievement relies on reaching positive teacher-student interaction in the classroom (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003). Thus, when looking into research about teacher methodologies in class, we find that building and maintaining a good relationship with students by centering on positive attitudes and behaviours of teachers, the teachers' support of their students' self-confidence, and teachers' skills in promoting a healthy relationship is a fundamental factor to effective learning and teaching (Lamb, 2017). Accordingly, based on a theoretical study, Nova (2017) highlighted 11 principles for building rapport: 1. knowing students, 2. working together, 3. establishing trust, 4. being fair and balanced, 5. sharing information, 6. sharing feeling, 7. sharing experience, 8. sharing humor, 9. listening attentively, 10. using non-verbal interactions, 11. giving feedback.

In addition to academic achievement, other outcomes were found to promote learning such as a sense of wellbeing, motivation, willingness to participate, willingness to communicate, positive attitudes and trust (Agustina & Cahyono, 2016; Bouras & Keskes, 2014; Çetin et al., 2014; Frisby et al., 2016; Jaasma & Koper, 1999; Lamb, 2017; Sanchez et al., 2013). For instance, Çetin et al (2014) conducted a study on EFL experienced teachers as well as new teachers and their students. Their aim was to investigate the relationship between teachers' experience as instructors and students' approach to their relationship with their teachers using a questionnaire focusing on teacher interaction. Results showed that students perceived experienced teachers as more co-

operative than others and that their relationship had a great impact on students' attitudes towards the course and the teacher.

Another study which was conducted in different universities all over Mexico (Sanchez et al., 2013) used interviews with students of different ages attending EFL classes. The aim of this study was to know the impact of teacher-student relationship on EFL learning. Results showed that “*students' sense of well-being, attitudes, and willingness to learn are improved when teachers demonstrate empathy, interest in student development, and respect*” (Sanchez et al, 2013: 01). In the same vein, a qualitative study which investigated teacher-student relationship and teachers' feedback on writing tasks (Lee & Schallert, 2008) showed that the students who had a trusting relationship with the teacher made changes to their work after receiving feedback from that teacher. However, one of the students who seemed to have less connectivity with the teacher did not take into consideration the feedback and made no changes to the paper.

All the above studies show the crucial role of teacher-student rapport in class as this may influence many factors regarding students. One of these factors is also motivation which has also been tackled in many studies. This will be further expanded and discussed in what follows.

2.6.2.2 Teacher-student rapport and personality

Some studies have recently been drawn to the belief that genetically based traits may cause some changes among students regarding their relationship with their teachers (Koenig et al., 2010; Rudasill & Rimm-Kaufman, 2009; Shiner & Caspi, 2003; Saft & Pianta, 2001; Sthulman & Pianta, 2002; Zee et al., 2013). For instance, it is believed that friendly people are more likely to have a friendly and positive relationship with the teacher than less friendly ones (the case of extravert people) (Jensen-Campbell & Graziano, 2001).

Correspondingly, extravert learners are perceived to be effective in social relationships as they tend to show friendly, confident, cooperative behaviours. In line with this, studies have shown that students who score high on extraversion have more chances to establish positive relationship with their teachers as they participate and ask questions (Bidjerano & Yun Dai, 2007). Furthermore, students scoring high on extraversion were not only found to be close with their teachers, but they were also more likely to develop conflicts with their teachers because of their assertive behaviours (Zee et al, 2013; Rudasill & Rimm-Kaufman, 2009).

On the other hand, introvert students are believed to be less sociable, for students owning internalized behaviours are more likely to develop low closeness with their teachers and raise conflict and dependency (Pianta et al, 2003). Additionally, socially withdrawn children, for example, are less likely to engage in interaction with their teachers which may lead the teacher to favour more those students with extraverted traits as they are more spontaneous and friendly (Rudasill & Rimm-Kaufman, 2009, Saft & Pianta, 2001). Alternatively, Rudasill and Konold (2008) found that introverted learners tend rather to show silent, attentive behaviours which do not lead them to disrupt the class; hence, they are unlikely to create conflict in the classroom.

Concerning agreeable people, they are known to be caring, sympathetic, affectionate and easygoing (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015; Maltby et al., 2017). Agreeable students are thought to be cooperative and tend to build positive relationships with others as they do their best to avoid conflicts with their teachers (Barrick et al., 2002). Zee et al. (2013) confirm this in their study, as they found that students scoring high in agreeableness are more willing to initiate interpersonal interactions in the classroom that can help their learning process and are less likely to cause problems in the class.

People with high scores on neuroticism are known to be nervous, pessimistic, alarmed and show low self-esteem (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015; maltby, et al., 2017). Students with emotional instability are known to have low-order temperamental traits such as anger, anxiety and fear

(Mervielde et al., 2005), leading to a negative teacher-student relationship as they tend to express negative attitudes towards their teachers and hinder their teachers' capability to sensitively respond to them (Little & Hudson, 1998). Graziano et al. (2007) added that teachers generally rate neurotic students as difficult to manage as they demand great energy from the teacher. In short, neurotic students are less likely to establish rapport with their teachers.

Conscientious people are known for their effectiveness, organization, perseverance and productivity (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015; Maltby et al., 2017). Although conscientiousness is mostly known to predict students' motivation and achievement (Chamorro-Premuzic & Furnham, 2003), the small bond between this trait and teacher-student relationship cannot be neglected. Conscientious students are responsible and hard workers which may lead them to work on their interpersonal relationship to reach their goals (Nofle & Shaver, 2006). This perseverance may also lead teachers to favour these students and develop rapport with them (Chamorro-Premuzic & Furnham, 2003). In the same vein, Zee et al. (2013) found that conscientious students are more likely to display behaviours that prevent conflicts and initiate warm and secure behaviours for a positive teacher-student relationship. In other words, compared to the former mentioned personalities (extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism) and despite the slight relationship between conscientiousness and teacher-student rapport, conscientiousness is more related to students' cognitive aspects like motivation and success.

Unlike the other personality dimensions, no research has covered the relationship between openness to experience and teacher-student rapport. People with high scores on openness to experience are fanciful, creative, ingenious and openminded (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015; Maltby et al., 2017). Moreover, they are also described as being perceptive, intelligent and imaginative, which makes it easier for those students to use their own learning strategies (De Raad &

Schouwenburg, 1996). Accordingly, the aforementioned features are strongly related to intelligence which is a successful cognitive ability (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015; Dewaele, 2012). Respectively, just like conscientiousness, openness to experience is also mostly regarded as a predictor of cognitive achievement. However, since Oz (2014) has mentioned in his findings that openness to experience is a significant predictor of students' willingness to communicate, this may be also related to a possible good interaction with their teachers.

From the above literature, findings suggest that the interpersonal aspect of students' personalities (extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism) seems to be more related to the kind of relationship these students have with their teachers regarding the level of closeness, conflict and dependency (Zee et al., 2013). On the other hand, cognitive aspects like conscientiousness and openness to experience are less concerned or predictive of teacher-student relationship (ibid, 2013). It can therefore be concluded that the relationship between teacher-student rapport and students' personalities does exist.

2.6.2.3 Teacher-student rapport and emotions

The relationship between teacher-student rapport and students' emotions has often been seen through teachers' emotional support towards their students (Atoum & Al-Shaboul, 2018; Hamre & Pianta, 2005; Jin & Dewaele, 2018; Khani & Ghasemi, 2019; Lawman & Wilson, 2013; Lei et al., 2018). Consequently, much research has shown that students' positive academic emotions like enjoyment and interest and negative academic emotions like anxiety and boredom were significantly correlated with teacher support as they just vary in the degree across these multiple studies (Dewaele et al, 2019; Lei et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2016; McMahon et al., 2013).

In other words, it was found that teacher emotional support may engender in students emotions such as enjoyment, hope or relief, whereas low or no teacher support may lead to negative emotions like anxiety, depression, shame, anger, worry, boredom or hopelessness (Lei et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2006; McMahon et al., 2013). Moreover, in EFL learning, Dewaele et al. (2019) found in their study on Chinese learners of English that teacher friendliness was the strongest predictor of foreign language enjoyment, as students experienced foreign language classroom anxiety mainly with strict teachers and younger teachers. Dewaele et al. (2018) claimed that teachers have a greater impact on students' foreign language enjoyment than classroom anxiety. In this sense, it was found that teachers' emotional support had no effect upon students' foreign language classroom anxiety; however, it is the positive orientation of learners mixed with teachers' solid emotional support that may lower the degree of foreign language classroom anxiety (Jin & Dewaele, 2018).

The above results explain that instead of trying to lower the levels of foreign language classroom anxiety, it is best for teachers to create a positive emotional atmosphere for these EFL learners to promote their enjoyment and enthusiasm in class (Dewaele et al., 2018). In the same vein, Cuéllar and Oxford (2018) advocated that teachers who maintain an emotionally secure and positive setting in class tend to improve their EFL students' wellbeing and foreign language progress. Also, students are more likely to be motivated, engaged, and achieve academically when they are emotionally supported in class (Khani & Ghasemi, 2019). Hamre and Pianta (2005) suggested that building a good relationship with students through emotional support may even reduce conflicts with aggressive students, who most of the time show disruptive behaviour in class.

Therefore, it is of utmost importance for teachers to understand the difference between leadership and emotions to be able to give the appropriate support to their students in class and reduce conflict as much as possible (Khani & Ghasemi, 2019). To do this, teachers need to show care, affect, respect for their students, and their eagerness to know them and understand their emotions and

perceptions (Pianta & Hamre, 2009). As Quinlan (2016) explained, teachers have a strong influence on students as they have the ability to know if students will participate or withdraw from a topic that may be emotionally charged or likely controversial. Respectively, to have a positive classroom practice, teachers need to support students both socially and emotionally (Pianta & Hamre, 2009).

Dewaele et al. (2019) added that foreign language learning advancement takes place when there is a good chemistry not only among students but also between students and teachers and when encouraging language practice while emotionally fostering teamwork. Therefore, it can be concluded that teachers should manage and change certain students' emotions in class. Yet not all emotional aspects can be altered by the teacher including deeply held emotional backgrounds and attitudes (Dewaele et al., 2019).

2.6.2.4 Teacher-student rapport and motivation

From what has already been stated, teacher-student rapport plays an important role in students' academic success. Nevertheless, motivation has also been highlighted as a crucial factor in student success (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013). That is why many scholars have focused on the relationship between teacher-student rapport and its impact on motivation (Bouras & Keskes, 2014; Frisby et al, 2016; Henry & Thorsen, 2018; Jaasma & Koper, 1999; Lamb, 2017; Scales et al, 2020; Yunus et al, 2011).

Nugent (2009) advocated that if teachers create a healthy relationship with their students, they can manage to find a way and motivate their students during the learning process, as this is regarded as one of the main goals in the role of a teacher. Respectively, Dörnyei (2001) also stated that it is the responsibility of teachers to establish the basic motivational atmosphere to enhance and sustain student motivation. Hence, L2 motivation automatically surfaces in the *“coming together and*

intense mutual engagement from moment to moment of teacher and learners” (Lamb, 2017, p. 312).

Additionally, students who tend to have a compassionate, emotional, and positive relationship with their teachers, are observed to be more engaged and motivated in the academic context (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Derakhshan et al., 2022). Similarly, Little and Kobak (2003) reported that students are noticed to be more engaged when they have an encouraging relationship with their teachers as they tend to study seriously, work harder, accept guidance and positive and negative feedback, control their anxiety better and focus more with the teacher. Moreover, even longitudinal studies have proved the efficacy of teacher-student relationship regarding students’ motivation as it shows that students who have a certain bond with the teacher tend to maintain their motivation over time (Furrer & Skinner, 2003; Hamre & Pianta, 2005).

In the same vein, Dörnyei and Csizer (1998) have explored how teachers perceive their impact on students’ motivation through their universal survey among 200 Hungarian teachers of English. Findings showed that the participants regarded teachers’ behaviours as one of the most significant motivational factors. Another study investigated students’ perspectives. Zhoo & He (2005) explored the learning of English in around 100 secondary schools in China. Students reported that teacher-student rapport was among the most crucial factors that affected the learning of English. Similarly, Bouras and Keskes (2014) also investigated the impact of teacher-learner rapport on learners’ motivation in Algerian secondary schools. A total of 200 students and 21 teachers were surveyed to elicit their opinions about the aforementioned topic. Results showed slight differences in opinions among teachers and students regarding the practices that influence students’ motivation. However, students were clear about the important influence of teachers’ practices on their motivation. Furthermore, Jasmaa and Koper (1999) explored teacher-student out-of-class

communication and its impact on students' motivation and found that verbal immediacy and motivation are strongly connected with out-of-class communication with students.

Therefore, one of the main objectives in teaching is to create a positive atmosphere that may improve the learning process. This can be managed by showing a good attitude, being interactive and building a trusted area for learners to feel at ease and willing to learn (Vilar & Bertran, 1995). In line with this, Dörnyei (2001) stated that three motivational conditions should be present to achieve student motivation: a proper behaviour from the teacher and establishing a good rapport with the students, an enjoying and encouraging classroom atmosphere, and a cooperative group learning environment. Alternatively, according to Sanchez et al. (2013):

Motivation plays a very important role in the process of building good relationships inside the classroom. For example, if students feel they are not performing as expected, they can lose their motivation and, as a result, the relationship with the teacher may be affected in a negative way, which is why an important task of the teacher is to sustain students' motivation. (Sanchez et al., 2013: 120)

This indicates that motivation can affect teacher-student rapport and can be affected by it as well. For instance, if teachers show negative behaviours that harm rapport, students are perceived to become demotivated (Bekleyen, 2011). Relatively, Littlejohn (2008) stated that in a way teachers' chief responsibility is not to motivate the students but prevent them from demotivation, the slow dropping of an already existing motivation. Indeed, some studies have clearly declared the teacher as the main source of students' demotivation (e.g., Fallout & Maruyuma, 2004).

In short, the above findings and studies, all sustain the important role of teachers to motivate their learners, and this can mainly be done by building a good rapport with the students. Eventually,

from the mentioned literature, the link between teacher-student rapport and student' motivation is strong and needs to be taken into consideration.

2.7 Conclusion

This chapter has highlighted what is already known about personality, motivation, emotion and teacher-student rapport, the history of these concepts and their significance in general psychology, education and SLA. Furthermore, this chapter presented a variety of perceptions and critiques among several scholars. The next chapter will explain the methodology used in the present study but first, the aim of the study along with the research questions will be pointed out in the following lines.

The objective is most importantly exploring the relationship that exists between undergraduate students' motivation, personality traits, emotions and teacher-student rapport. Correspondingly, what is most important in this study is to see if teacher-student rapport affects students' motivation to learn English by also considering their personality traits and emotions. The study draws on the following research questions:

1. What is the nature of teacher-student rapport in undergraduate English language classes at the participating university?
 - a. What are the most recurrent emotions experienced in class in relation to teacher-students' rapport?
 - b. How do undergraduate students behave when there is little or no rapport with their teachers?
2. To what extent are undergraduate students motivated to learn English as a foreign language?

- a. What is the impact of teacher-student rapport on undergraduate students' motivation?
 - b. To what extent do undergraduate students' personality traits play a role in their motivation?
3. What is the overall relationship between undergraduate students' personality traits, emotions, motivation and teacher-students' rapport?

Chapter Three: Research Methodology

Designing a research project and setting goals for it is very crucial for properly conducting a study. It is believed that every empirical study has an implicit or explicit research design (Yin, 2018); and every research design is unique as it is sometimes referred to as the ‘blueprint’ of the study (Cohen et al, 2007, p. 73). Thomas (2011) posited that designing research is just like planning for anything in life as researchers set a goal and begin to sketch their way to get to it. It is therefore the logical process that links research questions to the conclusions of the study. Yin (2018) formulated this colloquially, saying that:

a research design is a logical plan for getting from here to there, where here may be defined as the set of questions to be addressed, and there is some set of conclusions about these questions. Between here and there maybe found a number of major steps, including the collection and analysis of relevant data. (p. 26)

A project can be shaped and framed differently, depending on the topic and the field of study (Thomas, 2011). Correspondingly, to design the actual study I needed to highlight five important aspects: 1) the research paradigm 2) the methods used 3) the selection of participants 4) the choice of instruments 5) and the data analysis process. These aspects will consecutively be displayed in what follows, along with other relevant information.

3.1 Research Paradigm

Before starting to sketch a research study, as researchers we are asked to orient ourselves into a belief. This does not mean that this belief should be the absolute truth, that is why it is referred to

as a paradigm, in other words, a philosophical orientation. However, a paradigm does not come to a halt from a simple belief but an entire world mapping and structure that guides the study in an area (Willis, 2007). Taylor and Medina (2013) formulate this:

From a philosophical perspective, a paradigm comprises a view of the nature of reality (i.e., ontology) - whether it is external or internal to the knower; a related view of the type of knowledge that can be generated and standards for justifying it (i.e., epistemology); and a disciplined approach to generating that knowledge (i.e., methodology). (p. 2)

A series of paradigms have emerged so far, as some support objectivity and others subjectivity or both at the same time. In the late 20s, there has been a social war about what paradigm to choose for adequate and best results. For instance, it was impossible to combine both qualitative and quantitative studies in just one research study as a concept of 'paradigm purity', meaning that each possesses different basic paradigm features, that could not be combined (Bergman, 2008; Denzin & Lincoln, 2018; and Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003). Lately, there has been an understanding that it is not about superiority or adequacy but rather viewing research from different angles, which automatically generates different views and knowledge (Taylor & Medina, 2013). This has also led to the use of the mixed-method approach and the combination of different paradigms in just one project (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018).

Generally, the very known traditional paradigm which is still in use today in worldwide universities is the so-called 'positivism'. This paradigm is widely approved because of its scientific inclination. It typically involves quantitative and experimental methods, commonly used to test theories or hypotheses (Taylor & Medina, 2013). On the other hand, while positivism supports objectivity,

newer paradigms arose supporting subjectivity, such as ‘interpretivism’. This paradigm uses rather qualitative data. Its aim is “*to understand the culturally different ‘other’ by learning to ‘stand in their shoes’, ‘look through their eyes’ and ‘feel their pleasure or pain’*” (Taylor & Medina, 2013, p. 04). Accordingly, if a researcher wants to investigate people’s emotions, personality traits or the kind of relationships they have, this paradigm will help understand what is happening inside the individuals and such is the case of my research.

Additionally, in the field of Education, there is always a presence of social experiences, interpretations and opinions that often engender different reactions and attitudes (Pring, 2000). Respectively, in the context of a classroom, things happen between teachers and students, students and their classmates, students and the surrounding environments, as this may vary from one class to another. To look at these interactions, one needs to see how each one interprets their own reality to these proceedings. In my research, I need to understand students’ emotions, personality traits and the rapport they have with their teachers; I also need to understand what their teachers think about their students as individuals; and see how this may have an impact on their motivation to learn a foreign language.

To do what has been mentioned above, I believe that I need to orient myself towards interpretivism as a research paradigm. Clearly, I will need to interpret my qualitative data in regards with what has been said by students and teachers in the interviews and the open-ended questionnaires, and what has been noticed in the classroom observations. This interpretation relies also on my interaction with the participants and how I can relate myself to them (I.e., I was a student few years ago and may have went through similar situations) in order to be able to understand and answer my research questions. As has been stated by Neuman (2014), “*...the interpretive approach is the systematic analysis of socially meaningful action through the direct observation of people in natural settings in order to arrive at understandings and interpretations of how people create and*

maintain their social worlds” (pp. 103-104). Neuman (2014) also adds that the interpretive approach aims more at reaching ‘empathic understandings’ of individuals rather than having to test theories of behaviors (p. 109).

Going back to my study, as an initial point, I selected students to interview and observe from different personalities according to the BFI questionnaire that was handed to them before. I considered five different personality dimensions (Neuroticism, Openness, Conscientiousness, Extroversion and Agreeableness). I set personal questions to students and tried to make them feel at ease to talk freely about their emotions. Meanwhile, I observed their reactions to the questions, the tone of their voice and their behaviour and facial expressions. I then applied the interpretive approach to analyze these data.

Secondly, I analyzed the teachers’ questionnaires which were open-ended, meaning that each teacher was expected to answer differently according to their own interpretation of things. Here again I interpreted their responses by reading ‘behind the lines’. Finally, I attended some classes with the students I interviewed and continued my observation of teacher/students’ rapport and students’ emotions by focusing on their reactions, participation, facial expressions and behaviour. The interpretive approach was applied in an attempt to match these data with the previously collected data from the interviews and questionnaire. Nonetheless, my research also included a quantitative component that served to select participants for the qualitative study. The quantitative component involved exploring the students’ different personality traits and detecting their level of motivation to learn English.

3.2 Research Questions

As discussed before, the study looked at EFL undergraduate students' personality traits and emotions in class. In addition, it explored the relationship they have with their teachers and if this has an impact on their motivation, as well as if their personalities shape this rapport and what emotions prevail the most. The ultimate goal was to draw possible connections between emotions, motivation and personality traits as factors impacting upon foreign language learning. These aims were translated into the following three research questions, two of which are composed of two other sub-questions:

1. What is the nature of teacher-student rapport in undergraduate English language classes at the participating university?
 - a. What are the most recurrent emotions experienced in class in relation to teacher-students' rapport?
 - b. How do undergraduate students behave when there is little or no rapport with their teachers?
2. To what extent are undergraduate students motivated to learn English as a foreign language?
 - a. What is the impact of teacher-student rapport on undergraduate students' motivation?
 - b. To what extent do undergraduate students' personality traits play a role in their motivation?
3. What is the overall relationship between undergraduate students' personality traits, emotions, motivation and teacher-students' rapport?

3.3 Research design: Case study

There is no single definition or understanding of case studies in social behavioural sciences as they can be interpreted and used differently through several domains such as history, psychology, political science, educational research, etc. (Schwandt & Gates, 2018). However, generally speaking, Thomas (2011) construes that a case study is a method used to focus on only one ‘thing’, be it a person, a place, an event or something else (p. 3). A case study is an approach to an intricate phenomenon that may be viewed through different angles in authentic circumstances (Gall et al, 2007; Simons, 2009; Stake, 1995). In line with my research, the case includes undergraduate students who major in English.

Selecting a ‘case study’ design among different other methods and approaches is under the pretense that it can work with different methods, using a variety of tools and collecting data from several sources (Hammersley & Gomm, 2000). Moreover, unlike other kinds of social research methods which aim at generalizing (social survey) or depicting the causes (experiments), the case study’s aims are understanding relationships and processes (ibid, 2000). Accordingly, my research aim is to understand the relationship between personality, emotions and motivation and highlight the importance of rapport between the teacher and students. Schwandt and Gates (2018) state that the research methods which can be used in coherence with the study of cases know no limits as a case study can involve both quantitative and qualitative techniques. For the purposes of the present study, I initially collected data quantitatively then qualitatively; I used different instruments such as questionnaires, interviews and observations; and collected data from both teachers and students.

Case study has been typified into different categories according to multiple interpretations. For instance, Stake (1995) has introduced intrinsic and instrumental case study. He advocated that intrinsic case studies reside in understanding particularity in a single case, whereas instrumental case studies rely on accomplishments via either solving a problem or inquiring about something. I

categorize my research intrinsic case study because it involves a particular topic (teacher-student rapport and its impact on ¹ undergraduate students' motivation, in relation to their personality traits and emotions), a particular setting (classroom), a particular sample (undergraduate students and teachers of English at Tlemcen University), and a particular period of time (when undertaking undergraduate degree courses).

Differently, Yin (2018) set three types of case studies: exploratory, descriptive and explanatory. He states that each research question is subject to designate the research method; for example, 'what' questions are usually exploratory, 'why' questions are explanatory and 'how' questions may lean towards a descriptive case study. Looking back at my previously stated research questions, I can say that my research covered two case study types as I explored students' motivation and emotions as well as the impact of rapport on their motivation; and explained the possible relationship between personality traits, emotions, motivation and rapport. Yin (2018) suggested that it is absolutely fine to have all three types of case studies in a single study even though each mode holds distinct features, however I have opted only for one.

Conclusively, the reason for selecting a case study design is that I can work on achieving a profound understanding of a single case via utilizing different methods, research tools and sources. Followingly, I will explain the choice of a mixed-methods approach.

3.4 Mixed-Methods Approach

As researchers we need to choose which method is the best to collect our data and analyze them. This may sound simple as we just need to select a method that best matches our study type such as the quantitative method to find out about a social opinion concerning a social phenomenon; or a qualitative method to explore people's different individual points of view (Maruyama & Ryan,

2014). However, many questions in a research project are intricate and versatile, meaning that many answers can be attributed to them in different ways, that is why some would consider selecting one method a very restricted and definite way for conducting research (ibid, 2014). Thus, around the 1990s came the actual emergence for combining at least one quantitative element with at least one qualitative element, the so-called ‘mixed-methods approach’ (Bergman, 2008).

Despite the ‘paradigm war’ which has been discussed earlier, the mixed-methods approach is one of the speedily evolving areas in research methodology these past years (ibid, 2008). Fielding and Fielding (2008) defined it as “...*an attitude of inquiry, an approach to quality standards and to what constitutes adequate explanations of social phenomena*” (p. 566). Maruyama and Ryan (2014) explain that using a mixed-method approach helps to enrich and clarify the data. In addition, Greene et al. (1989) listed what can be achieved from a mixed method approach as follows: triangulation, complementarity, development, initiation and expansion.

Eventually, there exist a variety of mixed-method approach types as cited by Creswell and Plano Clark (2018): the triangulation design, the explanatory sequential design, the exploratory sequential design, and the convergent design. I consider my research under the explanatory sequential design and the convergent design. The former is namely because data collection came in two sequential timings where I first collected the quantitative data (student personality questionnaire) and based on it, I selected the student personality types I would be interviewing and observing. The convergent design is because I administered a questionnaire to teachers so that I could understand their points of view as well; this phase was necessary and played a role in complementing my other findings. Plano Clark (2018) explained that the convergent design takes place when the researcher endeavours to link and compare qualitative and quantitative data.

3.4.1 Quantitative Component

The stage of collecting data quantitatively involved first administering the BFI questionnaire to undergraduate students of English. This questionnaire helped me to identify their personality types, according to which I selected five students from each personality dimension to interview them and observe them while interacting with their teachers in class. At the second stage, I administered the motivation questionnaire to examine the students' levels of motivation. As stated in the previous section, the quantitative phase was mainly auxiliary to help conduct the major phase of qualitative data collection. Hamilton and Corbett-Whittier (2013) assert that:

...the added use of a quantitative form of data collection can be of benefit but such data would not be seen as superior to, or more important than, the qualitative work. Instead, this quantitative data would be seen as enriching the contextualization and understanding of the case. (p. 3)

This quotation supports the fact that quantitative data adds a complementary comprehension of the study. However, it does not mean that the use of quantitative data in this study is only additional and therefore not a priority; on the contrary, they were the first step towards collecting data for understanding the topic under investigation.

3.4.2 Qualitative Component

The rest of the study is principally qualitative as it involves collecting data from students' interviews, teachers' open-ended questionnaires and classroom observations. The qualitative

research comes in different shapes where researchers are not supposed to set a limited frame or questions to participants although often there is a set interview guide or points to focus on during observations; rather, participants can freely express themselves and discuss the issues in question while researchers need to be good observers and listeners (Maruyama & Ryan, 2014).

For the qualitative stage, I produced descriptions and analyses of the contexts from the participants' eye and myself as an external observer and interviewer (Lapan et al., 2012). This involved in-depth interpretations of participants' wordings, behaviours and facial expressions. This will be explained further in this chapter.

3.4.3 Triangulation

Triangulation is a term that is frequently present when referring to mixed-method research and gives researchers a sort of assurance when combining two methods in a single study (Maruyama & Ryan, 2014). Originally this word appeared in social science research methodologies when there is one source of data and we add another one to check the validity of the analysis and of the first stage (Denzin, 1978; and Hammersley, 2008). However, Teddlie & Tashakkori (2003) have dropped the complete usage of the term 'triangulation' as it has become meaningless to them after the emergence of various interpretations.

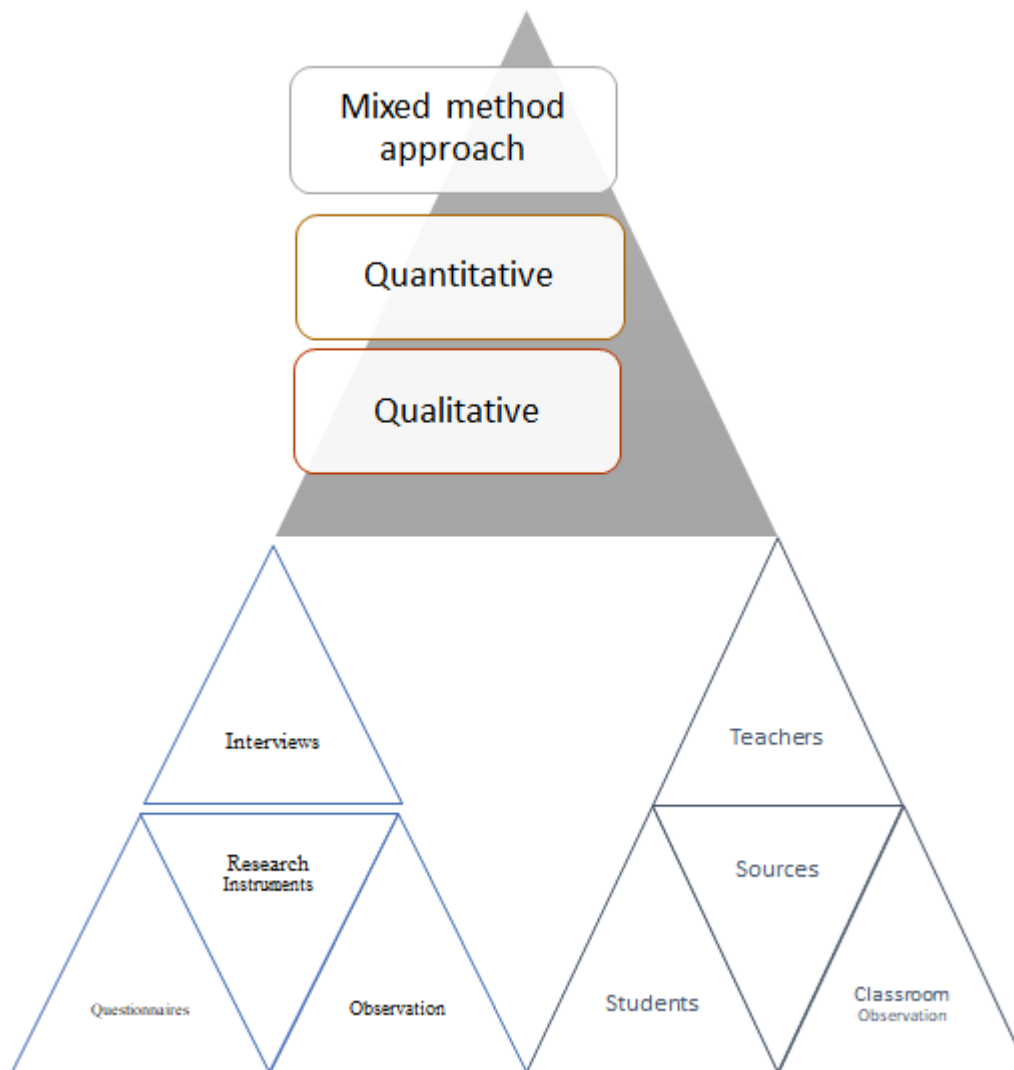
Denzin (1978) argued that triangulation comes in through various types as follows: data triangulation, investigator triangulation, theory triangulation and methodological triangulation. Based on this, Flick (2008) had come to a lucid definition of triangulation:

Triangulation means that researchers take different perspectives on an issue under study or – more generally speaking—in answering research questions. These

perspectives can be substantiated by using several methods and/ or in several theoretical approaches. Both are, or should be, linked. Furthermore, it refers to combining different types of data on the background of the theoretical perspectives, which are applied to the data. As far as possible, these perspectives should be treated and applied on an equal footing and in an equally consequent way. At the same time, triangulation [...] should produce knowledge on different levels, which means they go beyond the knowledge made possible by one approach and thus contribute to promoting quality in research. (p. 41)

In line with this definition, my study involves methodological triangulation with the combination of two methods (quantitative and qualitative). I will also focus on different perspectives to answer my research questions through different sources (students, teachers, and classroom observation) leading to investigator triangulation, and finally using different research tools (interviews, questionnaires and observation) under data triangulation. The following diagram summarizes it all:

Figure 2: Triangulation



3.5 Sampling Procedure

Selecting the right participants for doing a research study is crucial in the process of methodological design. Indeed, sampling procedure does not involve only sample selection but also the selection of feasible sites and context (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018; and Flick, 2007). This would necessitate deep thinking and questioning to tackle all the possible limitations one can face when

collecting data. In the following sub-sections, I will explain how I came to select the context and sample for my study.

3.5.1 Context and Site Selection

I have chosen to conduct my research where I have studied, had my Bachelor and MA degree, in the Faculty of Foreign languages, Department of English, in ABU Bekr Belkaid University, in my hometown, Tlemcen. First, this site is totally accessible as I have acquaintances with my previous teachers and friends that have recently become teachers. The Head of Department is also my former teacher and I contacted him via email to inform him about my research. He voluntarily accepted and welcomed me to the Department. Drawing from my student experience in that university, I wished to find out more as to why students are not always motivated and teacher-student rapport is not something that is sought for (see, also, a summary of my personal experience in section 1.2 of the introduction). Another reason why I have chosen this site is the importance that this University and mainly the Faculty of Foreign Languages and the department of English have among other universities in Algeria. This Faculty has been among the largest and oldest faculties of the university which has been contributing to training students scientifically and cognitively to contribute effectively to the development of the country. Moreover, the department of English has attracted and welcomed many international students mainly Africans, Arab and Turkish students. The reason I have chosen to reveal the name of the University is the same reason why I have selected this site. That is the fact that I have been a student there before, and the importance that this university and especially the Faculty has among other universities in Algeria represents the significance of not keeping the name confidential. Indeed, I got permission to do so. Revealing the

name would also help other future researchers who wish to conduct similar or continuous studies know the area, its history and teaching system.

3.5.2 Description of the Site

The English Department was created along with the French Department in 1988, under the Institute of Foreign Languages and Letters. In 1998, the Faculty of Letters and Human and Social Sciences was established to later be split, in 2010, into the Faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages and the Faculty of Human and Social Sciences (Djebbari, 2014). The Faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages thus comprises four Departments namely, English, French, Spanish and Translation. From 2008, the Department of English follows the structure of LMD (License, Master, Doctorate). Djebbari (2014) explains this as follows: the License degree is equivalent to the Bachelor's degree in the Anglo-Saxon system of education where students are prepared and presented with disparate modules to achieve and consolidate the necessary knowledge during 3 years of studies. In their final year, students are assessed by exams and a written dissertation or a teaching training report to be able to get to the next degree which is 'Master's', equivalent to MA, for a period of two years, and eventually a 'doctorate degree' which takes between three to four years to complete.

In addition to that, according to the University website, the English Department consists of 63 full-time teachers and 1232 students. It offers a range of modules in two different specialties: literature and civilization, and language studies. Djebbari (2014) adds that "the teacher is provided with specific pedagogical guidelines for each module, and it is up to him to sketch out the content of the modular course according to his students' needs and difficulties encountered" (p. 137). Some of

the modules for the undergraduate degree are written expression, oral production, reading comprehension, research methodology, phonetics, civilization, literature and linguistics.

3.5.3 Sample selection

To initially conduct the quantitative phase of my research, I needed to select a sample from the site I have previously described. In other words, I conducted a case sampling step where I needed to choose the right number and kind of participants who are eligible for my research (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Correspondingly, Gill and Johnson (2002) define sampling as the identification of a representative population from a larger one that is apt to provide the researcher with answers to the research questions. There have been many forms for the way sampling is framed but the main ones in quantitative studies are probabilistic and non-probabilistic sampling (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018; Maruyama & Ryan, 2014; and Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).

Non-probabilistic sampling and namely convenient and purposive sampling are the ones I used to conduct the quantitative phase. First, convenient sampling relies on the selection of people that are present, easily accessible and relevant for the research. This is reflected in the easy access I have to the site, more precisely the classrooms where students are all present. Second, purposive sampling means that the researcher selects a site based on some previous knowledge or credibility. That is, I have chosen to work with first- and second-year undergraduate students of English based on the criteria that they are still in the first acquaintances with their teachers and learning English at university level.

Subsequently, in the qualitative phase, I selected students based on the quantitative findings of the personality questionnaire and specifically five students from each personality category to interview and observe. This led to a total of 25 students. This is also an example of purposive sampling since

I selected the students for the qualitative phase based on their different personalities. Additionally, my study also involved teachers of English for first- and second-year undergraduate university students. These teachers answered a qualitative, open-ended questionnaire concerning their thoughts and awareness of their students' emotions, motivation and personalities.

3.5.4 Sample description

The English Department of Abu Bekr Belkaid University welcomes undergraduate students from different parts of Algeria and even some international students, but most of them are mainly from Tlemcen. Most of the undergraduate students have studied English in middle and secondary schools, which covered a total minimum of seven years. They have all gone through the baccalaureate exam at the end of their secondary school to be able to study at universities. Depending on their grade point average (GPA), their school branch and their choice, they are selected to study English. For example, if they have an average of 10/20 and their branch is in foreign languages, they would be easily accepted; but if their average is 12/20 and their branch is scientific, they may or may not be accepted, depending on available places. Indeed, this can vary each year.

Impressively, the English Department holds a great number of undergraduate female students as opposed to males. This might be culture specific as males are usually more inclined to do scientific studies than social studies. Most of undergraduate students' age is between 18 and 20 as they are new baccalaureate students, but there are also some students who are older than 21 and can be up to 40 years old. These students could have intermitted their studies and then resumed or have studied something else before and they now chose to enroll for an English degree.

Arabic is the mother tongue of Tlemcen undergraduate students, French is their first foreign language due to past French colonization of Algeria, and English is their second foreign language. For some students who come from different parts in Algeria, they may have a second mother tongue which is 'Berber'. For international students, this may vary according to each student. The following table summarizes the demographic data of the participants.

Table 1: Students' demographic data

Age	From 18 to 35
Gender	164 females and 41 males
Years of English studies	5 to 14 years
Level of English	Mostly average to good
Number of spoken languages	2 to 7 languages

Concerning teachers, they are all Algerians, L2 speakers of English, and come from different parts of Algeria. Their teaching experience varied from one to twenty years. Their qualifications also ranged from holding a magister degree to PhD and to being full professors. Some of them are responsible for administrative tasks in addition to their teaching such as tutoring and coordination, while some others such as doctoral researchers have not yet been granted permanency. The following table summarizes the demographic data of the participant teachers.

Table 2: Teachers' demographic data

Gender	8 females and 7 males
Years of teaching	From 8 months to 26 years

Number of taught modules along their career	2 to 14 modules
Taught modules	Phonetics, oral, linguistics, literature, Anglo-Saxon civilization, study skills, writing, ESP, translation, grammar, reading, research methodology, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, cognitive psychology, intercultural communication, ICT, computational linguistics, psychopedagogy, vocabulary building.

3.6 Research instruments

3.6.1 Student BFI questionnaire

The Big Five Inventory (BFI) (Appendix 5) is the result of multiple revised and shortened versions of the original big five personality questionnaire developed by Costa and McCrae (1985) known as the ‘NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI)’. Instead of 240 items, the BFI consists of only 44 items. Originally the questionnaire consisted of adjectives as items. However, this version (BFI) relies on phrases to simplify understanding and remove any ambiguity for participants. For example, the adjective ‘persevering’ is replaced by the phrase ‘perseveres until the task is finished’ (John et al., 2008). The language of the questionnaire is English.

The BFI questionnaire holds six facets for each personality dimension (see table 3) and a scale from eight to ten items. For instance, Neuroticism has eight items and Agreeableness has ten items. Participants are expected to rate each item from 1 to 5 in terms of their level of

agreement/disagreement (i.e., Disagree strongly (1), Disagree a little (2), Neither agree nor disagree (3), Agree a little (4), Agree Strongly (5)). Some of the items are reversed when coded; for example, if a student selects 5 for item '2' (tends to find faults with others), it becomes 1 but if a student selects 3 in reversed items, it remains 3 as agreement is measured on a 5-point Likert scale.

Table 3: The big Five factors, adapted from John and Srivastava (1999)

Big Five Dimensions	Facets and correlated trait adjectives
Extraversion Vs Introversion	Gregariousness (sociable) Assertiveness (forceful) Activity (energetic) Excitement-seeking (adventurous) Positive emotions (enthusiastic) Warmth (outgoing)
Agreeableness Vs Antagonism	Trust (forgiving) Straightforwardness (not demanding) Altruism (warm) Compliance (not stubborn) Modesty (not show-off) Tender-mindedness (sympathetic)
Conscientiousness Vs Lack of direction	Competence (efficient) Order (organized) Dutifulness (not careless) Achievement striving (thorough)

	Self-discipline (not lazy)
	Deliberation (not impulsive)
Neuroticism Vs Emotional Stability	Anxiety (tense)
	Angry hostility (irritable)
	Depression (not contented)
	Self-consciousness (shy)
	Impulsiveness (moody)
	Vulnerability (not self-confident)
Openness Vs Closedness to experience	Ideas (curious)
	Fantasy (imaginative)
	Aesthetics (artistic)
	Actions (wide interests)
	Feelings (excitable)
	Values (unconventional)

The validity and reliability of the BFI questionnaire has been tested by many researchers. In particular, Rammstedt and John (2005; 2007) reported an alpha reliability average above 0.80 when using the questionnaire with US and Canadian samples. Also, Hampson and Goldberg (2006) found a mean test-retest of 0.74 reliability. In line with this the alpha coefficient of the present study was 0.64. In short, the BFI provides higher reliability and validity in comparison with other important personality scales such as trait descriptive adjectives (Goldberg, 1992) and the NEO-FFI (60-item version) (Costa & McCrae, 1989, 1992). However, the original NEO-PI remains the most

reliable and valid scale, but not the most practical one due to its length and complexity of the wording.

Indeed, my preference for the BFI questionnaire is due to its popularity, reliability, practicability and free access for researchers. I have decided not to change anything in it except a minor rephrasing in the primary introductory paragraph regarding the participants background, and this is to explain more about the questionnaire like stating the timing and the aim of the questionnaire. I have administered it to 203 undergraduate students. I have explained the task and they seemed to all understand what they had to do.

However, despite the questionnaire simplicity, some terminologies seemed to be ambiguous. As their level of English proficiency was noticed not to be very high, it took them between 15 and 30 minutes to complete it depending on their level of vocabulary comprehension. Fortunately, I was present when they were completing the questionnaire as they could ask me for clarifications. Frequent ambiguous terms I have been asked to explain were thorough, blue (depressed), quarrels, tense, inventive, and assertive. I did not want to risk and translate the questionnaire in Arabic as this would have been a long and complicated process. In addition to that, I have noticed that foreign language students are more willing and motivated to fill in the questionnaire when it is in the language they are learning, they enjoyed learning new terms. At last, the purpose of this questionnaire was first to identify undergraduate personality traits and compare them to their level of motivation. This questionnaire would also allow me to select different personalities to interview as well as observe in class and see how they interact with their teachers. Finally, this questionnaire would help in combination with other instruments in the investigation of the relationship between personality, emotion, motivation and teacher-student rapport.

3.6.2 Student Motivation Questionnaire

The student motivation questionnaire (Appendix 6) was adapted from Gardner's Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB; 1985). The original instrument consists of six-point Likert scale. However, in this questionnaire I have chosen to include only five-point scale ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree' to make it look similar to the BFI with 25 items. The AMTB was accounted for its good reliability and validity (Gardner, 1985). Gardner's initial interest focused on integrative motives in the socio-educational model. The main variables were attitudes towards the learning situation, integrativeness and motivation (MacIntyre, 2002). Gardner (1985) also included a space for instrumental orientation and integrative orientation.

Despite its high reliability and validity, the AMTB received criticism from scholars as some argue that Gardner had a very limited understanding and interpretation of motivation as many variables were added to examine motivation (Dörnyei, 1994; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; and Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Dörnyei, for instance, went further to develop the socio-educational model via another taxonomy including the teacher level, the student level, and the learning situation level. Yet, Gardner cannot be faulted as it is impossible to include all the possible variables in only one model (MacIntyre, 2002).

My adaptation of the AMTB questionnaire (Appendix 6) relies on its simplification and shortening to match my research objectives. To this end, I included only 25 items from this test and five additional questions to collect students' biodata such as age and gender. I have divided the 25 items under three headings, namely Integrative motivation, Instrumental motivation, and motivation from the teacher. I have selected the items based on the research questions, the topic I am studying which is mainly teacher-student rapport and the participants I dealt with. The rationale behind this is to know in what ways undergraduate students are motivated to learn English. Indeed, the first section

was about students' biodata and the succeeding sections were about motivation. The second section on integrative motivation and the third section on instrumental motivation covered ten questions each, whereas the fourth section included only five questions. The reliability of this questionnaire was tested using the Cronbach alpha which measured a scale of 0.80 reliability. The reason behind choosing the integrative and the instrumental motivation is to know the why these students are motivated or not, and since my research is about teacher-student rapport I have selected some other items from the original questionnaire related to teachers motivating students which I have put under the final section teacher motivation.

This questionnaire was completed between 10 to 15 minutes; participants were asked to circle the chosen scale. Moreover, to be able to contact the participants, I included at the beginning of the questionnaire a space where they could write their email address or Facebook username. Providing this information was optional, but I decided to ask for it as it would enable me to contact participants for the follow-up interview stage. These data were analyzed quantitatively using SPSS. In short, the purpose of this questionnaire was to answer the first research question.

3.6.3 Students interviews

Interviews are considered among the most common tools that are used to collect data in qualitative research studies (Mann, 2016; and Dörnyei, 2007). Dörnyei (2007) explained that "*It is exactly because interviewing is a known communication routine that the method works so well as a versatile research instrument*" (p. 134). Turner (2010) adds that interviewing provides the researcher with in-depth data about the participants' background and opinions about the researched topic. Nonetheless, interviews may generate the 'taken-for-grantedness' phenomenon as it seems

so easy to interview but many aspects of interviewing such as are taken for granted and lead to difficulties in conducting a good interview (Mann, 2016; and Brinkman, 2009).

Dörnyei (2007) posited that the chief drawbacks of interviews are that they are time consuming and demand good communication skills on the part of the interviewer, which is not something that all researchers possess. Additionally, interviewees can be shy, and this does not help the researcher to collect adequate data; and, on the other hand, some interviewees can be talkative and may digress from the topic (*ibid*, 2007). Still, interviews remain one of the most popular instruments in qualitative research thanks to their flexibility and adaptability.

There exist three types of interviews such as the structured interview, the semi-structured interview and the unstructured interview. The structured interview looks like a questionnaire that is conducted orally while the unstructured interview follows the flow of the interviewee and the situation with no pre-prepared questions. Eventually, the one I used in this study is the semi-structured interview as it allowed me to follow the interview guide with no limited scope and I could add or delete questions depending on the flow of the conversation (Dörnyei, 2007).

The students' interview (Appendix 7) comprised four sections. The first section was introductory; six general questions were asked concerning students' choice of studies, their motivation and their rapport with their teachers. The second section focused on the students' emotions towards the English language. I intended to ask them to look at the wheel of emotions developed by Plutchik (Appendix 4), which I had sent to them in advance and asked them to select one to three emotions they would feel in each of the ten situations, for example situation 13. When you practice listening in class. The third section covered students' emotions regarding their relationship with their teachers. The same task as in the previous section was used with seven situations, for example situation 17. When the teacher ignores you in class. Finally, the fourth section represented five scenarios that students might have encountered or experienced in class with their teachers. Three

questions were asked under each scenario asking about their emotions (from the wheel), their reaction, and if and how it influenced their learning motivation. To wrap everything up, I set a concluding open-ended question for interviewees to say anything they would like to add or ask. Dörnyei (2007) stated that many researchers found that these closing questions can add rich data to the study.

This interview was originally intended to take place face-to-face but on four occasions interviews were conducted through a video call on Messenger, due to the participants' personal circumstance. Interviews lasted approximately 20 to 30 minutes. Students were selected based on their personality traits and availability. Five students from each big five factor were interviewed, which made a total of 25 interviewees. Their consent of being audio-recorded was sought. Dörnyei (2007) supports the use of audio recording in an interview as he believes that note taking does not suffice and the researcher may miss significant details during the interview. He adds that researchers may face technical issues with the recordings (the researcher needs to make sure that the recording device works perfectly to have good quality data), possible non-consent from the participants (the researcher needs to have a plan B and make sure to properly use note-taking), and missing some important details such as facial expressions, eye movement and gestures (a video recording may be suggested but this is not acceptable by all interviewees as many are uncomfortable in front of a camera).

In short, the aim of this interview was to understand students' views on their emotions and motivation and see if their personality traits play a role in this. Data was qualitative in nature and was interpreted on the basis of my observations and understandings of their answers. In addition, I naturally considered their non-verbal behaviour too such as their facial expressions, eye movements and body gestures.

3.6.4 Teacher Questionnaire

The questionnaire for teachers (Appendix 8) was open ended. The main difference between open-ended and close-ended questions is that questions are not followed by answer options for the participants to choose but rather a few lines of blank space to fill in (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). This kind of data is, in most cases, qualitative. Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) claim that questionnaires are not really convenient for conducting a qualitative study. However, my choice of using a qualitative, open-ended questionnaire with teachers instead of interviews was basically because the participating teachers were not always available and free to meet for interview. Therefore, I decided to use a questionnaire which they could answer at any time. Indeed, Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) maintain that open-ended questions are time consuming for participants and this may lead them to withdraw from answering and participating, as well as it can be difficult for the researcher to code and analyse the data reliably. Nevertheless, Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) commented on some benefits from these types of questions:

Open responses can yield graphic examples, illustrative quotes, and can also lead us to identify issues not previously anticipated. Furthermore, sometimes we need open-ended items for the simple reason that we do not know the range of possible answers and therefore cannot provide pre-prepared response categories (p. 36).

The adopted for this study questionnaire comprised three sections. The first section includes five questions about general demographic information such as their years of experience in teaching, the modules they teach and their teaching philosophy. The second section has six questions concerned with their relationship with their students and the way they approach their students' personalities,

emotions and motivation. Finally, in the third section I included five different scenarios about students from five different personality traits and asked them to write about the way they would see themselves dealing and building rapport with those students. At the end I displayed a final question for them to comment on or add anything they think they did not mention, or I did not ask about teacher/student rapport, students' personality traits, emotions and motivation.

The questionnaire took 20 to 30 minutes to complete. I administered this questionnaire online to teachers by using the Survey Monkey website, where I included on the first page the consent form to be signed before proceeding to the next pages of the questionnaire. The questionnaire aimed to explore teachers' opinions and awareness of their students' personalities, emotions and motivation as well as the way through which they manage to build rapport with their students.

3.6.5 Classroom Observations

Observation is often related to anthropologists' endeavour to understand and depict human behaviour. Yet, L2 researchers have also adopted this instrument to look at various aspects of teachers and learners (Sanz, 2005). Classroom observation is used in many L2 research studies as an addition to other quantitative or qualitative tools such as a supplement to questionnaires or interviews. Sanz (2005) adds that classroom observations serve a great deal in investigating external and internal factors in L2 learning as well as the relationship between concerned factors. Sanz (2005) describes classroom observation as a way of collecting data without interfering in the classroom activities, where methods such as field notes, audio and visual recording can be used to collect data.

Field notes is the most common method used in L2 observations where the observer answers their previously planned questions (grid) or carefully takes notes. Audio and video recording helps the

researcher go back to their observation and catch all the missing details, but many participants would not agree or may not act naturally in front of a camera for videorecording. In my research I only used field notes but no recordings of any kind (Appendix 9).

I designed an observation map based on my research aims. This map was divided into five parts. The first part included general information like the name of the module, the number of students, date and time, etc. Then, I divided the three subsequent parts based on stages in the lesson such as the beginning of the class, during the class and at the end of the class. Each of these parts contained four different actions: entering the class and greetings. These were displayed in a table or grid where I had to indicate how each of the target participants reacted to it (the teacher, the five selected students and the remaining students). Following each table, I included space for extra notes to my observation. Finally, the fifth part involved additional concluding questions about the overall session where I could comment more on the student-teacher relationship.

3.6.6 Pilot Study

Every study requires testing the new research materials to check the feasibility and the efficiency of the research. Armstrong and Kraemer (2016) explain that pilot testing takes place before the main study and helps the researcher identify potential weaknesses that may lead the study to fail. I designed at first a questionnaire that I named Motivation/emotion questionnaire (Appendix 3). This questionnaire was composed of four sections. The first section involved general questions to collect students' biodata. The second section involved ten questions about the rapport that student thought they had with their teachers as they were asked to answer on a five-point Likert scale (all of them - none). As an illustration, items like 'teacher smiling when teaching in class' and 'teachers you feel yourself comfortable with' were used. The next section was related to students' emotions

towards the English language. Seven items were displayed where students had to select for each item one to three emotions from the Plutchik wheel of emotions. The last section included the same task with eight items as it was related to students' emotions towards their teachers' practice.

I have tested this questionnaire with 52 second-year students majoring in English. The answers I received led me to completely drop this questionnaire and replace it with an already tested questionnaire, which was Gardner's AMTB. In addition to that, I kept emotions as a focal point in the third and fourth section of the questionnaire as I have included them in the students' interview.

The reason behind doing this is that students seemed not to understand the questions. In the third and fourth section, many of them had selected more than three emotions although I had clearly explained to them to not circle more than three emotions per item. For example, students had selected 'joy' and 'sadness' in the same item, which made no sense. When I interviewed some of them, I could understand that this was because they were speaking about different teachers at the same time (the fourth section), while in the third section, some students said that they didn't feel anything about English. This ambiguity could better be dealt with in an interview, where I could explain more and ask why. Moreover, when adapting Gardner's AMTB, I kept the first section of the discarded questionnaire to collect students' biodata.

In short, this questionnaire did not help in investigating students' emotions towards the English language class and their teachers. I could not assess their motivation with noncredible answers. Eventually, by combining the result of the adapted version of the AMTB and students' interviews, I believe I was able to connect motivation and emotions and draw insights into this relationship.

3.7 Data collection and analysis

In this section, I will present in detail how data was collected and analyzed, and the challenges I faced along the way. Obviously, the analysis of quantitative and qualitative data is largely different, that is why I will display each one in separate sections.

3.7.1 Quantitative data analysis

Quantitative data was collected through questionnaires (BFI and the motivation questionnaire) as has been stated earlier. These data are mostly informative and important to sustain the qualitative data, thus I have conducted a descriptive analysis, reporting mainly frequencies, means and standard deviations.

3.7.1.1 The BFI questionnaire

I started administering the BFI questionnaire shortly after obtaining my ethical approval, in February 2019. However, things did not flow as planned, as there were many strikes and marches happening in Algeria (Hirak), where students and teachers stopped going to schools and universities from February 22, 2019. They progressively began joining schools in the month of May 2019, when I could manage to continue the collection of the data for the BFI questionnaire.

I started to code and enter data in the IBM SPSS statistics 25 software.). I have applied coded scale numbers as (strongly agree:1, partly agree:2, neither agree nor disagree: 3, partly disagree: 4, strongly disagree: 5). Some of the items had to be reversed according to the scoring instructions.

Extraversion: 1, 6R² 11, 16, 21R, 26, 31R, 36

Agreeableness: 2R, 7, 12R, 17, 22, 27R, 32, 37R, 42

Conscientiousness: 3, 8R, 13, 18R, 23R, 28, 33, 38, 43R

Neuroticism: 4, 9R, 14, 19, 24R, 29, 34R, 39

Openness: 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35R, 40, 41R, 44

The reversed items were approached as follows:

RECODE

bfi2 bfi6 bfi8 bfi9 bfi12 bfi18 bfi21 bfi23 bfi24 bfi27 bfi31 bfi34 bfi35

bfi37 bfi41 bfi43

(1=5) (2=4) (3=3) (4=2) (5=1) INTO bfi2r bfi6r bfi8r bfi9r bfi12r bfi18r bfi21r bfi23r bfi24r

bfi27r bfi31r bfi34r bfi35r bfi37r bfi41r bfi43r.

Eventually, I added up the students' responses in each personality dimension to have a final score for the personality of each student.

3.7.1.2 The Motivation Questionnaire

I had planned to distribute this questionnaire just after the BFI questionnaire. However, because of the Hirak, I continued the collection of the data when students rejoined universities again in October 2019. Since time was really limited as I could stay for only eight weeks in Algeria to complete the interviews and observations, I left the motivation questionnaire as a last step in data collection, which took place in November 2019.

Soon after I came back to UK, I started entering the data in the IBM SPSS statistics 25. The first section of the questionnaire where students' biodata had to be entered was given different coding. For instance, Gender (Male:1, Female:2); Age (18-20:1, 21-25:2, 26-30: 3, 31-35:4, 36-40: 5, 40+: 6); and level of English (very good:1, good:2, average: 3, bad:4, very bad: 5). Concerning nominal

questions like how many years they had been studying English, I directly entered the numbers. For the last questions where students had to highlight the languages they know, I entered them as they were in letters and created a section where I counted the number of languages known by each student.

Regarding the other sections of the questionnaire, I employed the same scale coding as the BFI questionnaire: (strongly agree: 1, partially agree: 2, neither agree nor disagree: 3, partially disagree: 4, strongly disagree: 5). Subsequently, I reversed the coding of some items because some of the items referred to demotivation such as item 6 in the second section (to be honest, I have no desire to learn English): using a reversed scoring as follows:

(1=5) (2=4) (3=3) (4=2) (5=1)

I counted the score for each type of motivation and the overall general motivation score at the end. I used Pearson correlation to examine the relationship between students' motivation and personality.

3.7.2 Qualitative data analysis

Qualitative data analysis entails a large scope of data which is hard for the researcher to manage, most of the time not knowing where to start and what to take into consideration or leave out. That is why I established some steps to follow in my analysis, mainly, starting the data collection as early as possible; reading and re-reading the interview transcripts, teachers' answers, field notes and observation notes; and accentuating on the most significant information that related to the research questions (Bryman, 2016). In addition to that, as Berg (2009) sustains, I tried to find the connectivity between the set of data gathered, that is the similarities and dissimilarities between the answers of the teachers, the answers of the students and what was observed by myself as researcher in class.

3.7.2.1 Teacher questionnaire

I started administering the open-ended questionnaire in September and October, 2019, to different teachers online via a Google Microsoft Word format. From around 30 teachers to whom the questionnaire was sent, only 15 teachers completed it. I was reading the answers each time they would come in and compared them to previous answers to have a general idea of the data in mind. I read and re-read their answers almost ten times before starting to draw a table and highlight the similarities and dissimilarities I noticed. Also, I counted the number of teachers who answered in the same way. For example, for the question in which teachers were asked to describe their relationship with their students, I grouped together teachers who said that their relationship was excellent; then I grouped those who said that their relationship was friendly in another group.

I started breaking up these data after I completed the data collection and came back to UK. This took me almost a month before starting to write up the analysis chapter. In the analysis, teachers were given labels via numbers such as Teacher 1, Teacher 2 etc. Eventually, I compared the questionnaire analysis with other data such as from classroom observations and student interviews.

3.7.2.2 Student interviews

I began interviewing the students after having analyzed the BFI questionnaire, where I selected 25 students. Some students accepted immediately, and some were reluctant., I just had to reassure them and explain to them that this had nothing to do with testing them as I had rewarded them with a piece of chocolate after the interview. All the interviewed students were happy and liked the interview. Unfortunately, since I was running out of time and had to come back to UK at the end

of November, I conducted only 20 interviews face to face. The remaining five interviews were conducted online on Messenger via video call.

The first step in analyzing the interviews was to transcribe them or transform them into textual versions (Dörnyei, 2007). The transcription of the interviews was handled simultaneously with the data collection as advised by Gillham (2000), where he states that memory will help the researcher remember what is on the tape, as I have been listening twice or thrice to the recorded interview. After finishing with the transcription and data collection, I started breaking up the data. First of all, to make things simple and easier for me and for the reader, I had to give pseudonyms to the students via making sure to maintain their confidentiality. As a consequence, I have named them with the personality dimension they have scored high or low in. For example, HOP1 means high in openness to experience student number one. And LAG2 means low in Agreeableness student number two.

Table 4: Students' pseudonyms

Extraversion	Agreeableness	Conscientiousness	Neuroticism	Openness to Experience
HEX1	HAG1	HC1	HN1	HOP1
HEX2	HAG2	HC2	HN2	HOP2
HEX3	HAG3	HC3	HN3	HOP3
LEX1	LAG1	LC1	LN1	LOP1
LEX2	LAG2	LC2	LN2	LOP2

Next, the process of the interview analysis demanded the reading and re-reading of the transcripts several times after deciding to draw the similarities and dissimilarities among the answers of the students. I counted the number of students who had similar answers to different questions and tried

to compare those answers with their personality traits and motivation as well. When I found myself overwhelmed with information, I decided to relate and pick only the information I needed to answer my research questions, which made the writing of the analysis chapter easier for me to handle. At the same time, these data were compared with the previous questionnaires and classroom observations.

3.7.2.3 The classroom observation and fieldnotes

I conducted the classroom observations over four weeks, during which I attended with each teacher four of his/her sessions with the same class. I observed six teachers, teaching different modules like oral expression, written expression, or phonetics. Since my time was restricted, I did not have time to pilot the observation beforehand. Consequently, the planned grid that I had designed to help me highlight the important points I wanted to observe did not work for me as I have had too much information to note during the observation. Therefore, I opted for narrating the events happening in class and to mention all that I thought to be important for my research by writing them down, especially the kind of rapport teachers had with their students. At the end of the sessions, I was resuming my thoughts about the most pertinent points I wanted to know about the session and wrote them down if they were not mentioned before in the narration. For example, the kind of rapport between the teacher and the students, the most recurrent emotions in class, the motivation of the students in class, and the atmosphere of the class (positive/relaxing or negative).

I was presenting myself early at the sessions to have the ability to talk with the teachers and explain to them what my research was about, at the same time I had the ability to note some extra

information about what the teacher thought of their students, rapport, personalities, etc. and about what the lesson would cover. Additionally, I developed a very good rapport with the students because I was coming early before the teacher; wherein, during informal talks with them, I could also have an idea about what they thought about their teachers as well. Eventually, I added this additional information in the fieldnotes of my data collection.

At the end of each day full of observations, I retyped all the notes on my laptop and organized them so that I reduce the level of difficulty when analyzing them. To keep the confidentiality of the teachers, I named them with letters of the alphabet such as Teacher A, Teacher B, and so on. Once data collection was completed, the process of data analysis began where I had to read and re-read the classroom observation notes several times before starting to write the analysis chapter. All along the analysis, I tried to see the similarities and dissimilarities between each class regarding the rapport each teacher had with their students. This information was automatically compared to the other data obtained from the questionnaires and the interviews.

3.7.3 Final data analysis process

After having analyzed each data tool alone, I decided to compose these analyses under my research questions, so that the research would make more sense for me and for the reader. I tried to write all that I found to be relevant to answer my research questions via combining all the used research tools and data obtained. This method helped me to facilitate the task of the analysis write-up as it helped me to organize my analysis and generate a coherent and reasonable chapter that allowed me to then discuss the findings at a later stage.

3.8 Data quality and ethics

In quantitative research, measures of validity and reliability are used to determine the accuracy of the obtained data and the extent to which these data can be trusted. However, in qualitative research, different measures apply where the researcher decides which is the best method to apply, for it is believed that qualitative research generates different realities and it is the role of the researcher to interpret these realities.

With respect to the quantitative component, I had two sets of questionnaires as previously mentioned. First, the BFI questionnaire which was an already tested and approved version which I however tested again for its reliability in my study. The alpha coefficient is included in section 3.6.1 above. Second, the motivation questionnaire, which I have piloted with some students and had to remove a question or two to meet the reliability score wanted. This procedure was conducted through the SPSS 25 software, where I have used the Cronbach alpha test. I first tested each category of the questionnaire separately and then I tested the whole questionnaire with all questions. The alpha coefficient scores for the full instrument and for each category of the questionnaire are provided in section 3.6.2 above.

In contrast, qualitative research is mostly based on the researcher's own interpretation of the analysis. Therefore, to achieve trustworthiness, different authors have highlighted different aspects of a qualitative research project that should be attended to. For instance, Heigham (2009) presented three important points for trustworthiness in qualitative research: the credibility of the research, how well the research is conducted and the usefulness of the research. Finally, to acknowledge and increase trustworthiness, ethical measures need to be considered.

Following Heigham's (2009) view on credibility, first he mentions the prolonged engagement of the researcher in the field of study to not miss any important details and to get acquainted with the participants before starting the data collection. I consider to have achieved this to a large extent as I met the participants when first handing them the information sheet concerning the study and

explaining it to them by giving my personal contact details. I have also been in constant contact with the teachers and the students during all periods of data collection. Second, Heigham (2009) mentions the importance of triangulation in increasing research credibility as it helps to make sure that the researcher has studied and considered different methods of collecting and analysing data. To this end, I have used two types of triangulation: data triangulation (questionnaires, interviews and observations) and method triangulation (quantitative and qualitative methods).

Moreover, Heigham (2009) suggested participant validation, where the researcher is expected to discuss or validate their findings with the participants. I did this with some interviewed students in cases where I had not understood the recording well or there were some missing points they had not properly answered. Therefore, I contacted them again and asked them about those. Another strategy is using a critical friend and community of practice to discuss the findings and receive feedback and suggestions. I discussed my findings and my research with some PhD students all along the research journey as I participated in seminars and frequent research group meetings.

The second important point after credibility is how the research was transparently and carefully conducted. Following this, as a researcher I divided the thesis into several chapters making sure that I give each section proper details and explanation of the research. For instance, this thesis starts with an introductory chapter that presents what is going to be tackled in it. I included a literature review chapter which explains and sets forth mostly what the reader should know about this field and the topic followed by a methodology chapter which presents in detail the plan of the researcher in designing the tools, collecting data and eventually analyzing and interpreting them. Next, the analysis chapter is divided into sections on the basis of the research questions to make things clear for the researcher and the reader as well. All findings are then discussed in the discussion chapter, which is followed by the final and concluding chapter that sums up the work and proposes possible future directions of the study.

The final point that Heigham (2009) highlighted to achieve trustworthiness is considering the usefulness of the study. I have made sure to explain and provide all the necessary details about the conducted study by situating within the wider research sphere and explaining the connections between my research and previous studies. I also explained how the research questions emerged and made sure to clearly connect them with the findings. Finally, I showed how this specific study offers important implications for the learning and teaching of English within the selected context of Algeria and also potentially beyond.

Indeed, trustworthiness is prominent when conducting research but there is another standard that needs to be attended to, which is ethics. Before conducting any study, the researcher needs to make sure that the study does not affect or hurt the participants, or anyone related with it. As the researcher of this study, I submitted to the Ethics Committee of the University of Essex detailed information about what I was going to do and how I was planning to approach the participants and involve them in the study without revealing their identities. I also mentioned that all data collected would be shared only with my supervisor and would then be destroyed after the end of the study.

I have also submitted the participant information sheet and consent form which participants needed to sign before the start of the study together with the ethical approval application, which was approved on 22/02/2019. Just after being granted approval, I started distributing the information sheet and consent form to participants. I provided them with my contact details in case they wanted to get in touch for additional information and I was all the time present at the university; participants knew that if they had any questions, they would come to me. Some students were reluctant to write their names, but I explained to them and reassured them that their names would only help me to analyze the data and invite them to the interview, and that they would not be used or mentioned at any point in the thesis.

Conclusively, this chapter tried to cover and explain all the steps this research undertook from choosing the paradigm to analyzing and presenting the data. Subsequently, the next chapter will display the collected data and their analysis.

Chapter Four: Findings

4.1 Introduction

After displaying the design and methodology of this research in the previous chapter, this chapter is going to present the findings in detail. The chapter is clearly divided into several sections. First, students and teacher's background information are unveiled. Next, sections are disposed under research questions as main title and sub-titles. In addition to that, data will be presented clearly and understandably through tables, diagrams, graphs and explained by text. This structure of the chapter will make it easier for the reader to read the data and understand the significance of each research instruments. Also, it will help the research discuss and interpret the data coherently and logically following the tracing of each research question. obviously, data will be discussed in the next chapter.

4.2 Students' Biodata

The goal of this section is to gather quantitative background information about the target students which may serve understand the case more deeply and maybe shed light on other aspects related to students' motivation, personalities, emotions and teacher-Student rapport. The following data are gathered through the first section of the motivation questionnaire (Appendix xxx) which is distributed to 203 students; and the BFI questionnaire (Appendix xxx) to test their personalities which is also given to the same students.

4.2.1 Gender and Age

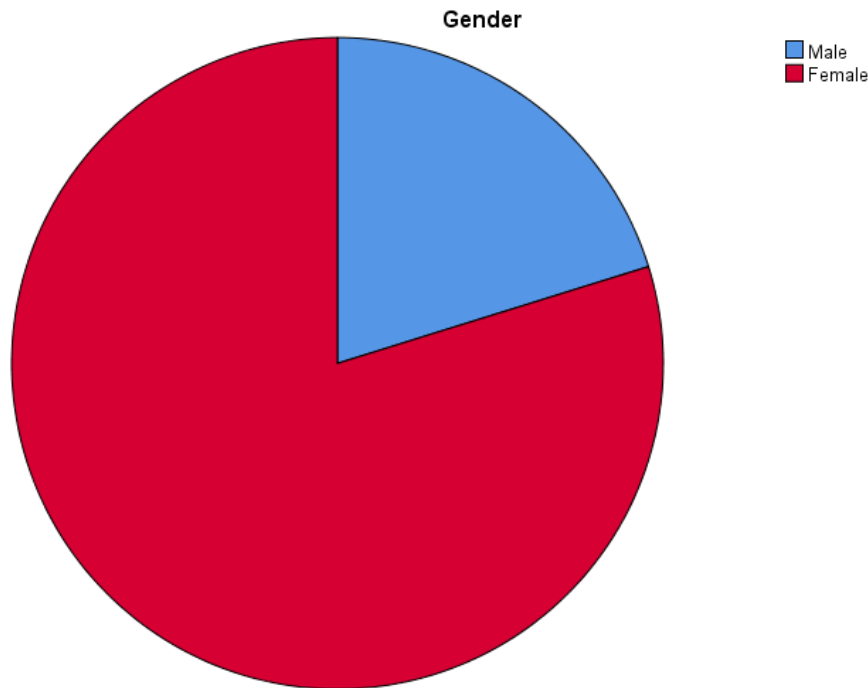
The following table 4 displays the frequency of females and males selected among 203 students where it shows a great disparity in number. Males represent only 20,2 % of the chosen sample whereas Females cover the whole set with 79,8 % of the sample. It is generally observed in Algeria that males are always a minority in language classes where the reasons are still unknown. Females on the other hand seem to be more interested to study languages.

Table 5: Gender Frequency

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	41	20.2	20.2
Female	162	79.8	100.0
Total	203	100.0	

From this table, it is shown that from the 203 undergraduate students only 41 students are males and 162 are females. Indeed, 203 is not the number of all undergraduate students majoring in English as these are the sample of students who accepted to take part in the study. Still, the number of females is always outstandingly higher than males. The following chart clearly demonstrate the deviance

Chart 1: Gender



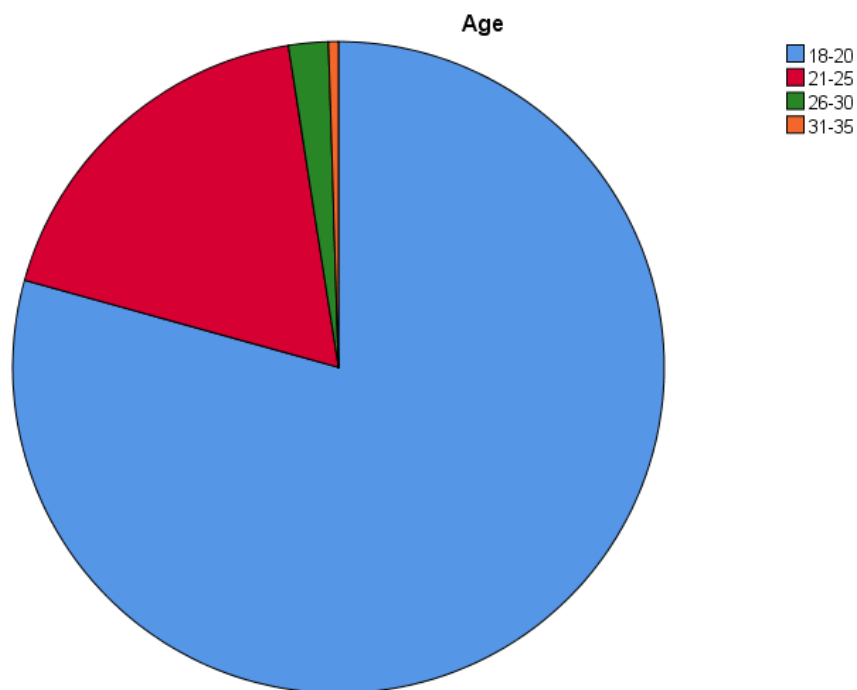
The next table 6 displays the undergraduate students age as it shows that most of the undergraduate students are aged between 18 and 20 with 79.3 % and very few aging between 21 and 25 representing 18.2 %. Concerning the age category 26-30 and 31-35 they were only 4 students for the former and one student for the later. This explains that most of the students are young because they have just reached university after passing their Baccalaureate exam at the end of their high schools. The other category ranging from 21-25 are probably students who have repeated their years or decided to eventually join the university later. The same thing may apply for the remaining age categories.

Table 6: Age Frequency

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
18-20	161	79.3	79.3
21-25	37	18.2	97.5
26-30	4	2.0	99.5
31-35	1	0.5	100.0
Total	203	100.0	

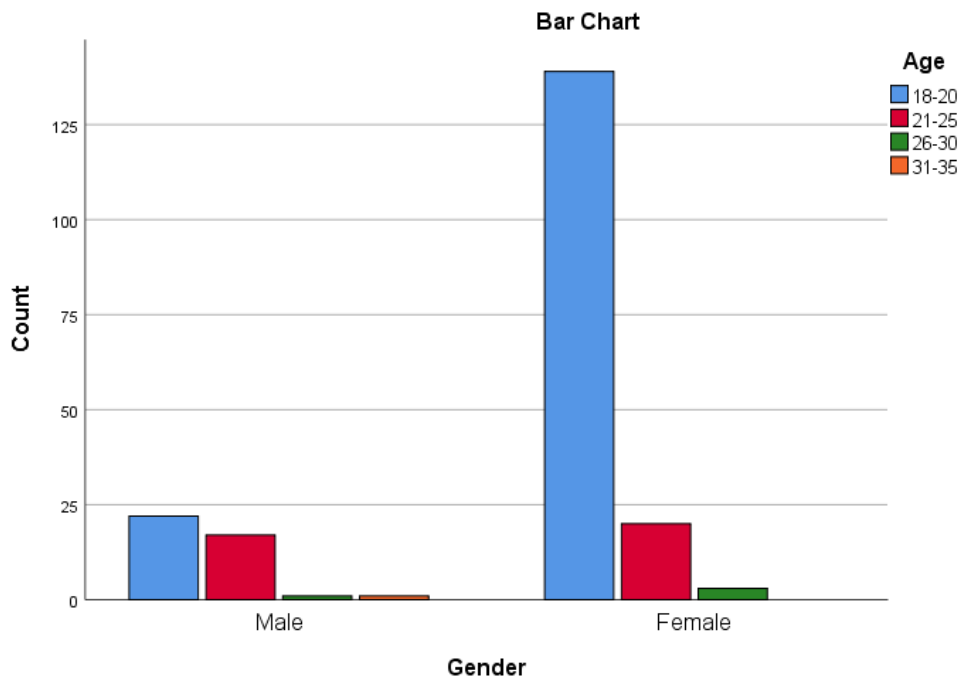
The chart below shows lucidly that the age category 18-20 is the most dominant one with 161 students, whereas the other categories represent a minority of 37, 4 and one student for 21-26; 26-30; and 31-35. In addition to that, data shows zero responses for categories ranging from 35 and above, which means that undergraduate students' age is between 18 and 35.

Chart 2: students' Age



The next chart 3 shows the category of ages related to gender, thus, around 130 out of 161 females are between 18 and 20, about 20 females are between 21 and 25, about three females are in the category 26-30. Whereas, within males, the chart shows little difference between the number of males between 18-20 and 21-25 as about 23 males out of 41 are under the former category and about 18 males lay under the latter category. Concerning the remaining categories one male in each of them is regarded.

Chart 3: Age and Gender



Despite the difference in number between males and females, this chart shows that the majority of females are young (18-20) whereas there is not a big difference between category 18-20 and 21-25 for males.

4.2.2 Years of English studies

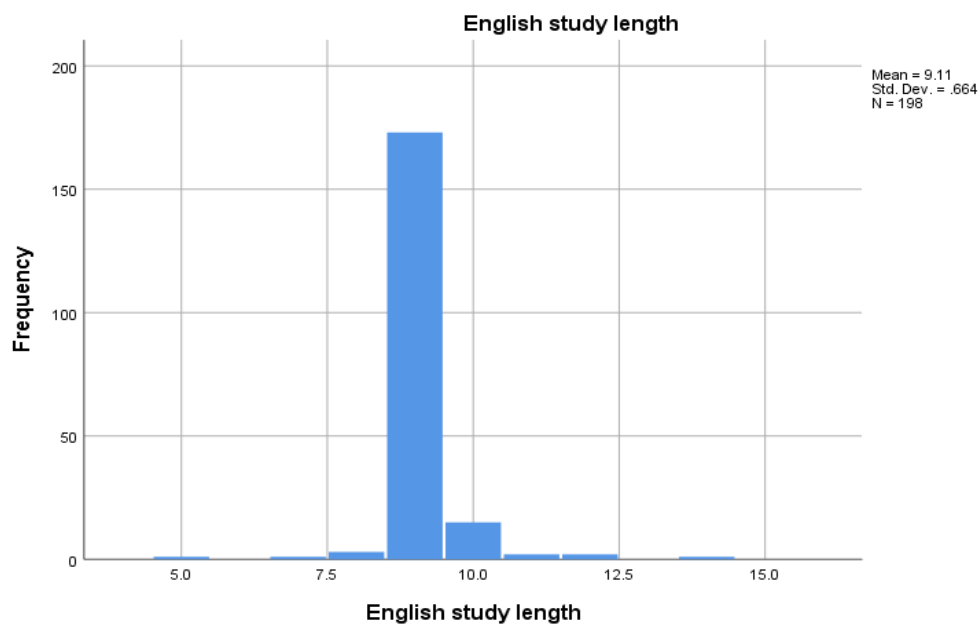
The table 7 below presents a frequency description of the number of years undergraduate students have been studying English. Hence, the mean calculated is 9.11 and the mode is 9 years which is the most given response. The standard deviation is not that high representing only 0.664 which indicates that the number of years were closely related. The table also shows that the minimum of years for English studies is five years and the maximum is 14 years.

Table 7: Years of English studies

	Mean	Mode	Std deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Years of English studies	9.11	9	0.664	5	14

Next, the histogram below clarifies the mode as it shows that the majority of the undergraduate students have been studying English for nine years. Very few of them, which is around 20 students have been studying English for ten years. This length of studies is logically explained by four years of middle school plus three years of high school and two years in university. The extra years are probably due to the repetition of the years or an early interest in learning English, whereas the years that are less than nine years remain ambiguous.

Chart 4: Years of English studies



4.2.3 Level of English

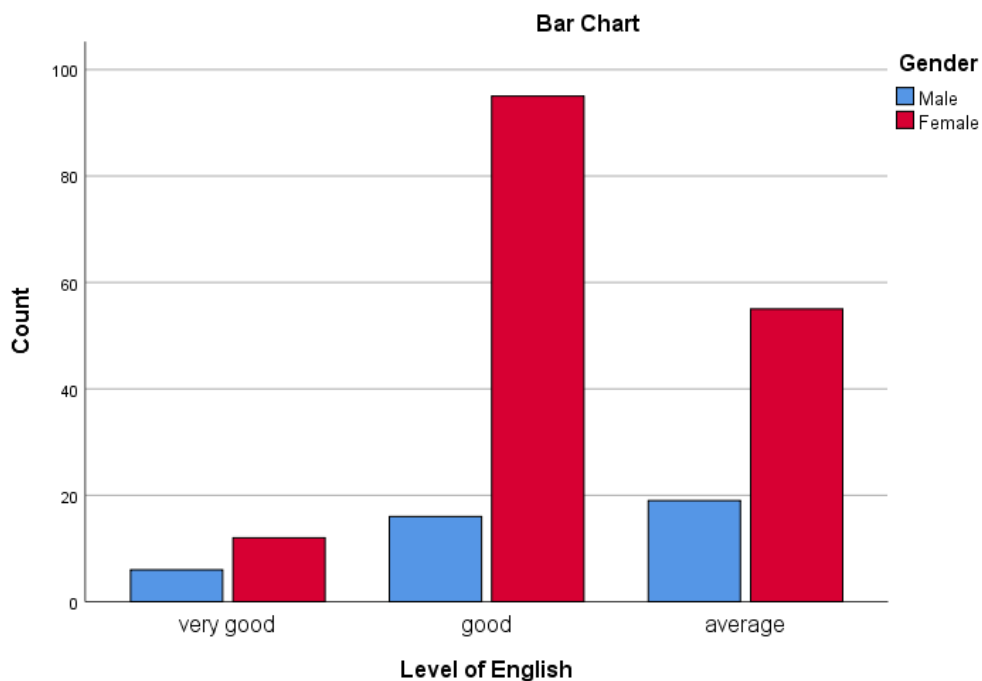
The question related to the level of English is only the perspective of undergraduate students in how they believe and put in scale their level of English. Hence, from the table below we can see that nobody has replied by bad or very bad as they all consider themselves very good, good or average.

Table 8: Level of English

	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative percent
Very good	18	8.9	8.9
Good	111	54.7	63.5
Average	74	36.5	100.0
Bad	0	0	0
Very bad	0	0	0
Total	203	100.0	

It is regarded that more than half of the sample consider their level of English as good with 54.7%; third of them consider themselves average with 36.5 % and very few replied by very good with solely 8.9 %. The next bar chart represents the number of males and females and how they view their level of English. It is observed that most females consider their English as good whereas more Males consider their English average than Good.

Chart 5: Level of English by gender



4.2.4 Other speaking languages

The majority of the undergraduate students are Algerians, only three of them come from different countries such as Mali, and Niger. The native language in Algeria, Tlemcen precisely is Arabic and most of them speak also French as a second language; many of them also speak Spanish and other languages as seen in table 9. English is not included in this table as they are all supposed to speak it.

Table 9: Spoken languages

	Frequency
Arabic	23

Arabic, French	83
Arabic, Spanish	5
Arabic, Turkish	2
Arabic, German	2
Arabic, Japanese	2
French, German	1
Arabic, French, Spanish	44
Arabic, French, German	6
Arabic, French, Turkish	3
Arabic, French, Korean	5
Arabic, French, Latin	1
Arabic, Spanish, German	2
Arabic, Spanish, Indian	1
Arabic, Turkish, Korean	1
Arabic, Indian, Korean	1
French, Bambara, Biva	1
Arabic, French, Spanish, Turkish	9
Arabic, French, Spanish, Chinese	2
Arabic, French, German, Russian	1
Arabic, French, Spanish, Korean	2
Arabic, French, Spanish, Turkish, German	1
Arabic, French, Spanish, Turkish, Indian	1

Arabic, French, Spanish, Turkish, Korean	2
French, German, Bambara, Dogon	1
Arabic, French, Spanish, Italian, Korean, Indian	1
Total	203

The above table shows that 83 undergraduate students speak Arabic, French and English, and 44 undergraduate students speak Spanish in addition to the former stated languages. Few students representing 23 students speak only Arabic and English. The table shows also a variety of 15 different languages comprised of: Arabic, French, English, Spanish, German, Turkish, Korean, Indian, Latin, Japanese, Chinese, Italian, Bambara, Biva, and Dogon. In Table 10 the frequency of the number of languages spoken is displayed.

Table 10: Frequency of spoken languages

Number of languages	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
2.00	23	11.3	11.3
3.00	95	46.8	58.1
4.00	65	32.0	90.1
5.00	15	7.4	97.5

6.00	4	2.0	99.5
7.00	1	5	100.0
Total	203	100.0	

It is observed in the above table that the minimum of spoken language by undergraduate students are two and the maximum are seven languages, but the number of most spoken languages are three languages representing almost half of the sample with 46.8 %. Under it, comes 32% for those speaking 4 languages and 11.3 % for those speaking only two languages. students who speak more than four languages are observed to be a minority.

Conclusively, there may be many reasons behind speaking many languages in Algeria. Arabic is the native language; French is the language remained from the colonization of France from 1830 to 1962; The English language is the degree these students are undertaking; Spanish is because many language students study Spanish as a subject in high school. However, concerning other languages I can say that they are mostly personal interest mainly because of the culture of media which involves for instance: Turkish, Korean, Indian and Japanese. Indeed, there may be other reasons behind knowing several languages but the above stated are the most common ones.

4.2.5 Students' personalities

4.2.5.1 Extraversion

This dimension has eight items where three items are reversed. The highest possible score is 40 and lowest possible score is eight. The chart below shows that the scores are considerably average where a minority scored high in extraversion and low in extraversion.

Chart 6: Extraversion

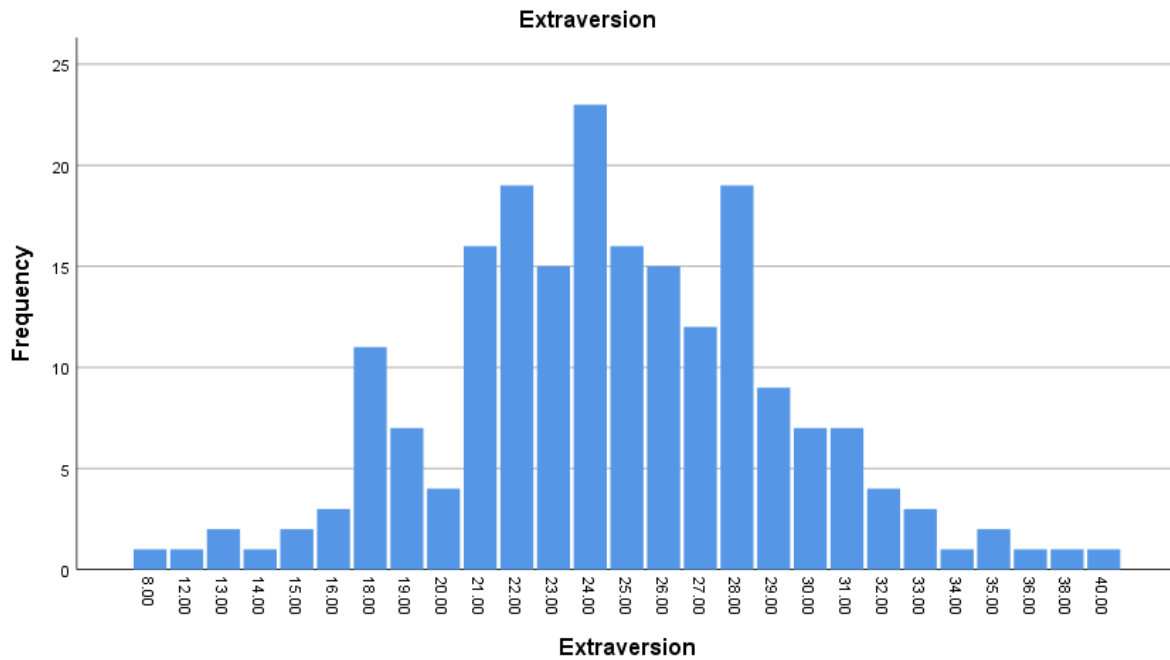


Table 11: Extraversion Frequency

students	Mean	Mode	Standard Deviation	Maximum score	Minimum Score
203	24.53	24	4.80	40	8

The table above confirms the data as the mean is 24.53 showing the average, the mode is also very close to the mean with 24 and the standard deviation is quite balanced between the scores. The maximum score received is 40 by few students and the minimum score is 8 by few students as well. These results indicate that most of the undergraduate students are balanced between two traits which are introverts and extroverts.

4.2.5.2 Agreeableness

This dimension comprises of nine items where four items are reversed. The highest possible score is 45 and the lowest possible score is 9. The chart below notes that the scores are high as only a minority scored under 26, most of the students scored high as some are considered to have scored average. The table 12 shows that the mean is 33.39 and the mode is 29.

Chart 7: Agreeableness

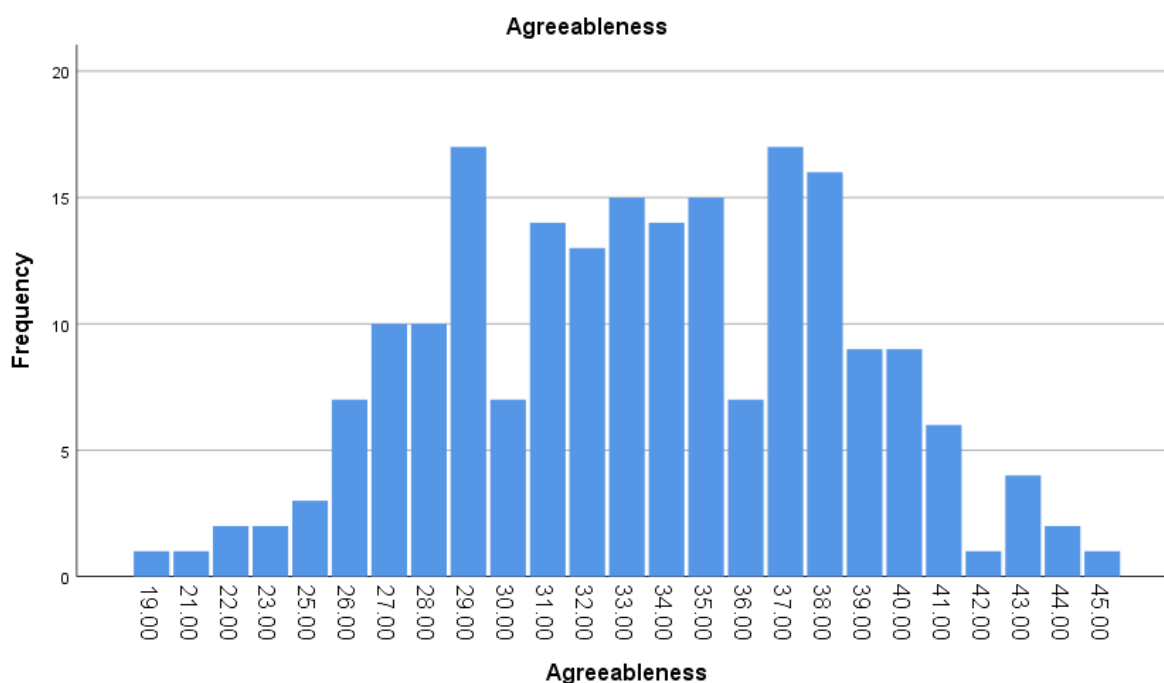


Table 12: Agreeableness frequency

Students	Mean	Mode	Standard Deviation	Maximum score	Minimum score
203	33.39	29	5.04	45	19

In short, it is regarded that a great number of undergraduate students possess the trait of Agreeableness. This may explain their willingness to help and participate in the research.

4.2.5.3 Conscientiousness

This dimension consists also of nine items where four items are reversed. The highest possible score is 45 and the lowest possible score is 9. The chart below reveals that a great range of scores lay above the average indicating a considerably high score in conscientiousness. Still, there is a significant number of students scoring average and only a minority scoring low. The table 13 shows that the mean is 30.6 which is above the average and the mode is 32. The standard deviation is of 5.03 meaning there is a moderate difference between the scores ranging from 13 to 43.

Chart 8: Conscientiousness

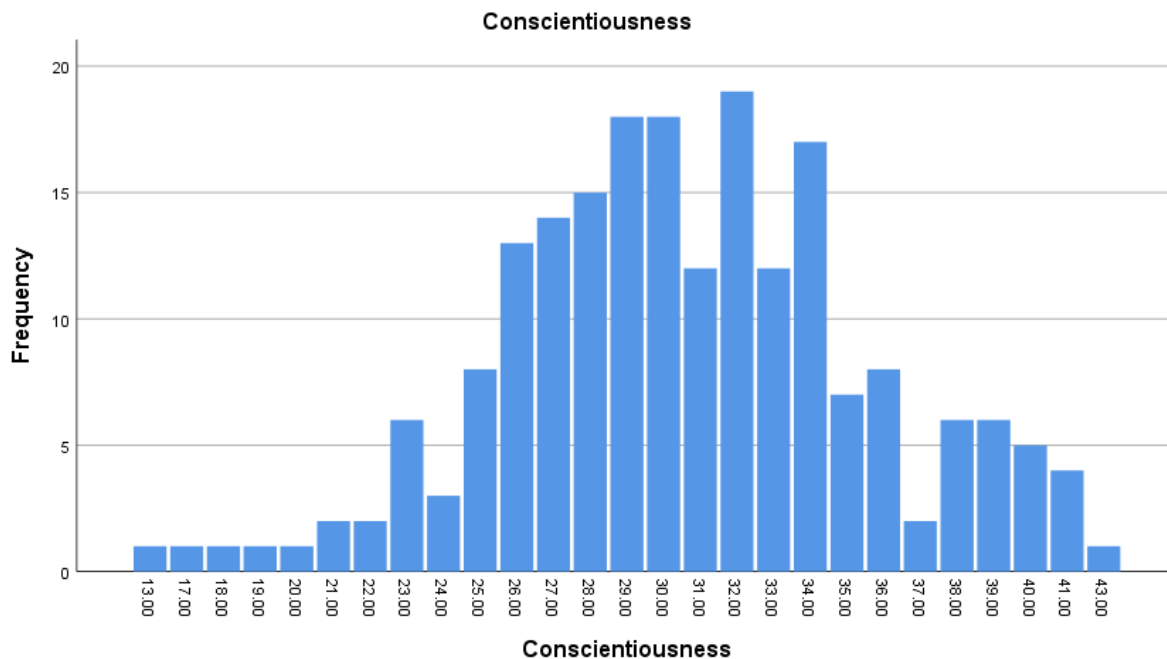


Table 13: Conscientiousness frequency

students	Mean	Mode	Standard Deviation	Maximum Score	Minimum Score
203	30.6	32	5.03	43	13

In conclusion, these results note that there are a great number of conscientious undergraduate students who seem to be responsible and knows what they are doing. Many students also scored average which means they more or less care about their studies and responsibilities.

4.2.5.4 Neuroticism

This personality dimension includes eight items, where three items are reversed. The highest possible score is 40 and the lowest possible score is 8. the following chart shows that the greatest number of students resides in medium scoring. Indeed, while many scored low in neuroticism, others also scored high. The table 14 reports that the mean is 23.43 and the mode is 22 which are not very far from each other. The standard deviation is also balanced with 4.08.

Chart 9: Neuroticism

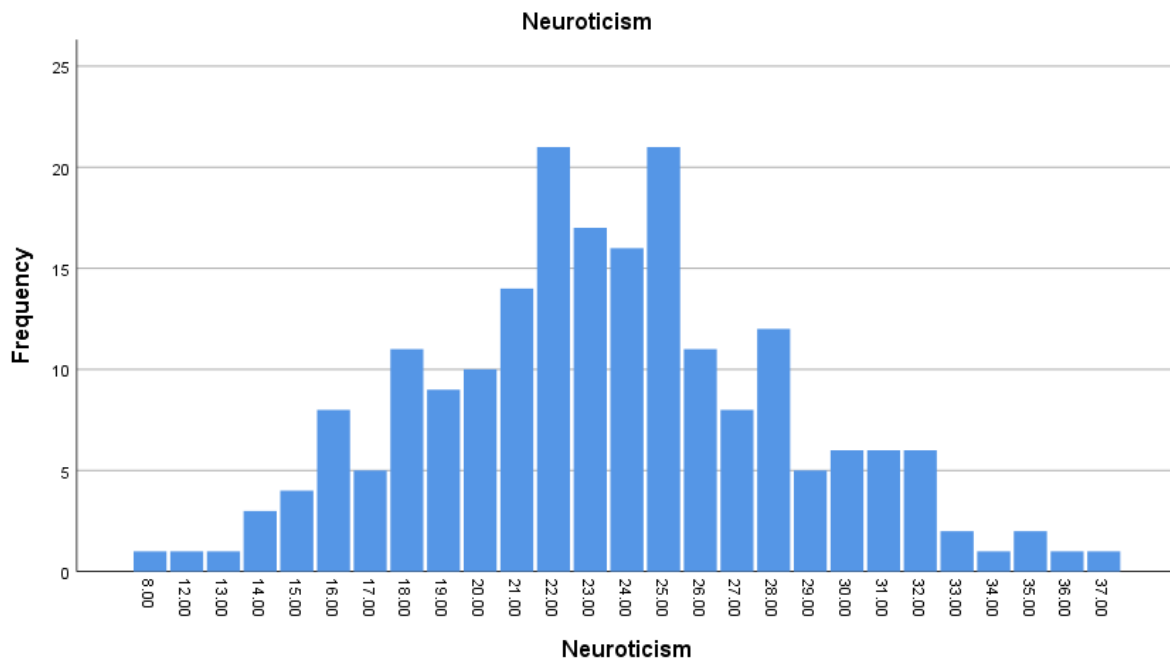


Table 14: Neuroticism frequency

students	Mean	Mode	Standard Deviation	Maximum score	Minimum score
203	23.43	22	4.98	37	8

To sum up, it is regarded that Most of the undergraduate students are balanced between emotional stability and neuroticism. Still, many also scored high in neuroticism, probably those students who may have a learning anxiety; and many also scored low indicating the emotional stability, probably students who seem to control their emotions and not stress about their learning.

4.2.5.5 Openness to experience

Openness to experience section has ten items where only two items are reversed. The highest possible score is 50 and the lowest possible score is 10. The following bar chart demonstrates that a larger number scored high in Openness to experience and only few students scored average and low. The table 15 mentions that the mean is quite high exceeding the average with 36.51 and the mode is close to it with 35. The standard deviation is moderate with 4.81.

Chart 10: Openness to experience

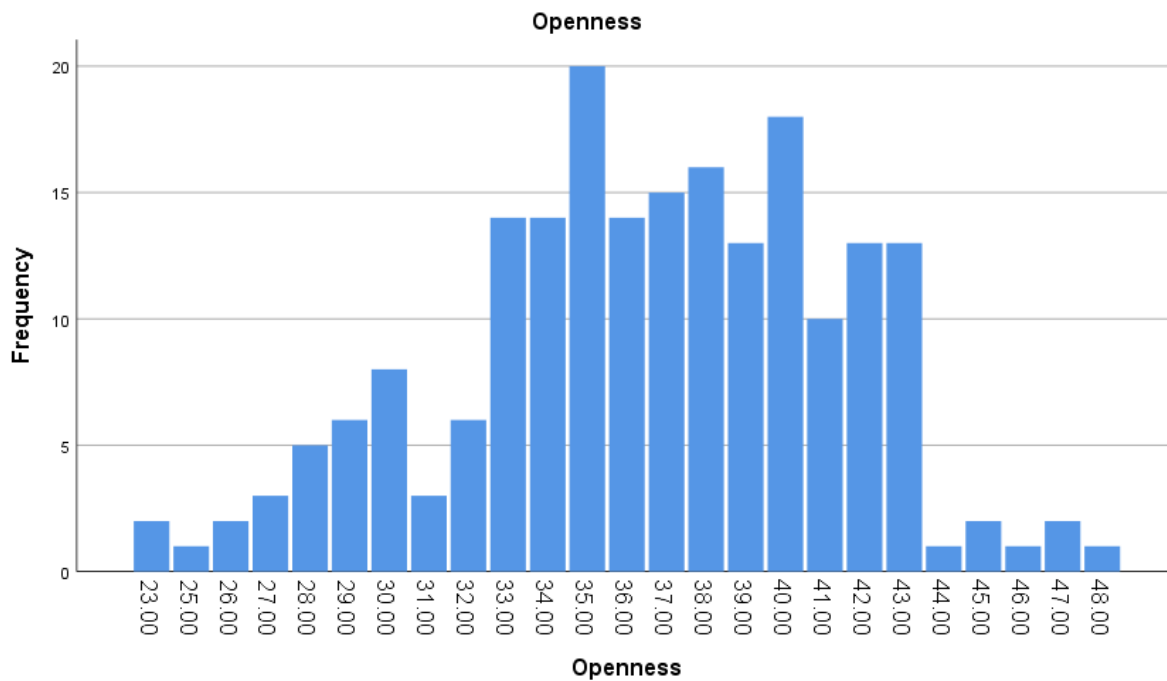


Table 15: Openness to experience frequency

Students	Mean	Mode	Standard Deviation	Maximum score	Minimum score
203	36.51	35	4.81	48	23

Openness to experience seems to be a dominant personality dimension for undergraduate students as most of them scored high in it. They seem to be open to learning and experience new things.

4.3 Teachers' Biodata

To collect teachers' general demographic information only two questions were asked to them in the open-ended questionnaire. One question is about the number of years they have taught and the second one is the modules they have taught. The following Table displays Teachers' gender, the number of years these participant teachers have taught as well as the modules they have been teaching along those years.

Among these teachers there are eight Female teachers and seven Males. It is regarded that the number of years vary from 2 to 26 years of teachings. Three teachers have taught for 8 years. The average of the taught years between those teachers is of 10.71. In addition to that, these teachers vary in the number and the type of modules they have taught. Some have taught only two modules, and some have taught up to 14 different modules.

Table 16: Years of teaching and taught modules

ID	Gender	Years of Teaching	Number of the Modules Taught	Taught Modules
1	Female	10 years	3	Phonetics, Oral and Linguistics
2	Female	17 years	2	Literature and ESP
3	Male	7 years	3	Phonetics, linguistics and ESP

4	Female	2 years	3	Oral, Writing and ESP
5	Male	26 years	14	American Civilization, British Civilization, American Literature, British Literature, Oral, Writing, Study Skills, Translation, Research Methods in Translation Studies, American Studies, Vocabulary Building, Translation, Interpreting, English Literature in Arabic
6	Female	8 years	6	Literature, Anglo- Saxon Civilisation, Linguistics, ICT in Education, e- learning, Curriculum

7	Female	16 years	5	Psychopedagogy, written expression
8	Male	8 months	2	Anglo-Saxon Civilization and Literature
9	Female	22 years	5	Oral, ESP, Grammar, and Research Methodology
10	Male	18 years	9	Oral, Sociolinguistics, Phonetics Psycholinguistics, Cognitive Psychology, Intercultural Communication, Ethics, Computational linguistics, ICT.
11	Male	4 years	4	Anglo-Saxon Civilization, Research Methodology, Study Skills and Literature

12	Male	8 years	2	ESP and Oral
13	Female	8 years	5	Grammar, Writing, Reading, ESP, and Research Methodology
14	Female	11 years	2	Anglo-Saxon civilization and Oral
15	Male	3 years	2	Oral and Writing

The type of modules these teachers have taught vary from language studies to literary studies such as: Oral expression, Anglo-Saxon Civilization, ESP (English for specific purposes) and Grammar. Teacher 5 is considered to have taught the most modules with a career of 26 years so far and 14 different modules. However, the number of years has nothing to do with the number of modules, for example, Teacher 2 has taught for 17 years but taught only 2 modules and Teacher 10 has taught for 18 years and taught 9 modules. To conclude, this Table shows diversity among teachers in terms of the number of taught years and taught modules.

4.4 The nature of Teacher-student Rapport

The first research question is related to the nature of rapport between teachers and Undergraduate students of English in Abu Bekr Belkaid University of Tlemcen, Algeria. To answer this research question, qualitative data have been gathered from students' interviews, teachers' open-ended questionnaires and finally classroom observation and fieldnotes. In other words, to know the nature of teacher-student rapport, I need to take into consideration three different angles

which are: teachers' perspectives about the rapport, students' perspectives about the rapport as well as the researcher interpretation of the classroom observation and fieldnotes. In addition to that, to understand deeply the nature of this rapport two sub-questions have been generated which will be considered along this analysis.

a. Teacher perspectives

In the teacher questionnaire, teachers were asked to describe their relationship with their students. They all have answered positively by different statements. The following Table displays the different wordings given by those teachers to describe their relationship with their students. Hence, two teachers described their relationship as good, two others as very good and teacher 14 called it excellent. Accordingly, four teachers view their relationship as having a mutual respect between the two sides and three others see themselves as friends to their students. In the same vein, Teacher 5 sees himself as a father to his students and Teacher 2 sees herself as a sister to her students. Notwithstanding, Teacher 8 describes his relationship as professional.

Table 17: Teacher-student relationship

The relationship	Number of Teachers
good	3
Very good	2
excellent	1
A mutual respect	5
friend	3
father	1

Sister, confident	1
Easy-going	1
professional	1

It is regarded that despite the fact that there is a positive relationship between students and teachers, the type of relationship differs from one teacher to another. Some teachers are close to their students like being a friend, a sister, or a father, whereas others prefer to keep distance and professionalism to always favor a mutual respect. Respectively, when teachers were asked if they liked teaching and the reason behind it, they presumably all responded by answers like: ‘yes’, ‘of course’, ‘sure’, ‘I love being a teacher’. They all like to be teachers and what they are doing. Whereas, they gave almost similar reasons for loving their jobs, four teachers expressed their joy being around students and interacting with them, as Teacher 7 mentioned: *“I really like to interact with my students; to exchange information and feel their happiness when they succeed”*. Almost, all the other teachers expressed their happiness for sharing, giving knowledge and training students to be better persons. Eventually, four of these teachers have described their job as a noble mission that they are proud of performing.

Teachers were also asked about their teaching philosophy, they all have given different answers, but some seemed to agree on some criteria. Correspondingly, three teachers stress the point of having a good relationship with students via communication to foster respect and discipline. Moreover, two teachers insist on rising their students’ interest as Teacher 14 said that it is essential to make your students love you and be a source of inspiration to them.

On the other hand, teachers were also asked about the thing that irritates them the most in classrooms. They all seemed to report problems that happen with students, only two of them have

reported something related to materials or administration. The following tables displays the different problems that irritates those teachers.

Table 18: Problems irritating teachers in class

Problems Irritating the Teacher	Number of Teachers
Lack of respect	6
Lack of interest	3
Students chatting while the teacher is speaking	5
Coming late	1
Overcrowded classrooms	2
Lack of web-based materials	1
Having to rush with lectures because the administration said so	1
Students not learning anything	1

The Table above shows that most of them seem to report problems of disciplines like six teachers mentioned lack of respect, four teachers mentioned students chatting in class while the teacher is talking, and three of them mentioned the lack of interest of students. Eventually, the most irritating part of being a teacher according to most of them is the lack of discipline from students whether when they are chatting, showing no interest, coming late or disrespecting the teacher in some other manners.

Furthermore, I had some conversations with some teachers before the beginning of the classes that I have recorded in my fieldnotes. First, teacher A has said that she is using a humanistic approach with her students as she tries to be close to them but with some limits. She tries to encourage them and motivate them every time by praising words so that students feel comfortable and participate with her. Second, teacher E, said that *“these are my children and I love them and I am doing everything to make things easier for them to understand”*. Third, teacher C, simply said that her students are very good and did not say much about her interaction with them. Finally, teacher B, said that he was new to the department, and he was doing his best to make his students comfortable by not forcing them to speak.

To sum up, according to those teachers, there seem to be a good relationship between the teachers and their students, despite the fact of some existing irritating problems with some students.

b. Students' Perspective

In the interview held with the 25 students, they were asked if they feel comfortable with all their teachers. 14 of them replied by 'yes', as three of them believe that if the student makes no problems in class, there will be no disagreement in class even if the teacher is 'bad'. For instance, LEX2, a student who has low score in Extraversion said: *“I make no problems and I will not have reactions from them”*. The other 11 students all reported having some disagreements with at least one of their teachers.

Correspondingly, six students mentioned problems like teachers who come to the class just to do the lecture and do not care if the students have understood or not as HN1, a student who has high score in Neuroticism and Low score in Extraversion, talked about fast teachers who deal only with students who follow their pace, but she cannot do so because she needs everything in a slow pace

to understand. Differently, six students also reported about the way teachers interact with them for some teachers embarrasses them in front of the class and some get angry for simply making mistakes. For example, HN3, a student who scored high in Neuroticism and Openness to experience, and low in Agreeableness said that *“some teachers they get nervous because they are so strict like you have to do everything right but I can’t do everything right...”*. Finally, only one student out of the 11 students said he does not feel comfortable with all the teachers because some of them have a bad English pronunciation, and this bothers him a lot.

Nonetheless, I had some informal conversations with some students when the teachers were sometimes late that I have noted in my fieldnotes. Some students expressed themselves and the problems they have got with some teachers. For instance, four students narrated to me some problems they had with a teacher as she used to embarrass them in class if they did not know something. She used to get them to the board and insult them in front of the whole class. They have also mentioned another teacher who is new to the department. Two of these seemed to disagree between themselves where one student HN2 who has high score in Neuroticism, Agreeableness, and Openness to experience said that she liked the teacher, he was cool and allow them to speak and express themselves. However, HAG3, a student who scored high in Agreeableness said that he was not proficient and does not know what he is doing. Nevertheless, they have also praised the majority of their teachers as being very caring and attentive to their problems.

Moreover, I had another conversation with two other students who have reported experiencing a sensitive situation with one teacher who they claimed she was absent for a long period, and they had to sit for the exam with no lectures in hand. The students have decided to report this to the administration, but the teacher denied this as she told the administration that she had covered all the necessary lectures. The teacher was very angry at the students, and she told them they are all

going to have bad marks for what they have done. Apart from this teacher, these two students seem to be fine with the other teachers.

Returning to the interview, students were also asked to describe their ideal teacher or the characteristics they would love to have in a teacher. Table 19 displays the most common characteristics these students want. Accordingly, nine students support teachers who work on establishing a good relationship with their students like by introducing themselves as partners, brothers, sisters or friends. As an illustration, LAG2, a student who scored low in Agreeableness and Extraversion and high in Openness to experience, replied to the question as follow:

To be honest at first, to be caring, I don't want him to see me as a student and I don't want to see him as a teacher. I want we see each other as a team, so a team a partner of course with respect. It's not like I go in any class and learn things that only the teacher gives, I try to give also my information something I know that he doesn't know or she.

Whereas, these students favor a good relationship, eight students stress on the importance of having a teacher who knows how to transmit the message and makes the lessons easier for students to understand without complicating things via looking at the students' needs. Also, five students want a teacher who makes changes in class to motivate them by not being too serious. Four students want a teacher who does not embarrasses them or shout at them because of simple mistakes. Two students want a teacher who has a good English pronunciation. Two others want the teacher to be rather serious and having a strong personality. Yet, two students seem to not have any preferences or maybe they were just scared to say anything against their teachers.

Table 19: Students' ideal teacher

Students	Teacher's Characteristics
3	Fair teacher, who does not prefer one student to the other
4	A teacher who does not shout on students or embarrass them for no reason or for a simple mistake
9	a teacher who favors a good relationship with his/her students (a friend, a partner in work), knows how to communicate
8	A teacher who knows how to transmit the message and make the lesson easier, and give all what s/he has and what the students need to learn
5	A teacher who motivates his/her students, grab students' attention, make some jokes, not always too serious
2	A teacher who has a good accent and a good pronunciation
2	A teacher who is confident, serious, and has a strong personality
2	No preferences

c. Researcher's Observation

In my classroom observations, I have observed six different teachers teaching the same class through three sessions each. There seemed to be a good rapport between students with four teachers as teachers were attentive to their students, taking into consideration each student individually, explaining and making sure the students have understood. For instance, Teacher D saw a student who seemed sleeping, she went to him and asked him if he was sick or had any problems. He just seemed sleepy, so he then started to follow and even to participate. Teacher A went through the rows to see if students have done well in the exercises and if they have understood, students kept on calling her to come to them and she was really attentive and encouraging. Teacher E also gave the opportunity for each student to participate and come to the board to write his sentence to see if they have understood and correct altogether. Finally, Teacher F seemed to respond to each students' question and explain.

Notwithstanding, with Teacher C, rapport with students seemed not to be very strong as there was little participation and concentration during the lectures. Despite the fact that the teacher seemed to explain and answer students' questions, there seemed to be no motivation in class. The teacher was the one who was talking all the time. In the same line, there seemed to be a weak rapport also with Teacher B where it was noticed that the number of students attending his lectures were less compared to other modules. He was taking a lot of time for fixing technical problems with the classroom computer where students kept chatting and doing nothing.

During my informal conversation with some of these students about those teachers. They all seemed to love the four mentioned initial teachers except one student who reported disliking the

Teacher F, because she was speaking all the time, and this made him feel bored. Nonetheless, concerning the Teacher B, some liked him because he allowed them to speak and chat with their friends and some disliked him because they felt uncomfortable in his session, and they did not understand what he was doing. The same thing with Teacher C, as some students disliked her because they claim that she has insulted some of them once. Whereas others seemed to be ok with her because they understood her explanations.

d. Comparing results of classroom observation with teachers' questionnaire and students' interview

Comparing the kind of rapport teachers claimed to have with their students (see table 17) and what has been observed in the classroom, I can say that 'good', 'very good' and 'excellent' maybe applied with some teachers such as A, D, E, and F. 'mutual respect' was seen with almost all the teachers except when they were chatting with teacher B; they did not seem to show respect. Nevertheless, concerning 'friends', 'father', 'sister', 'confident' no such kind of relationship seemed to be observed in class as teachers seemed to be more professional with their students via setting some boundaries.

Consequently, let us compare what teachers reported to be bothering or irritating them in class (see table 18) and if this has been noticed in class. First of all, lack of discipline: during classroom observation, lack of respect could be noticed when students were chatting between themselves with teacher B. Next, lack of interest was noticed when students looked all the time at their phone, chatted or put their heads on their tables (teacher B, and C). Coming late was seen in almost all classes as this did not seem to be related with teacher-students' rapport but rather students' personal issues. Furthermore, away from discipline matters, web-based materials and overcrowded classrooms were the case in all the classes I have observed.

In addition to that, when teachers were asked about their relationship with their students, they all seemed to report having a good rapport. However, classroom observation revealed otherwise with some teachers such as teacher B and C. Correspondingly, interviewed students mentioned having some disagreement with at least one of their teachers. To conclude, teacher-students rapport is good with the majority of classes with the exception of some minority teachers who seemed to have failed establishing rapport with their students.

4.4.1 The most recurrent emotions in class in relation to teacher-student rapport

Students' emotions in class may vary from each class to another and from each individual to another. To discern the most recurrent emotions these undergraduates' students have in class towards their teachers or towards the module itself, qualitative data have been gathered mainly from the open-ended questionnaires, interviews and observations.

a. Teacher Perspectives

To have an idea about students' emotions in class, teachers were asked two questions. First, if they considered their students' emotions in class; and second, what they thought were the recurrent emotions in class. Concerning the first question, the majority of the interrogated teachers confirmed their consideration of their students' emotions except two teachers who said 'no'. Teacher 13 explained this by the lack of time whereas teacher 8 said:

In terms of emotions, I'm not sure I'm well equipped to tell a lot about students' emotions, since it's tricky to keep a balance between professional and friendly, not to mention it'll be even considered a harassment in our society to try to figure out students' emotions.

This teacher seems to be afraid of talking about his students' emotions because he believes that he may be judged by the society if he tries to bring students' emotions to light. It is also important to mention that this teacher is new to the field of teaching and has only taught for eight months.

Concerning the teachers who consider their students' emotions, most of them refer to taking care of students with negative emotions like anxiety, glossophobia, embarrassment, boredom, shame; by talking to them privately, changing the topic if it is boring, and trying to understand and not hurt their feelings if they have personal problems like a family loss. Teacher 4, for instance, said that he most of the time comes early to class and finds some students, so he tries to open some free discussion with them to get to know them more and know their problems, their emotions as he believes that taking into account emotions is relevant for better learning achievements.

Consecutively, teachers communicated different dominant emotions, as some negative and some positive. Therefore, six teachers mentioned negative emotions like anxiety, fear of being wrong, shyness, lack of self-esteem, lack of confidence as recurrent emotions in class. Teacher 8 added even 'lack of interest' if it can be considered as an emotion. For others, they noted positive emotions in their students like: enthusiasm, motivation, awareness, will to understand, hope, admiration, love, relaxed. For teacher 2 stated that "*students are lost at the beginning but when they get to know me better, they feel secure and tend to confide in me, they share their fear and happy moments*". In short, teachers have different opinions about the same students as some view negative emotions in class as more dominant, whereas others see rather positive ones.

b. Students' Perspectives

25 students were asked about their emotions in class towards English and then towards their teachers through different questions in an interview. They have also been asked about their

emotions regarding some scenarios that may happen in class with teachers at the end of the interview.

Emotions towards English

First, students were asked about how they felt about the four skills (speaking, writing, listening and reading), when they practice them in class and when they participate in class. It was regarded that 11 students expressed their fear or apprehension when they spoke English in class, for both students who scored low in Extraversion and both students who scored low in Openness to experience feel apprehension and fear. However, LOP1 seemed to feel both joy and fear as she loves speaking English in class but fears to make mistakes. Most of the others feel positive emotions such like: joy, admiration, trust, motivation, ecstasy, interest and love.

Three students feel apprehension and fear when practicing writing in class as they are afraid of making mistakes, for LN1 feels both fear and joy as she loves writing but when the teacher is close to her to see what she has written, she gets anxious. Two students feel boredom as they do not like writing and HOP2 said that she just feels nothing. All the rest of the students feel positive emotions such like: amazement, joy, love, optimism, and interest.

Concerning listening, HEX2 reported feeling both fear and joy as she loves listening, but she fears not understanding everything when listening. Four students reported feeling distracted, pensive, annoyed and even angry because they cannot understand everything it is said as three of them have also expressed their fear when speaking English in class. LN1 said that she just feels nothing. All the other students feel positive emotions such like: love, interest, trust, serenity, and admiration.

Four students have been reported to feel apprehension and fear when practicing reading, where three of them have already expressed their fear about speaking English in class. Also, LAG1 said she feels boredom because she does not like it, and HC2 said that she even feels sad because she is

not good at it. HOP2 on the other hand just feels nothing. All the other students feel positive emotions such like: Optimism, love, serenity and anticipation.

Concerning their participation. Ten students expressed their apprehension and fear where HEX1 even mentioned terror. Seven of these students have already expressed their fear when they speak English in class. LC2 said that she feels fear with some teachers and trust with others. LC1 reported feeling annoyed when he participates, just because he is obliged to do so and LAG2 reported not participating at all. Other students feel positive emotions such like: interest, amazement, optimism, and joy.

These students were also asked about what they felt when they spoke, studied, used English outside the class. Only two students expressed their fear when speaking English outside the class where four students reported not speaking it outside the class. HEX2 stated she feels angry and bored when studying English outside the class as she does not like studying alone, especially doing homework. Also, five students reported not studying English outside the class. Concerning the use of English outside the class, LAG2 mentioned feeling shy when he had to speak English in some situations as he feels that everyone is looking at him. LC1 feels distraction and LEX1 feels vigilance because she does not think she is able to use it very well. Two students reported never using English outside the class. Nonetheless, all the other students reported feeling positive emotions such like: joy, love and admiration

Conclusively, it is regarded that positive emotions are dominant for these students in regard to the English language except when speaking the language in class or participating as there is more equality between positive and negative emotions. Correspondingly, Joy is the most recurrent mentioned emotion by these students. Also, apprehension and fear (anxiety) are the most recurrent emotions that may be interpreted negatively.

Emotions towards Teachers

To know students' emotions towards their teachers, I have asked them how they felt about seven different statements. First, it was reported that five students said they felt nothing when their teachers entered the class. Otherwise, HAG3 said she feels boredom, LAG2 feels vigilance, HC2, feels fear and LC2 feels sadness. On the other hand, nine students mentioned feeling positive emotions like joy, optimism and anticipation. Otherwise, the other students, stated that it depends on teachers, with some they feel sadness, boredom, disgust and annoyance and with others they feel joy, ecstasy, interest, and serenity.

Students were also asked what they felt when the teacher smiles or tells jokes in class. Almost all of them reported positive emotions like love, serenity and joy for the teacher who smiles in class except for HOP2 who stated that she feels nothing about it. However, concerning joking in class, two students expressed boredom because teacher jokes are not funny, and HAG3 expressed annoyance. HN2 said that it depends on teachers and on jokes as she may feel joy or boredom.

When students were asked what they felt when the teacher calls them with their first name. Five of them said 'surprise', as they are not used to it where most teachers call them with their family name. Three students said they would feel nothing and LOP1 said she feels fear and surprise at the same time. The rest of the students reported positive emotions like joy and love. Moreover, students were also asked what they felt when the teacher encourages them to speak in English. Four students reported feeling fear and two students feeling annoyance as they claimed they don't like being forced to speak. Most of the other student reported positive emotions like admiration, trust and interest.

Concerning teachers who ask personal questions in class related to the lecture, nine students reported emotions like, annoyance, disgust, disapproval, fear and even rage. For LAG2 stated not wanting people to know him. HOP2 reported feeling nothing and LEX1 said she would feel vigilance. The other students all reported positive emotions like joy and interest to answer. Differently, concerning teachers who ignore them, only four students reported feeling nothing whereas all the others felt negative emotions like disgust, anger, rage, and sadness.

To conclude, the majority of students expressed positive emotions towards their teachers except when the teacher ignores them. The most recurring emotion towards teachers is also joy and the most recurrent emotion that may be interpreted negatively is sadness. In other words, sadness was mostly regarded when the teacher ignores students or when the teacher enters the class.

Emotions during different scenarios

Interviewed students responded differently to different scenarios, with different emotions. For instance, for scenario one (see appendix xxx), 12 students felt positively about teachers correcting them in front of the class where eight of them reported feeling acceptance and others love and serenity where they have stated that it is good to be corrected and not left with our mistakes. Yet, 12 students reported negative emotions such like embarrassment, annoyance and sadness. Only HOP1 said he would feel nothing about it.

Concerning scenario 2, 21 students reported positive emotions like trust and interest towards the teacher who believes in them and encourages them. Moreover, 3 students reported additional emotions like fear, sadness and anger because they have got a bad mark. Nonetheless, one student said he would feel angry about it because he thinks that the teacher is rather mocking him and not encouraging him. In the third scenario, 22 students reported negative emotions like apprehension

and anger towards the teacher who tells them to justify themselves in front of the class. Differently, two students said they would just feel nothing about it.

The fourth scenario had a variety of emotions. 11 students reported feeling positive emotions like joy, love and trust when the teacher defends them against the other classmates. However, five students seemed to feel additional emotions like embarrassment, sadness and anger, mostly towards their classmates. Despite the defense of the teacher, eight students reported only negative emotions like anger and sadness, where HAG3 reported even rage and grief. Finally, the fifth scenario had mostly negative emotions like terror, sadness and anger towards the teacher who says that there is no reason to be shaking when presenting a simple piece of work. Still, two students reported feeling motivation and trust in addition to fear as they feel they want to prove themselves to the teacher. Surprisingly, HN3 said she would feel serenity as this will only encourage her to do well and HC2 would feel nothing about it.

To conclude, each individual had different emotions in different situations some are affected negatively and some positively, or both by the same situation, whereas some do simply not feel anything. The emotion that was regarded most dominant among these scenarios is ‘anger’, whereas the most recurrent positive emotion was ‘acceptance’.

c. Researcher’s Observation

Through my observation with the same class with different teachers. Different emotions were noticed with different teachers. To expand more, with teacher A, emotions like joy, interest and amazement were dominant in class. As an illustration, students seemed to be amazed (open eyes) when the teacher told them ‘Congratulations’ for doing the exercises very well; also, students seemed happy when the teacher came to them and corrected their exercises individually. Indeed,

there were some negative emotions but only with few students like distraction in two students (chatting, looking at their phones), and feeling uncomfortable for some students who did not do their exercises at home (looking down and not participating, trying to hide themselves). Eventually, when some students were asked about this teacher, they even expressed love for her.

With teacher B, students seemed happy to participate when the teacher gave them the opportunity to express themselves, but along the sessions, boredom and annoyance were noticed because the teacher took time to fix technical problems or just gave them to copy some information from the board. Correspondingly, students seemed to lose interest (sad faces) with teacher C along the sessions as emotions like boredom, annoyance, disgust were noticed where the majority of students seemed sleepy and forced themselves to follow. For instance, students made disgust faces when the teacher told them she was going to be tough in exams. Nonetheless, there were some moments of joy, especially when the teacher made some jokes or gave them some practice to do but lasted for a very short time.

Concerning teacher D, emotions like interest, surprise, joy, amazement were noticed for the majority of the class, especially when the teacher narrated to them the story of a novel. Some students seemed to be bored and distracted at the beginning but changed along the session and became interested. Furthermore, emotions like joy, interest and some anxieties were noticed with teacher E when students were asked to come to the board. For teacher F, emotions like interest, little boredom, and little distraction were regarded.

Conclusively, emotions were noticed to change in class depending on the teachers and on situations. More importantly, joy and interest were the most recurrent emotions regarded with teachers A, D, E and F, whereas boredom, distraction and annoyance were the most recurrent emotions noticed with teachers B and C.

4.4.2 Students' behaviours with no or little rapport

After analyzing and displaying data concerning recurrent students' emotions in class, it is important also to consider what happens when there is a negative atmosphere in class. Or in other words, when there is little or no rapport between students and their teachers. To look into students' reactions and behaviors, students' views and classroom observations are regarded for this question.

a. Students' perspectives

Students' behaviours and reactions to teachers are going to be derived from the scenarios in the last section of the interview (see appendix 7). Correspondingly, the first scenario which entails correcting students in front of the class when they make a mistake, 11 students considered this as bad behaviour coming from the teacher when taking into consideration their emotions, whereas the others do not seem to mind or have any problem with this situation as the majority just accept it. From the eleven students, eight students stated they would keep quiet in this situation, where two students said they would blush, LN1 said she would just bend her head, HOP3 said she would look at the teacher with a sad face and LOP1 said that she would just accept it. Otherwise, three students said they would correct themselves.

In the second scenario where the teacher encourages their students when having had a bad mark. Most of the students showed positive reactions to that like: doing their best for next time, smiling to the teacher and saying thank you, and be optimistic of their abilities. Except LC1 who said that he does not believe the teacher who says that to him as he would be just mocking him.

Moreover, the third scenario where the teacher tells their students to justify themselves in front of the class for being late to class when they have a personal situation, the majority of the students would feel bad towards this situation as only two students said they accept it and they would just justify themselves. Accordingly, six students said they would justify themselves once alone with the teacher and five students said they would just justify themselves in front of the class as they think they do not have any choice. Two other students said it would depend on the situation as they may or not justify as two others have just declined justifying anything. In the same vein, two students said they would just go out, four students said they would lie about it, and three students would tell the teacher that this is personal.

Concerning the fifth scenario, most of the students saw this behaviour from the teacher as a bad thing, except HN3 who said she will just continue presenting and do well as this is just motivating what the teacher has just said. HC2 also said that she would just present and not care about what the teacher says to her. Talking about the other students, 11 of them said she would just continue presenting where LC2 said she would force her smile and continue, and HC1 said she would rush to finish her presentation. Additionally, two students said they would stop presenting and three students said they would reply to the teacher by statement like *“I know, leave me in peace”*, or *“it’s not easy to present if front of the class”*. Finally, HEX1 said she would repeat everything from the beginning and LOP1 said that it depends on the situation as she may continue or not.

b. Classroom Observation

In the classroom observation, I have focused on observing the misunderstandings that could happen between teachers and their students, and the students’ behaviours when students are being ignored

or not regarded from the teacher. Accordingly, as it has been mentioned earlier, teacher A had a good relationship with her students and a good rapport, however some misunderstandings did happen in class with few students. For instance, a tension was noticed when the teacher was passing through the rows to see if students have done their exercises and one student picked her friends copybook to show it to the teacher. The teacher figured this out and scolded the student as she warned her of having minus points in exams if she ever repeats this. This student bent her head and kept silent for the whole session.

Concerning teacher B, as it has been mentioned earlier, little rapport was regarded between teacher B and his students. Correspondingly, students were most of the time noticed chatting between themselves and looking at their phones, especially when the teacher was occupied fixing the computer or talking to other students. Moreover, some students were seen to be criticizing the teacher between themselves by saying they do not understand what he was doing as everything was nonsense. The teacher tried to engage them by looking at them, but they just kept hiding themselves not wanting to participate. Eventually, the teacher once, made a joke but students did not seem to get it as they just kept staring at the teacher with no laughs or smiles.

Rapport between teacher C and her students is considered to be under average. For instance, little participation was noticed as the teacher was all the time speaking. Many students were seen to look at their phones, chatting between themselves, looking sleepy and forcing themselves to follow, stretching and yawning, and putting their heads on the table. Also, two students were heard to tell each other that the session was boring. Some students were perceived laughing at some point at the teacher as they did not seem to agree with her. Finally, many students started preparing themselves to go out before the end of the session where the teacher has told them that it was not time yet.

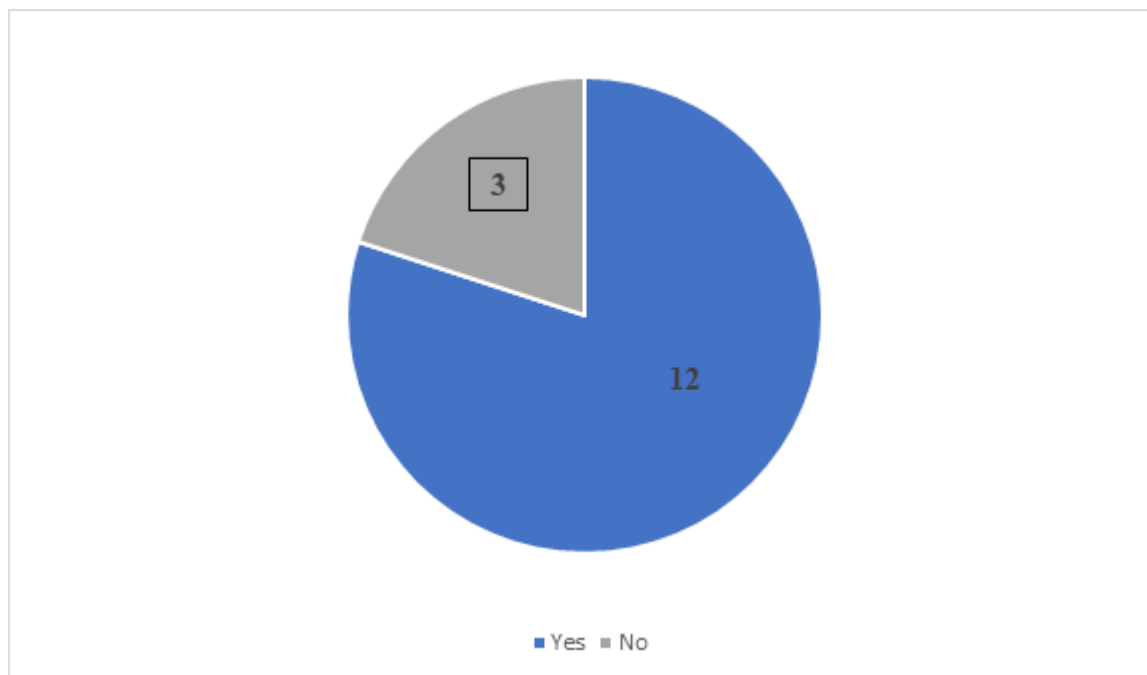
A good rapport was also observed between teacher D, E, and F. Consequently, no important behaviours from students were perceived except few students who were not following as they were

looking at their phones or chatting. In short, it was regarded that more apparent behaviours were observed when students get bored from the session or are not interested like looking at their phones and chatting.

4.4.3 Teachers and their students' personality traits

In the open-ended questionnaire, teachers were asked whether or not they take into account their students' personality traits and if they do so how or why not if they don't do so. The pie chart below presents the number of teachers who answered 'yes' for taking into consideration their students' personality traits and those who answered 'no' for not regarding the personality traits of their students. Thus, 12 teachers said 'yes' and only 3 teachers said 'no'

Chart 11: Teachers' consideration of their students' personality traits



Only five teachers from the 12 teachers who replied by ‘yes’ explained how they dealt with their students’ personalities by stating some examples. For instance, Teacher 5 said that he does not force shy learners to answer his questions so that they don’t feel embarrassed or hurt when they make mistakes. Teacher 6 said that she tries to bring topics in writing or conversations about personal subjects that may interest each individual and insist on the involvement of the introvert students in class. Teacher 8 said that he tries to communicate with each student to know who they are and what they want to become. Teacher 10 said that she tries to understand the different behaviours that happen in class which may reflect on their thoughts as she stated the case of introvert learners who may seem not interested in your class but actually this is just their way of learning. Finally, Teacher 11, said that he tries to make them aware of their differences and that each one has their own capacities as he insists about accepting the differences of the students for their achievements.

Furthermore, some of the other teachers gave rather the importance of considering students’ personality traits instead of saying how they are dealing with them, such as teacher 9 who stated that “psycho-pedagogy is the backbone of our job”. In addition to that, most teachers seem to emphasize on personalities like Introverts/Extroverts or traits like shyness/charismatic. Maybe this can indicate the different perceptions about the definition or types of personalities among those teachers. Also, teachers seem to focus only on introvert learners which is just one type of personality where they may exist others.

On the other hand, teachers who replied by ‘no’, gave reasons like “too crowded classrooms” or “lack of time” for not considering their students personality traits. All in all, most teachers seem to try their best to regard their students as individuals, each with their own methods and beliefs.

4.5 Students' Motivation in Class

The second research question is related to the extent in which undergraduate students are motivated to learn English. To look into answers, quantitative data and qualitative data are regarded. In other words, data from the motivation questionnaire, students' interviews, teacher questionnaire and classroom observation are taken into consideration.

a. Students' motivation questionnaire

Integrative Motivation

This section comprises of ten items where one item is reversed using the SPSS software. The following histogram displays the score obtained by the undergraduate students as it shows that the majority of these students scored very high in the integrative motivation which indicates that they love the language, and they are motivated to learn it for themselves. Above 60 students obtained full higher scores with 44 and 45. The mean is also high with 40.85. The standard deviation is moderate with 4.066

Chart 12: Integrative motivation

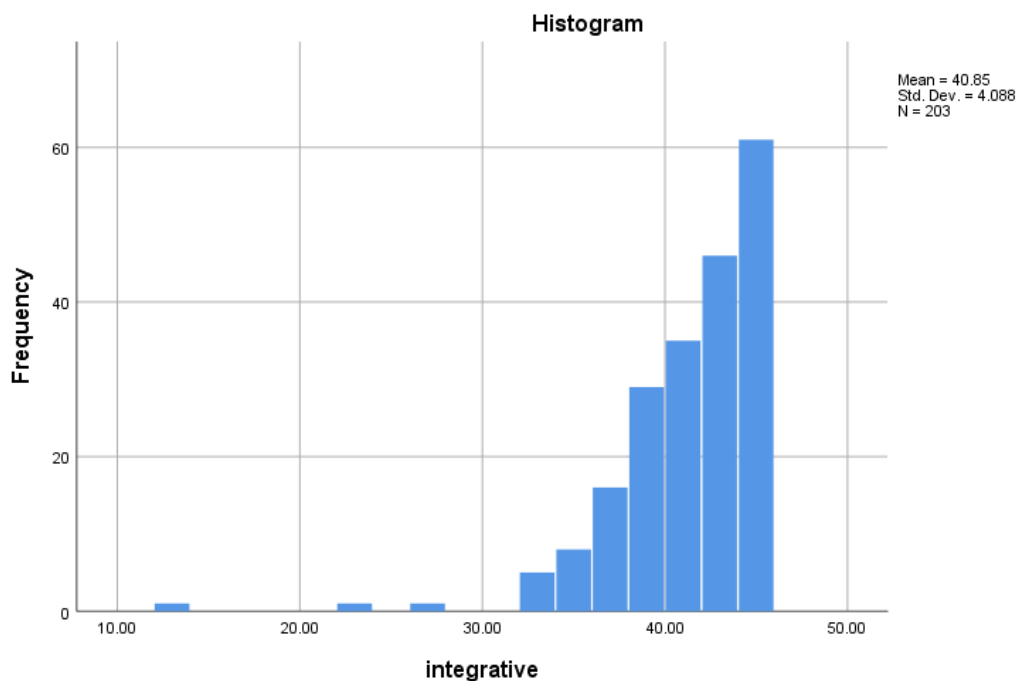


Table 20: Integrative motivation frequency

students	Mean	Mode	Standard Deviation	Maximum Score	Minimum Score
203	40.85	44	4.088	45	13

Integrativeness as explained by Gardner (2001) involves an earnest passion towards learning the target language to closely approach the community of that language, as it draws in an emotional identification for the target group. Eventually, these results show the strong integrative orientation of these students.

Instrumental motivation

This section consists of ten items where four items are reversed using the same software. It is regarded that this type of orientation contains also high scores with maximum of 46 and a minimum

of 23 as shown in Table 21. The mode is 45 and the mean is 41.52 which indicates they are moderately close to each other. The standard deviation which is 3.913 seems to be quite balanced. In addition to that, the chart shows that a great part of high scores lay between 35 and 46 which is above the average.

Chart 13: Instrumental motivation

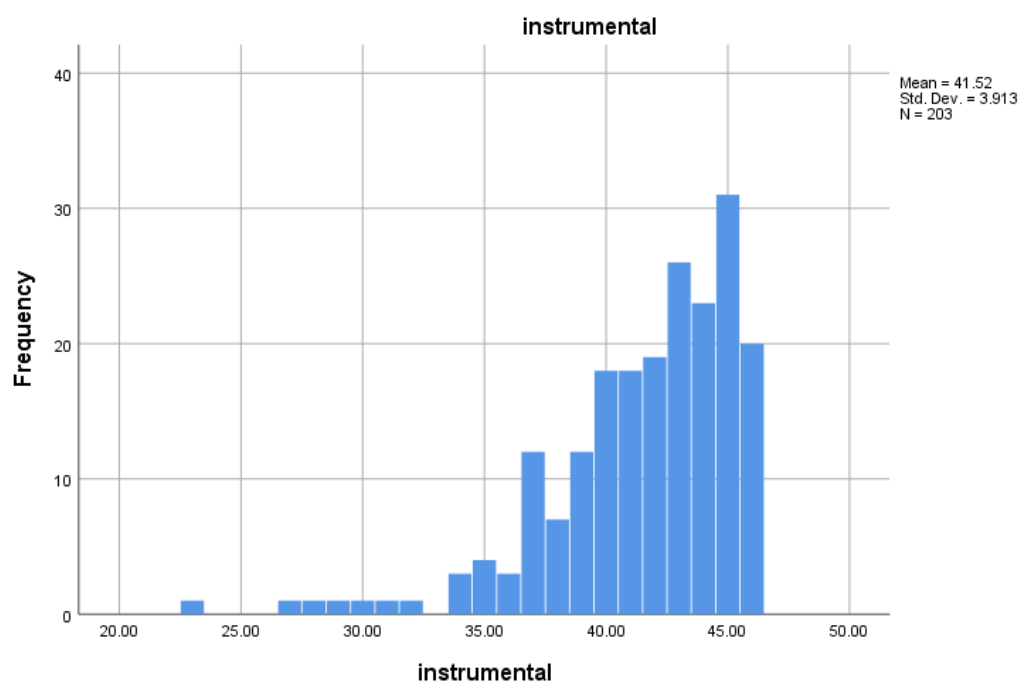


Table 21: Instrumental motivation frequency

Students	Mean	Mode	Standard Deviation	Maximum Score	Minimum score
203	41.52	45	3.913	46	23

Conclusively, Gardner (2001) describes the instrumental orientation as for practical objectives such as obtaining an academic achievement or a job promotion. This means that most of undergraduate students have instrumental goals for learning this language regarding the high scores obtained. This is also an indication that most undergraduate students are both integrative and instrumentally oriented.

Motivation from the teacher

This section is related to a type of motivation I thought needs to be included which involves teachers. This motivation is related to teachers as motivators or not. Thus, I have selected five questions from the Gardner's AMTB questionnaire which I have initially tested. Three items are reversed to get a fuller score of 25.

Chart 14: Motivation from the teacher

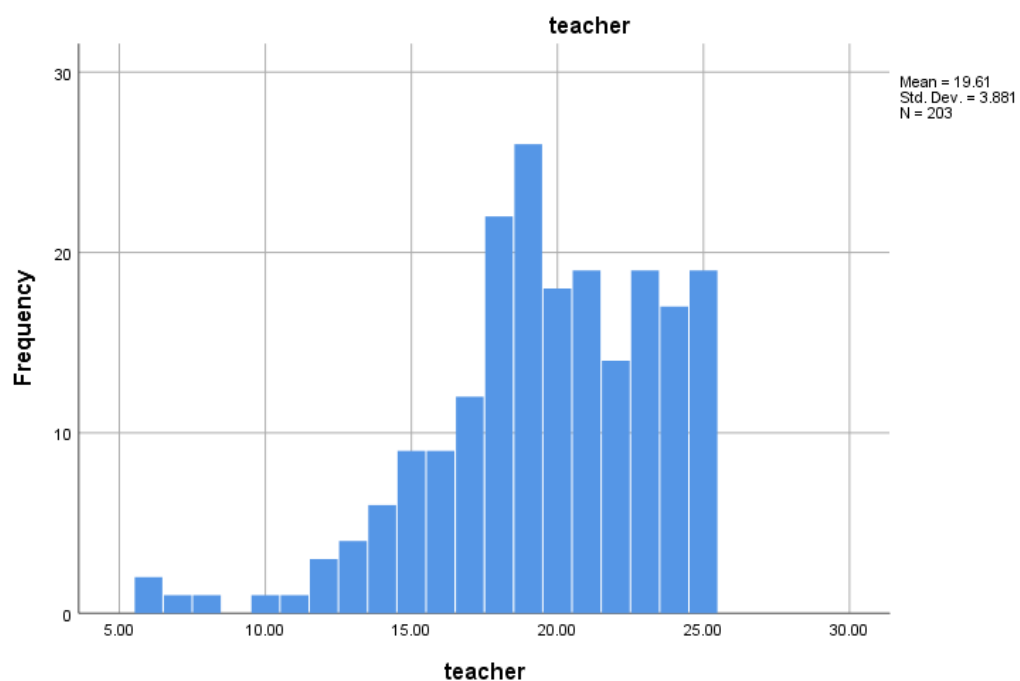


Table 22: Motivation from the teacher frequency

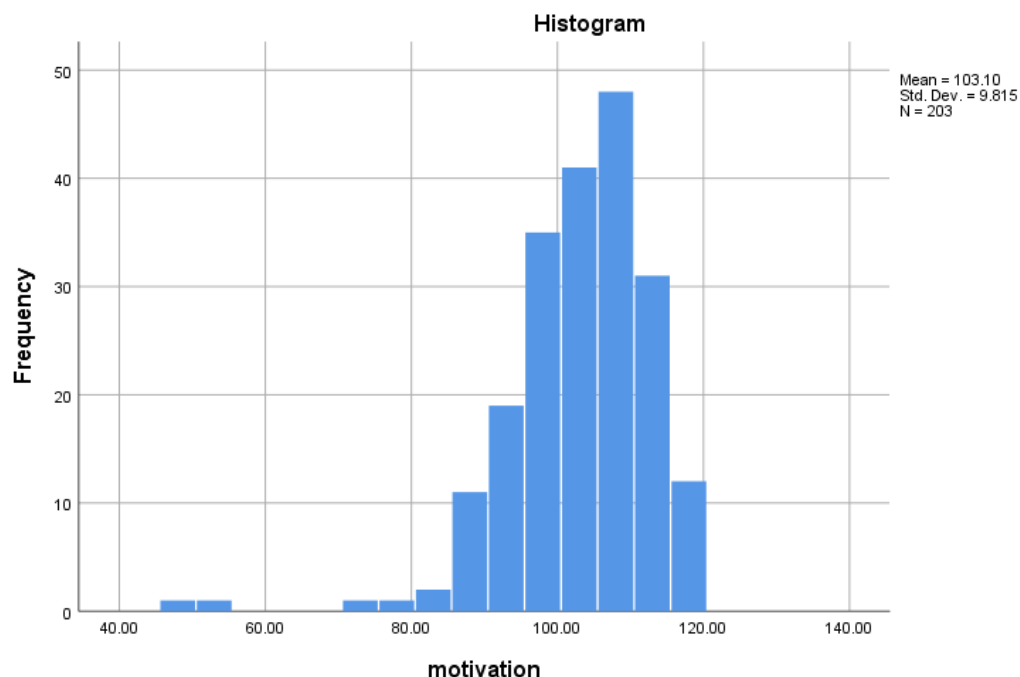
students	Mean	Mode	Standard Deviation	Maximum score	Minimum score
203	19.61	19	3.881	25	6

The chart above illustrates a high peak in motivation around the 19 score. This is subsequently confirmed in the above table where the mode is 19 and the mean is 19.61. They are thus quite closely related. The standard deviation is moderate with 3.881. To sum up, the teacher-oriented motivation is high as well compared to the above type of motivation (integrative and instrumental). In other words, it is concluded that the teacher somehow plays a role in the motivation of students.

General motivation score

Via combining the three sections above which all resulted in high scores, it is obvious that the overall students score of motivation is high as well. This is what is displayed in the following chart and Table

Chart 15: Motivation



The chart above shows that a great number of students lay between the score of 80 and 120, which is above the average of scores. The table below displays also the mode which is 110 and the mean 103.10 with no great difference between them. The standard deviation is 9.815 which shows that the interval of scores is moderate.

Table 23: Motivation frequency

Students	Mean	Mode	Standard deviation	Maximum score	Minimum score
203	103.10	110	9.815	119	48

In short, the motivation of undergraduate students to learn English as a foreign language is considered as significantly high, whether they are integrative, instrumental or under a teacher influence, all three give results to a high score of motivation.

a. Students' interview

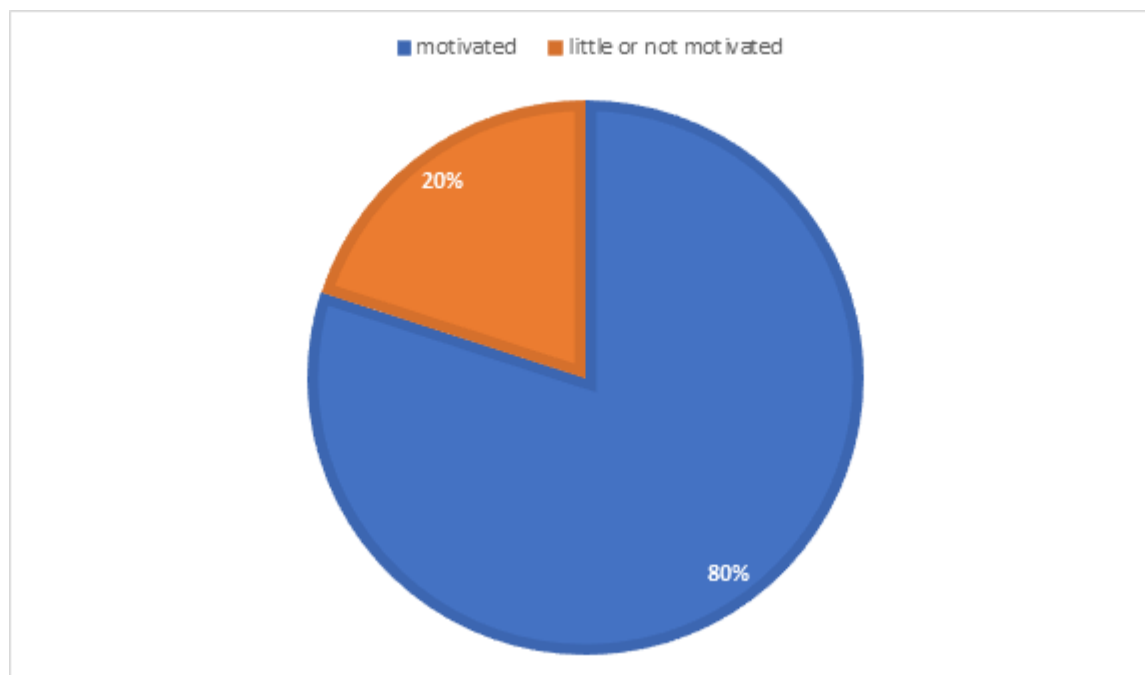
To look into students' motivation to learn English, the 25 students were first asked for the reason behind choosing to study English, and then if they felt themselves motivated to learn English or not. Accordingly, 16 students expressed their love about English as a reason for choosing to study it. Differently, seven students said that English is an international language, and you can speak with it whenever you go as it allows them to make new foreign friends. Seven other students said that they have chosen English because it was a dream and a decision since they were children. Two students said that they find English very interesting and very beautiful with its history, culture and different accents. However, four students said that English was not their first choice, for LEX1 had no other choices and HC2 said that she had a bad mark in French that is why she chose English, but this was not her favourite language.

Among these interviewed students, the majority have replied by 'yes' to the question of motivation. Only five students replied by answers like: sometimes, not too much, not really, and a little bit. For instance, LEX1 who previously stated she did not have a lot of choices which is why she chose English, said this was the reason behind not being really motivated to learn. Also, LN2 who said that when he was in high school, he wanted to learn English because he wanted to travel to English speaking countries, has little motivation which is his own motivation when he tries to watch English videos or work by himself, otherwise, there is no motivation coming from the community.

HN2 who said that she likes English because of the beauty of the language, stated that she is not all the time motivated, and this is mainly because of teachers. Moreover, HN3 replied by 'sometimes', because she claimed that nobody gives them motivation, it is only her love for English which motivates her. Finally, LOP2 said that his motivation has decreased compared to last year,

because he lives far away from the university, and it takes him a lot of time to come every day which is tiring for him.

Chart 16: students' motivation



b. Teachers' perspectives

In the open-ended teacher questionnaire, teachers were asked to describe their students' motivation. As a result, from the Table below, it is apparent that 11 teachers have clearly stated whether their students' motivation is weak or high as five teachers said 'high', three teachers said 'low' and three teachers said that almost all of them are motivated, only few are not. In addition to that, two of these teachers believe that motivation is the responsibility of the teacher as Teacher 1 clearly stated that student's motivation depends on teacher efforts to motivate them or not.

Table 24: Students' motivation according to teachers

Students' Motivation	Number of teachers
High (very motivated)	5
Most of them high, few low	3
Weak (not motivated, not that high)	3

Four teachers have not been included in this table, because they have replied otherwise. Two of them also sustain the idea that students' motivation depends on the teacher as teacher 4 claimed that in the oral expression module he had to prepare the program by his own so students were moderate to highly motivated. However, in the written expression module he had to follow a program which was not motivating to him, so it was impossible to motivate his students. Teacher 11 also stated that "When students are motivated and their awareness is raised, they achieve better. I concentrate on augmenting their awareness to be more autonomous and self-guided towards success". Moreover, Teacher 3 affirmed that it differs from one student to another as some are motivated to learn, some are only motivated for their marks and few are totally not motivated; alternatively, Teacher 2 asserted that their motivation varies from one level to another.

In conclusion, it is perceived that every teacher has his own view about their students' motivation, some consider them as having a low motivation and some consider their motivation as high, bearing in mind that these students are the same. Consequently, the results of the motivation questionnaire correspond only with the teachers who consider their students as motivated.

c. Classroom observation

Among the six teachers that have been observed with the same students, there have been a variation in the mood and motivation of students. This has been noticed through their apparent emotions, body language and behaviours. For instance, it has been observed with teacher A that the majority

of students were clearly engaged with their teacher. Accordingly, behaviours and expressions like, happy faces, mutual participation, little boredom, students leaning forwards and wanting to participate were detected, in addition to the afore mentioned positive emotions. As an example, when finishing the correction of exercises, one student kept saying to the teacher ‘please, please, please’ so that the teacher comes and sees her responses as well. The teacher was very pleased by her motivation and called her to the board. This concludes that students’ motivation seems high among most of the students, at least with this teacher.

Differently, as it was earlier mentioned, mostly negative emotions like boredom and annoyance were regarded with teacher B. Eventually, little motivation was perceived as there were little participants and little presence. Many students were perceived chatting or looking at their phones, waiting for the session to end, where two students admitted to themselves regretting coming to the class as this was boring. The same for teacher C, as many students were perceived putting their heads down, saying to each other ‘this is boring’, chatting, looking at their phones, stretching and yawning, and preparing themselves to go out before the end of the session. These behaviours clearly indicate little or no motivation to learn.

Concerning teacher D, many students seemed focusing with the teacher as many were participating and asking questions which proves their interest and motivation to learn, and as previously mentioned, positive emotions were also noticed. Correspondingly, students were also participating with teacher E, where many of them were observed asking questions, which also indicates their motivation to learn. Finally, with teacher F, there was a moderate participation where some students were seen following the teacher and others pretending or chatting with their friends. Some students were also regarded participating and asking questions which implies their motivation. In short, motivation is considered as average with teacher F as some seemed interested and some were not.

To conclude, it was remarked that motivation varies among the same students through different sessions, where teachers played a great role in many situations. Still, some other factors of being motivated or not can be seen such as their love/hate for the language or the module itself.

Combining the above quantitative and qualitative data coming from questionnaires, interviews and observation, it can be concluded that the overall motivation of the majority of the undergraduates' students is high, since the interview confirms this majority. However, it has been noticed in the teacher questionnaire that every teacher has judged their students' motivation differently, for 8 of them said that their students' motivation is high or most of them high. Seven teachers have said otherwise where 3 of them have said 'weak'. Accordingly, the classroom observations have showed that students' motivation varies from one teacher to another.

4.5.1 Rapport and motivation

In order to see if there is a link or a relationship between teacher-student rapport and students' motivation, quantitative and qualitative data from different angles should be taken into consideration. Accordingly, students' perspectives (motivation questionnaire and interviews), classroom observations and briefly teacher perspectives were regarded.

a. Motivation Questionnaire

From what it has been displayed earlier, teacher-based motivation was regarded to be quite high for these students. Eventually, to understand the rapport and its influence on motivation we are going to see each item of this section separately.

. First Item

Students were asked if some of their teachers were a source of inspiration to them. The table below clearly shows that 107 students, which is more than half of the sample, strongly agree on the fact that some teachers are a source of inspiration to them. In the same vein, 60 students partially agree on that. 15 students strongly disagree and only 5 students partially disagree. Otherwise, 16 students neither agree nor disagree. Evidently, it is regarded that a great number of students are influenced by their teachers as they are a source of inspiration to them.

Table 25: Teachers as a source of inspiration

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly agree	107	52.7
Partially agree	60	29.6
Neither agree nor disagree	16	7.9
Partially disagree	5	2.5
Strongly disagree	15	7.4
total	203	100

. Second Item

The second item says that most of English classes are boring. Table 26 demonstrates that the highest number of students neither agree nor disagree on the statement, representing 30% of the sample. Differently, 28,1% strongly disagree, 21.2% partially agree, 17.2% partially disagree and only 3.4% strongly agree. These results show that students hold opposing views concerning their

classes, where some find that most of them are boring, and others disagree on that. Still, when combining students who strongly disagree and partially disagree, it gives a larger number comparing to students who agree upon their classes being boring.

Table 26: English classes are boring

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly agree	7	3.4
Partially agree	43	21.2
Neither agree nor disagree	61	30.0
Partially disagree	35	17.2
Strongly disagree	57	28.1
total	203	100

. Third Item

The third item involves being motivated to go to class because their English teacher are so good. The Table below shows that 77 students partially agree, and 44 students strongly agree. Differently, only 13 students partially disagree, and 13 students strongly disagree. Also, 56 students neither agree nor disagree. In a nutshell, a large number of students reported being motivated to go to class because their teachers are good.

Table 27: English Teachers are so good

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly agree	44	21.7
Partially agree	77	37.9
Neither agree nor disagree	56	27.6
Partially disagree	13	6.4
Strongly disagree	13	6.4
total	206	100

. Fourth Item

This item is about English classes being a waste of time. A large number of students are noted in Table 28 to strongly disagree about that, representing 69.5 % of them and 16.3% who partially disagree. Otherwise, very few students reported strongly agreeing or partially agreeing about that with 2% and 3.5%. Also, 8.9% responded with neither agree nor disagree. Eventually, a large number of students consider their English classes very important and not a waste of time.

Table 28: English classes are a waste of time

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly agree	4	2.0
Partially agree	7	3.4
Neither agree nor disagree	18	8.9
Partially disagree	33	16.3
Strongly disagree	141	69.5
total	203	100

Fifth Item

The final item states ‘not believing that their teachers are very good’. Table 29 clearly indicates that 85 students strongly disagree and 44 students partially disagree, which is more than half of the sample. Differently, 24 students partially agree and only six students strongly agree. Also, 44 students neither agree nor disagree about that. Conclusively, a large number of students believe that their teachers are good.

Table 29: Teachers are not very good

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly agree	6	3.0
Partially agree	24	11.8
Neither agree nor disagree	44	21.7
Partially disagree	44	21.7
Strongly disagree	85	41.9
total	203	100

b. Students' interviews

In the interview with the 25 students, students were asked about their teachers and how they think they can play a role in their students’ attitudes towards English. Furthermore, students were given five scenarios that can happen in class, which has been explained before in this chapter, where in each scenario that happens with the teacher, students were asked if this has an effect on their motivation or not.

Initially, concerning teachers influence on students' attitudes towards English, the majority of the students agree on the fact that a teacher can have an influence on their attitudes towards English, except three students who said that the teacher cannot change their minds or how they feel about the English language, and two students replied differently by 'maybe' or LOP2 who said that a teacher can make you change your mind about the module and make you hate it but not the entire language.

Speaking about the students who believe on teacher's influence, they have provided different teachers' behaviours which can positively influence them such like: sharing their experience with their students, giving them piece of advice, having conversation with them, explaining very well, and always motivating them. Moreover, LOP2 said that her attitudes towards English depends 80% on the teacher, and LEX1 said that if the teacher loves what he is doing, he can make you love it too. Otherwise, HC2 stated that when she is afraid of the teacher, she does her best to please him and it works for her as she becomes excellent in that module.

However, the teacher can also have a negative influence, for example, HN2 said that she used to love a module and a teacher made her hate it because she was dull and made them memorize the lectures where even with doing so, HN2 got a bad mark as she thought of herself as stupid, which completely demotivated her and changed her attitudes towards this module. Another case with LAG2 who changed completed the stream from scientific studies to language studies because of problems he had with teachers.

Respectively, speaking about the results of the scenarios, in the first scenario where the teacher corrects the mistake of the student in front of the class, 16 of the interviewed students said that this situation will motivate them, and one student said that this will demotivate her. six students said that this situation would not influence their motivation and two students said that it depends on the

teacher and on his way of correcting them, which indicates that in the overall, 19 out of 25 are influenced by their teachers in this situation.

In the second scenario where the teacher encourages them when they have had a bad mark, 20 students reported that this situation will motivate them and only four students reported having no influence at all. LC2, however, said that this situation can either motivate her or demotivate her. Eventually, most of the interviewed students are influenced by their teacher encouragement. Next, the third scenario which implicates the teacher who asks the late student to justify themselves in front of the class, 14 students said that this will not affect their motivation at all, and 11 students reported being negatively influenced.

The fourth scenario where the teacher defends the student which have been laughed at by his classmates, 18 students reported being influenced by this situation, wherein nine of them would be motivated and 8 of them would be demotivated. HEX3 on the other hand, said that she would be motivated by the teacher and demotivated by her classmates. six students said that this would not influence their motivation. Lastly, the final scenario where the teacher tells the student who is presenting that this is just a simple presentation and does not have to shiver like this, 11 students are influenced negatively, and eight students are influenced positively. four students reported not being affected by this and one student said that this can motivate her to present well that day and demotivate her to never want to present again.

In short, the scenarios demonstrate that most students' motivation is influenced by their teachers through different situations, whether in a positive or a negative way. Also, the majority of the interviewed students reported being influenced by their teachers.

c. Teachers' Questionnaire

In the teachers' questionnaire, they were asked on how they think a teacher can play a role in motivating or demotivating their students. Most of them seem to highlight that teachers have an imminent role in the influence of their students' motivation for two teachers expressed themselves in the same way as a teacher can either boost or kill their students' motivation. Four teachers talked about the love of teaching and the module as their passion for their jobs can automatically be transmitted to the students. In the same line, Teacher 10 has described the positive energy in class as a contagion that can be forwarded to students. Teacher 5, however, said that he believes on the influence of the teacher on students' motivation, but he cannot do it because he does not like the modules he is teaching but if he had a chance to teach Arabic language and literature, he would do it with 'fervor'.

Concerning the way teachers are striving to motivate their students, different techniques have been proposed such as: clarifying the significance behind understanding or learning something, setting a positive and a communicative atmosphere, boosting their awareness about themselves and their abilities to achieve good results, checking students' needs and designing a lesson plan accordingly, well explaining to them everything, avoiding routine, using updated materials and being funny from time to time. Finally, Teacher 9 said that teachers should do everything possible to raise their motivation and their students' motivation as well.

Differently speaking, Teacher 8 said that students' motivation is a small portion about liking the teacher, and a big portion about themselves being interested or not in the first place. Moreover, the ability of the teacher to make them interested can change from one person to another as teacher 14

claimed that the teacher personality plays a big role, they can be open and share their experience with or just present their lecture.

Last but not least, teachers seem all to agree on the fact that teachers have a large role in influencing their students. Some believe that their motivation and passion for their job is essential for influencing them and others think of providing change and positive atmosphere in the class to break the routine and make them interested.

4.5.2 Personality and motivation

To look into the relationship between undergraduates' students' personality traits and motivation, I will take into account, quantitative and qualitative analysis, where I include the motivation questionnaire, the students' interview and the researcher observation and fieldnotes. This analysis will be presented followingly.

a. Motivation Questionnaire

To analyze the relationship between undergraduate students' motivation and their personalities quantitatively, a bivariate correlation has been established using SPSS for a Pearson correlation. Correlation was compared between the five personality traits (Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism and Openness to experience). and integrative motivation, instrumental motivation and finally general classroom motivation. First, the following table 4. 27 displays the correlation on integrative motivation and the big five personality traits:

Table 30: Correlation between integrative motivation and personality

		Ext	Agr	Con	Neu	Opn
Integrative Motivation	Pearson Correlation	0.283**	0.190**	0.280**	-0.090	0.118
	Sig (2-tailed)	0.000	0.007	0.000	0.203	0.092

The above table shows that there is some slight relationship between intrinsic motivation and some personality dimensions like Extraversion, Agreeableness, and conscientiousness, however, no correlation was perceived between integrative motivation and the two remaining personality traits (Neuroticism and Openness to experience).

Next, the following table displays the correlation between instrumental motivation and the big five personality traits.

Table 31: Correlation between instrumental motivation and personality

		Ext	Agr	Con	Neu	Opn
Instrumental Motivation	Pearson Correlation	0.169*	0.156*	0.302**	-0.150	0.102
	Sig (2-tailed)	0.016	0.026	0.000	0.033	0.147

The above table shows some existent relationship between instrumental motivation and four personality traits like Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Neuroticism; wherein the highest correlation is perceived with conscientiousness 0.302**. unlike others, Neuroticism is regarded to be negatively slightly correlated with instrumental motivation. Finally, no correlation was perceived between instrumental motivation and Openness to experience.

Eventually, the following table displays the correlation between motivation and the five personality dimensions.

Table 32: Correlation between motivation and personality

		Ext	Agr	Con	Neu	Opn
Motivation	Pearson	0.298**	0.191**	0.347**	-0.157*	0.091
	Correlation					
	Sig (2-tailed)	0.000	0.006	0.000	0.025	0.194

It is clear from the above table that there are some slight relationships between motivation and some personality dimensions. For instance, dimensions like Conscientiousness, Extraversion and Agreeableness are regarded to be significant in matter of their correlation with motivation as conscientiousness has the highest record with 0.347**. Neuroticism is negatively slightly correlated with motivation with -0.157^* . However, no significant relationship is drawn between motivation and openness to experience.

b. Students' Interview

In the student's interview, I have tried to consider the students' answers to the question of whether or not they feel themselves motivated to learn English and matching it with their personality traits.

The following table displays the results of their answers.

Table 33: Motivation and personalities

Students	Motivation
HEX1	Yeah, of course
HEX2	Yes, too much
HEX3	Yes of course
LEX1	Not really
LEX2	Yes
HAG1	Yes
HAG2	Yeah
HAG3	Of course, yes
LAG1	Yeah of course
LAG2	Yes
HC1	Yeah
HC2	Yes, I do my best
HC3	Yes
LC1	Not too much
LC2	Yes
HN1	Yes
HN2	Not all the time
HN3	Sometimes
LN1	Yes
LN2	A little bit, I try to motivate myself
HOP1	Yeah, always

HOP2	Yes
HOP3	Yeah
LOP1	Yes of course
LOP2	Not like before

From the above table, it is regarded that all the students who scored high in Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Openness to experience feel themselves motivated to learn English. Moreover, for students who scored high in Neuroticism, two of them replied that they are not all the time motivated, and one student answered by a short 'yes'. Respectively, the two answers may confirm the significant slightly negative correlation found in the previous analysis. Otherwise, those scoring low in each of the five personality traits seem not sharing the same motivation as they have had different answers, except for LAG1 and LAG2 who both feel motivated.

Eventually, despite the small resemblance in answers, this table does not highlight a reliable existent relationship between motivation and personality traits. As it is to remember that there was no apparent correlation between Openness to experience and motivation in the previous quantitative results.

c. Observation and fieldnotes

Since the results of the interview did not highlight a persuasive result to deduce the relationship between motivation and personality traits, it was regarded that it is highly recommended to consider classroom observations to confirm or contradict the afore results.

From what have been watched by the observer, active students who seemed to be motivated and active in class to participate in some classes shared different personality traits. For instance, with

teacher A, the most noticed personalities were Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion and Openness to experience who seemed to participate a lot. Some other personalities like Neuroticism and introverts were also noticed to continually take notes and follow the teacher. These students were mainly acting in the same way with other teachers, except when there was an atmosphere of boredom such like with teacher B and C. Nonetheless, LAG3, for example was active and asking questions in almost all of the classes.

When asking Teacher A, about her students' motivation and personalities, she said that she believed that some students are motivated but do not show it in class, mainly because they are shy or introvert learners. She stated examples of some students who contacted her via emails to ask questions or coming to her at the end of the session instead of asking in front of their classmates. In the same vein, teacher B told me that you can find some motivation in different students, as he has calm motivated students in class and active motivated students in class.

On the other hand, students who seemed not motivated to me (seemed careless in class, watched their phones all the time, chatted with their classmates...), shared also different personalities like introverts, high in Neuroticism, low in Agreeableness, high Openness to experience, low in neuroticism, and low in Conscientiousness. Still, those non motivated students were not noticed to have traits like high in Agreeableness, high in Conscientiousness and high in Extraversion which may confirm the slightly significant correlation found in the previous quantitative results between motivation and those personality traits.

In short, motivation to learn English is regarded to be varied among different personalities, for you can find an extrovert motivated learner as well as an introvert motivated learner. However, demotivated learners were rarely observed among learners with personalities like high in extraversion, high in Conscientiousness, and high in Agreeableness. Nonetheless, I believe that the obtained results do highlight a sort of a relationship between motivation and some personality

dimensions, but still, we cannot conclude that there is a strong relationship between students' personality traits and their motivation.

4.6 The Relationship between Teacher-student Rapport, students' motivation, personalities and emotions

In this last research question, the objective is to overlap all the findings to find the possible relationship between personality traits, emotions, motivation and student-teacher rapport. The relationship between emotion and rapport, rapport and motivation, and personality traits and motivation were already highlighted in the previous research questions. Thus, what remains to be tackled are: personality and emotions, personality and rapport, and emotions and motivation.

4.6.1 personality traits and emotions

To underline the relationship between undergraduates' students' personality traits and their emotions, qualitative data is going to be taken into consideration involving students' interviews and classroom observation.

a. Students' Interviews

To see if there is any relationship between students' emotions and their personalities, I have drawn this table where I have derived from the interview answers of all the emotions that are in common with the same personality dimension

Table 34: Emotions and personalities

Personality	Emotions towards English	Emotions towards teachers	Emotions in scenario situations
HEX	Joy and interest	Joy, interest and disapproval	Anger, fear, acceptance and annoyance
LEX	Stress and interest	Nothing, acceptance and joy	Disgust, annoyance, acceptance and trust
HAG	Stress, apprehension, interest and joy	annoyance	Acceptance, apprehension, anger and interest
LAG	Joy and interest	Surprise and nothing	Acceptance and fear
HC	Joy, love, fear and admiration	Annoyance, serenity, acceptance and fear	Acceptance, trust, anger and sadness
LC	Fear and joy	Joy, sadness, nothing and boredom	Anger
HN	Joy and love	Joy and sadness	Annoyance, fear, trust, interest, and joy
LN	Admiration, serenity, joy and interest	Admiration and joy	Apprehension and anger
HOP	Apprehension, joy, interest and trust	Serenity, nothing, joy and anger	Interest, fear, anger and sadness

LEP	Joy, interest and admiration	Optimism, acceptance and anger	Anger
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The thought is that each personality dimension is characterized with some specific recurrent emotion. Hence, it can be seen that different emotions are present for different personalities. For instance, it can be regarded that most common emotions for HEX are joy and interest towards the English language whereas in LEX there is also stress which may explain their discomfort when being in class surrounded by other people as LEX are known to prefer a lonely environment. Also, HAG there are many different submerging emotions like joy, stress, annoyance, acceptance, apprehension and anger. Their apprehension maybe explained by how they fear not satisfying other people and anger for not getting back the same efforts given. For HC, most common emotions are joy, love, admiration and fear towards English; they love their job and maybe they fear failure in it. Concerning HN, we can see mixture of positive and negative emotions, like joy and sadness which may explain their emotional instability.

Indeed, these emotions are sometimes present in every personality dimension and does not necessarily explain the link between personality and emotions. However, we cannot deny that some dominant emotions can somehow characterize traits of a particular dimension. to expand more, classroom observation needs to be taken into consideration.

b. Classroom observation

In the classroom observation little have been noticed on the relationship between emotions and personalities as most of them shared the same emotions in some situations like boredom, joy, and enthusiasm. These three emotions for example were regarded in some situations where students

holding different personalities communicated them through their body gestures and facial expressions. As an illustration, When the teacher narrated a story about a novel even the student with low scores in openness to experience and low in Agreeableness who seemed at first not interested in the session started to listen and showed enjoyment in his face. Also, with another teacher, where he was the only one talking and explaining the lesson, even students who usually are motivated and hold traits like HAG and HOP seemed to be bored and disinterested.

As a consequence, I have noticed that the situation is mostly the cause of an emotional change disregarding their personality traits. Still, personalities may have a minor effect on emotions. For instance, I could notice that for LEX, they seemed to be interested in the session even if they were not participating or showing apparent emotions as they were continually taking notes and listening to the teacher showing interest in their eyes. Also, we could see, that students who seemed disinterested and not motivated in most classes had personality traits like low on Agreeableness and Conscientiousness as they seemed not to care about the session or the teacher. Indeed, even if these small remarks are not enough to say that there is a clear relationship between emotion and personality, we cannot deny that some perceived behaviours and emotions do relate to students' personalities which does not push away the link between emotions and personality.

4.6.2 Personality and Rapport

To see if there is a relationship between student' personality and their rapport with their teachers. Qualitative data is going to be taken into consideration from the students interviews and the classroom observation.

a. Students' interviews

First, I have regarded the question in the interview where students describe their ideal teachers. I had multiple different answers, some were nearly the same, but nothing had to do with their personality type as each student has their own preferences and perspective about their ideal teacher. As an illustration, in the underneath table, I have highlighted answers of students scoring high and low in Openness to experience.

Table 35: Ideal teacher Vs students' personality

Personality	Ideal teacher
HOP1	The teacher who smiles and knows how to make a contact with the students, like you can talk to him without being scared.
HOP2	The teacher that explains the lessons clearly and in a simple way.
HOP3	The teacher who has a good accent, confident when they make a lesson
LOP1	Serious, wise and personally prefer a kind teacher not an angry one
LOP2	Not serious, not talking only in English and make the lesson for me easier to understand.

In the above table students sharing the same score in personality have answered differently to what they expect their teachers to be. For example, for LOP1 and LOP2 they have even used two

contrasting words to describe their ideal teacher (serious and not serious). Furthermore, I have looked at the scenarios I have given them in the interviews and checked their reactions to different situations.

Table 36: Personality and scenario reaction

Personality	Scenario 1	scenario2	Scenario3	scenario4	Scenario 5
HEX1	Stay quiet	Smile	Justify or not	Correct my mistake	Repeat from the beginning and do my best to present
HEX2	Correct myself	Work harder next time	Justify myself	Continue reading	Stop presenting
HEX3	Laugh	Tell him I appreciate, thank him and do my best next time	Tell him I explain later or go out	Smile and continue reading	Continue presenting with sweating
LEX1	I correct myself	Trust him and do better	I say it's personal or lie	I continue reading	I say I know leave me in peace and I present

LEX2	Accept and want to learn more	I do my best or prove him wrong if he criticized	Not justify	Continue reading	I don't know
HAG1	Keep silent	Do my best next time	Tell him not in front of the class	Continue reading	Just present
HAG2	Blush	Smile back	Lie	Continue reading	Continue presenting with shivering
HAG3	Blush It depends on his way of correcting	Smile and say thank you	Lie	Continue reading shaking	Continue presenting
LAG1	Accept it	Be more motivated	Tell him between us	Continue reading Yes, negative	Continue presenting

LAG2	Say thank you or just make a gesture	Do a critical analysis	Not justify just ask if I can come or not	Continue reading	Say it's my first time even if it's not
HC1	Accept it	Appreciate it and work harder	Talk between us	Continue reading	Present and rush to finish
HC2	I accept it	Do my best to get a good mark next time	I justify myself	I continue reading	I just present
HC3	I accept it	Do my best next time	Justify between us	Continue reading	Continue presenting
LC1	I don't know	I don't believe the teacher	Tell the truth	Stop reading	I don't know
LC2	Accept it	Trust in me Smile and say yes	Lie	Make an angry face to them	Smile and continue
HN1	Stay shy and quiet in place	Do my best	Go out	Try to not make mistakes	I don't know

HN2	Accept it	Say thank you and I appreciate it	Talk between us	I will correct myself and continue reading	I will tell him it is not easy to present in front of the others
HN3	I will say ok and correct myself	I will study hard	Justify between us	Continue reading	Present in a good way
LN1	Bend my head	Be optimistic	Justify myself	Keep silent	I continue presenting
LN2	Correct myself and keep silent	Say thank you and try to do my best	Lie	Laugh	Apprehension at the beginning Continue presenting
HOP1	I accept it	Work hard and do my best	Justify myself in a short sentence	Ignore and continue	Take a long breath and continue
HOP2	Keep silent	Keep silent	I will justify	I don't know	Still present

HOP3	Look at the teacher with a sad face	Do my best and thank him	I explain between us	Tell them I will not repeat it again	Continue presenting and hide my bad emotions
LOP1	I accept it	I smile	Maybe yes	Continue reading	If I have courage, I continue
LOP2	Accept it Depends on the teacher	Do my best	Tell her it's personal	Continue reading	Stop presenting

The above table shows the different reaction of students as well as similar reactions for some students regarding different classroom scenarios. Correspondingly, it can be seen for HEX, that the three students answered differently to scenario 1 and 5. For example, in scenario 5 when the teacher tells the student to stop shaking when presenting the project, HEX1 said she would start from the beginning and do her best to present, HEX2 said she would stop presenting and HEX3 said that she will just continue presenting. Three different reactions from students sharing the same score in extraversion. This may indicate that there is no relationship between rapport and personality as every student reacts differently.

Still, in some cases, students sharing the same traits have answered equally like for HAG2 and HAG3 who expressed the same reactions for the five given scenarios. Also, for HC1, HC2, and HC 3 who communicated almost the same reactions for the five scenarios. Respectively, there is a

bond between certain personality traits but not all of them as most of students sharing the same scores in a personality dimension did not answer in the same way. Nevertheless, there may be a slight bond between teacher-student rapport and personality dimensions that is obviously non-significant.

b. Classroom observation

Form classroom observation, I have noticed that different teachers had different types of bond between their students. For instance, Teacher A seemed to have a good rapport with almost all the students with different personalities. For Teacher B, the atmosphere in the class was rather dull but there was some good rapport with some students. Not all the students liked the teacher, but some students liked him. For example, HAG3 said that she did not like the teacher because he did not know what he was doing and did not know how to communicate with them. Differently, HN2 who has also high score in Agreeableness and Openness to experience said she really loved the teacher as he was very open and let them communicate with him easily.

For Teacher C, most of the students were not happy with the teacher as HN2 claimed she insulted them and belittled them in front of the class. Clearly, I have noticed that the atmosphere in the class reflected negative vibes as many students seemed to be bored from the session. Otherwise, HAG3 and HOP3 said that they were ok with the teacher because she explained the lessons very well regardless of her intolerable mistakes. As for teachers D, E and F, they all seemed to have established a good rapport with their students as there was participation from different students in their classes. Also, most students have expressed their gratitude towards these teachers.

Overall, even though some students had different views about some teachers, I have not noticed a bond between students' personalities and their rapport with their teachers. In other respects, it was

more the role of the teachers and their different personalities that played a role in the way they have built rapport and the kind of relationship they have with their students.

4.6.3 Emotion and motivation

To know if there is a relationship between student' motivation and students' emotions, qualitative data are considered from the interviews and classroom observation.

a. Interviews

To see if there is a relationship between students' emotions and motivation, I have compared at a first stage each students' answers about their motivation and their recurrent emotions towards English. I have first compared those students who claimed they do not feel themselves motivated. Accordingly, LEX1 who said that she does not really feel herself motivated had emotions like stress, apprehension, interest, admiration, vigilance and pensiveness, a mixture between positive and negative emotions. The same thing for LC1 and LOP2 who had emotions like apprehension, boredom, joy, interest, fear, annoyance and admiration; a blend between positive and negative emotions depending if they like the skill or not. Concerning students who claimed themselves motivated, they all seem to express positive emotions except for fear and apprehension which is very current among some students, mostly when they are asked about speaking English. Correspondingly, negative emotions are mostly engendered when there is no or little motivation excluding fear from the list.

At a second stage, scenarios are being taken into consideration, because students are asked about their emotion and if any of the five situations affect their motivation towards learning English.

There were many different answers, but mostly those who experienced negative emotions like sadness, anger, disapproval, and boredom, had expressed that these situations would affect their motivation negatively. For instance, HC 2 who would have felt sadness and anger when the teacher told her to not shake when presenting her project, said this would affect her motivation negatively. The same thing for LEX1 who would have felt disgust and annoyance if the teacher had told her to justify her absence in front of the class.

Otherwise, some students have expressed negative emotions towards some situations, but this had no effect on their motivation. Others have even said that this would increase their motivation such as LOP1 who expressed terror and sadness for scenario 5 and said that this would affect his motivation positively. On the other hand, some expressed positive emotions for some situations but said that this would not affect their motivation, like HOP3 who expressed joy and interest, and said that this would not affect her motivation.

In short, positive emotions and negative emotions may have a role in decreasing or increasing students' motivation, but not for everyone and for every situation. Each situation differs from another, and each student react differently to each situation. Nevertheless, we cannot deny the apparent relationship between motivation and emotion when emotions provoke a decrease or an increase in motivation

b. Classroom observation

From classroom observation, I have interpreted motivated students as those who participate, take note, listen attentively to the teacher, taking into consideration their facial expressions when

showing their interest and willingness to learn. Accordingly, emotions I have observed in those students were mainly: interest, joy, admiration, amazement, also a little bit of fear. For instance, I have noticed with teacher D, their facial expressions showing amazement and admiration when the teacher was giving them new information. I have also noticed some apprehension with teacher E when she went through the rows to see their exercise, they seemed to be afraid of not doing well. Conversely, the main emotion which was regarded with students being not motivated to learn were boredom and annoyance when the teacher asked them to answer a question or stop chatting to listen to the lecture. These few students were noticed to always chat in class, do not take note, and even sleep during the lecture. Indeed, some other students showed motivation with some teachers and not others. Conclusively, and from my observation it is important to say that emotions are eminent in detecting motivated students and vice versa.

4.7 Conclusion

To terminate this chapter, it is important to say that every step and every significant data was regarded carefully and analyzed following the outline of the chapter. These data may seem incomplete or not clear enough to answer the research questions. However, this will be elucidated in the next chapter as these data will be discussed, interpreted and compared with previous research, cited formerly in the literature review chapter.

Chapter Five: Discussion

5.1 Introduction

This chapter will entail the discussion and interpretation of the results that were displayed in the previous chapter. This discussion will include the comparison of these findings with other previous research that has been mentioned in the literature review chapter as well as the interpretation of these data by the researcher. Accordingly, results will be interpreted under each research question as main titles in this chapter. This structure will help the chapter be coherent and easy to read. Consequently, the researcher will find it easier to display the answers of this research and the reader as well will be able to understand and see how the research questions were answered so far.

5.2 The Nature of Teacher-Student Rapport

To understand the nature of teacher-students rapport EFL undergraduate classrooms, results will be interpreted through three different angles regarding teachers' perspectives, students' perspectives, and researcher' classroom observation.

a. Teacher's Perspectives

From the findings, it was regarded that all teachers seemed to praise their relationship with their students as they have used different words to express it (good, excellent, father, sister...). Accordingly, some teachers described their relationship as professional while others regard themselves as closer as a father, a friend or a sister. Kincaid and Pecorino (2004) have posited eight different teacher's types regarding the kind of relationship they have with their students in higher institutions: 1. paternalistic. 2. Therapist. 3. Priestly. 4. Employee. 5. Collegial. 6. Contractual. 7. Entertainer-audience. 8. Conveniential.

These desperate types may explain why teachers differ in the way they view their relationship with their students. For instance, Paternalistic teachers are teachers who see themselves as having the chief responsibility over their students and consider themselves as parents (The case of teacher 5 who described his relationship with his students as “father to his children”, and teacher E when she defined her students as her children). Teachers who consider themselves as friend, confident or a sibling may be put under the category of ‘Collegial’ as this type of teachers consider themselves as equal to their students where they share and discuss their concern altogether. Nonetheless, it was regarded that many of the participant teachers have favored a professional relationship that is built upon mutual respect. This kind of relationships may fall under the category of ‘Employee’ or ‘Contractual’, meaning they see themselves as teachers having the sole responsibility of performing their job which is teaching.

Furthermore, all the participant teachers have expressed their love of their jobs mainly because they love sharing and giving new knowledge to students, but four of the teachers expressed their love being around students and interacting with them. This may be an indication of the good rapport they tend to establish with their students as teachers who know the importance of rapport have the tendency to work on it from the beginning of the year to maintain it all over the teaching period (Paterson, 2005). In addition to this, all the participant teachers seem to have different teaching philosophies but agree on some points as three of the teachers insisted on building a good relationship with students and having communication is very important. Indeed, it was highlighted that the main tool for building a good relationship with students is communication after all (Ilie & Frasinianu, 2019).

Despite the fact that these teachers have generally claimed that they have a good rapport with their students, this has not stopped them from sharing some of the irritating conflicts that often occur in class such as students’ discipline, mostly when students show lack of respect or their disinterest by

disturbing the class. These conflicts may thus lead to difficulties in creating rapport as it is widely agreed that rapport is built upon trust and respect between the teacher and the students (Brown & Lee, 2015). These conflicts, however, have not been stated as part of their daily teaching routine, but when they were asked about what irritates them the most in class. Which means that these conflicts may not occur frequently with these teachers. In short, all of the participants' teachers seem to claim to have rapport with their students in class.

b. Students' Perspectives

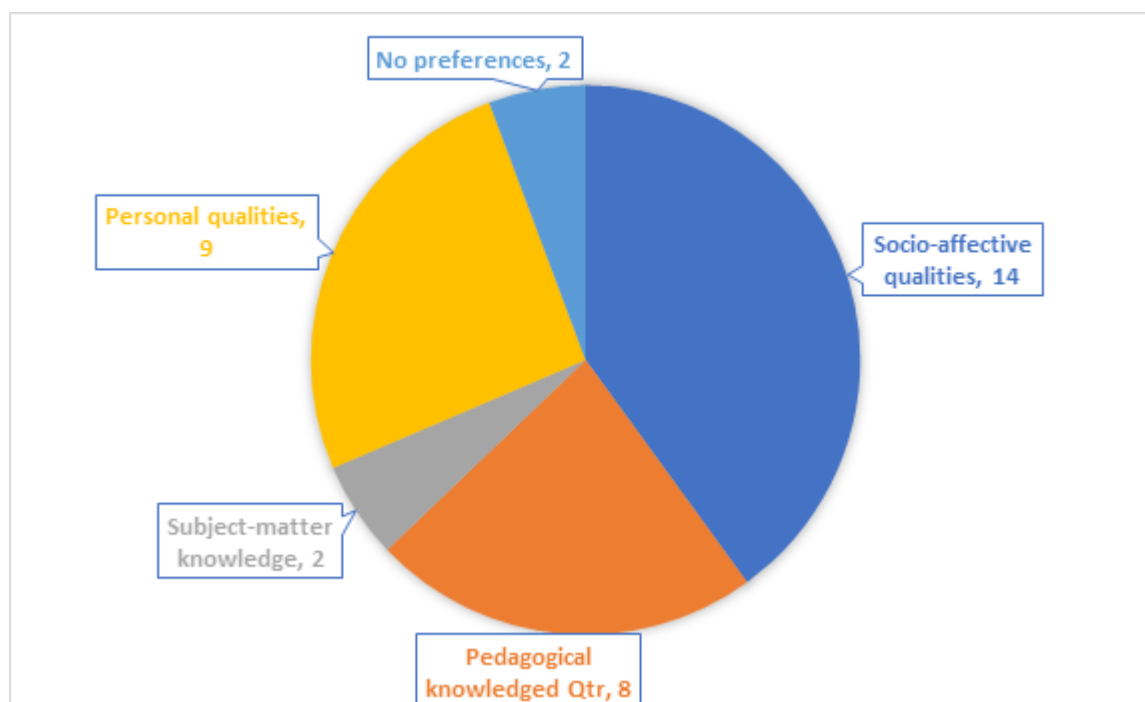
To understand students' perspectives about the nature of rapport they have with their teachers. Students were asked in the interview if they feel comfortable with all their teachers and if not, what are the conflicts they face with them. Also, to have an idea of how students want their ideal teacher to be, students were asked to describe the characteristics of their ideal teacher. Eventually, I have had some informal talks with some students concerning the problems they have with some of their teachers which helped draw a conclusion at the end.

To begin with, from the participant students, it was previously reported that 11 students have claimed having some conflicts with at least one of their teachers. These conflicts reside in teachers coming to the class just to do their job and do not care about their students' comprehension, teachers who are fast speakers and deal only with students who follow their pace, teachers who get angry, embarrass and insult their students in front of the class for making mistakes, teachers who are not proficient enough when teaching, teachers who have bad pronunciation, and teachers who give bad marks because of disliking the students. Obviously, with these conflicts taking place, one can say that there is a weak rapport with these teachers and students as it is believed that teachers may display some behaviours in class that can lead them to crush the rapport with their students

(Richmond & McCroskey, 2006). Correspondingly, the above stated behaviours come hand in hand with what Richmond and McCroskey (2006) have also mentioned in their work like being unprepared, insulting students, lack of knowledge, giving irrelevant work to do....

To add more, these students were asked about the characteristics they favor in a teacher. Students reported different characteristics which I have put them under four categories (graph 5.1): Socio-affective qualities, Pedagogical knowledge, subject-matter knowledge, and Personal qualities. These categories have been derived from different studies (e.g, Barnes & Lock, 2013; Borg, 2006; Kalay, 2017; Park & Lee, 2006)

chart 17: Students' ideal teacher preferences



Obviously, it can be seen that different students have different preferences concerning their ideal teacher. However, the higher number of students (14 students) have supported socio-affective qualities like teachers having a good relationship with students (a friend, a partner,) and know how to communicate with them; also, teachers who motivate their students, grab their attention, and

make some jokes in class. These qualities were also found in Kalay (2017) study when she examined teacher and students' perspectives about what makes an effective EFL teacher. Furthermore, many studies supported that one of the effective roles of a teacher is to motivate the learners (Brown, 2009; Dörnyei, 2001, Park & Lee, 2006). Not forgetting the fact that establishing a good relationship has been highlighted as crucial when teaching (e.g, Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Joe et al, 2017; Lamb, 2017; Moskovsky et al, 2012; Nguyen, 2007; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012; Sánchez et al., 2013, Suryati, 2015)

Concerning, the Pedagogical knowledge, eight students reported liking teachers who know how to transmit the message and make the lesson easier for them to understand. Of course, academic qualities are very important when teaching a foreign language and students mostly regard managing the class well and teaching in a simple and comprehensible way. (Al-Mahrooqi et al., 2015; Borg, 2006; Kalay, 2017; Moradi & Sabeti, 2014; Park & Lee, 2006; Sundari, 2018). Students also want their teachers to have a good pronunciation, a good English fluency and a rich knowledge of the language itself (Kalay, 2017, Park & Lee, 2006), which falls under the category of subject-matter knowledge. Yet, in the current study only two students reported wanting their teachers to have a good accent and pronunciation in English.

Moreover, nine students supported personal qualities such as teachers who are confident, serious, and fair when dealing with students; also, teachers who do not shout or embarrass students in front of the class for making simple mistake, but rather be tolerant. Similarly, it was found in different research that students have posited 'patience' or 'tolerance' as very important to be an effective teacher (Barnes & Lock, 2013; Kalay, 2017). Notwithstanding, two students reported having no preferences which maybe be true, or they just were afraid of talking about teachers as they may not see themselves as judging their teachers.

Accordingly, the reason of stating the above characteristics may be an indication that these qualities are present in some of their teachers or maybe lacking. For example, students who said not wanting their teachers to be shouting and embarrassing them maybe an indication that these characteristics are present in some of their teachers. Similarly, with students wanting their teachers to be friend with them, there may have experienced such a relationship with their teachers and liked it. Nonetheless, returning to the first question, 14 students have claimed having no problems with their teachers as three of them have stated that it is up to them to keep the stability of the relationship, that is if they do not make any problems teachers will automatically like them. Obviously, some students feel that it is their responsibility to maintain rapport with their teachers without being aware of it. Still, students who have said that they feel comfortable with all their teachers may not be telling the truth as they may just have been afraid of expressing themselves especially vis-a-vis teachers.

c. Researcher' Classroom Observation

Through my classroom observations I noted that six teachers were observed during four sessions each. Accordingly, four teachers were regarded as having a good rapport with the students and this was concluded after noticing some of the positive atmosphere, and positive behaviours in class. Most importantly, I observed some of the teachers' behaviours that seemed to have a positive impact on students such as: showing their care for students, answering every questions of the students, encouraging students and being attentive, giving the opportunity for each student to participate, making sure students have understood everything by going to them individually....

Similarly, Lamb (2017) also displayed some of the related significant strategies that the teacher can use to build and maintain a positive relationship with students which seemed to match the

observed behaviours of these teachers like positive attitudes and behaviours of teachers, and the teacher's support of their students' self-confidence. Other behaviours were also noticed that match Nova (2017)'s 11 principles for building rapport like working together, being fair with students and treating them equally, sharing information, sharing some humor, listening attentively to students' questions and worries, using non-verbal interactions and giving feedback.

On the other hand, there seemed to be a weak rapport between students and teacher B and C. this was not noticed when students were not participating, feeling bored, chatting with their friends and talking behind their backs. Concerning teacher B, he was new to the department, so he seemed to be lacking some experience when doing his lectures, he was most of the time facing technical computer problems and taking a lot of time trying to fix the problem. Respectively, Çetin et al. (2014) also found in their study that students had a better rapport with more experienced teachers as they were more cooperative, and this had an impact on their attitudes towards the course. Students were obviously noticing that as well as they were talking between themselves and wondering about what he was doing as they showed their regret for coming to the class. Correspondingly, to be an effective teacher, it is very important to have specific abilities to organize, explain the course, and have effective classroom management (Dinçer et al., 2013).

Teacher C, seemed to take time to explain the lesson in detail, however, students seemed to be bored as there was little participation. Some students also reported not liking the teacher because she has insulted them once. What was observed is that the difference between this teacher and the other teachers is that she was dealing only with students who cared and participated in her session, she did not show her care or concern for other students. Maybe when she had insulted them once, this has somehow crushed the rapport between them (Richmond & McCroskey, 2006). However, it is also crucial to consider that disregarding or ignoring some students in class may not be beneficial in building or maintaining any existent rapport (Ibid, 2006).

In short, through my classroom observations I noticed different teachers and different behaviours in teachers and in students. Therefore, this gave us some small idea about the nature of rapport there is between Algerian Undergraduate students and their teachers. However, to understand more deeply the nature of rapport that these students have with their teachers, we need to tackle other factors such as students' emotions in class, students' personalities and students' behaviours when rapport is lacking.

d. Conclusion from the above discussion (teacher questionnaire, students' interview, and classroom observation)

When comparing results obtained and discussed from the teachers' questionnaire, students' interview, and classroom observations, it was concluded from the analysis that most of the questioned teachers praise their relationship with their students as some who do not have good rapport with their students do not admit it or are not aware of it. Accordingly, the same results were found in a study done by Nathan (2018), when she interviewed teachers and students about rapport, both had different views as all teachers claimed having good rapport with their students, but students did not see it this way as each student talked differently about their teachers. Still, in the current study we can conclude that rapport is established with the majority of teachers as only a minority represent teachers having weak rapport with their students.

5.2.1 The most recurrent emotions in class in relation to teacher-student rapport

Emotions are known to be variant; they can change from one student to another and from one situation to another. However, some emotions maybe dominant in certain situation or context like in EFL classroom. To tackle this question and see what the recurrent emotion in Algerian

undergraduate student EFL classrooms are, three different perspectives are considered: teacher perspectives, students' perspectives, and the observer's perspectives of these EFL classrooms.

a. Teacher perspectives

From teacher perspectives, most of the questioned teachers seemed to take into consideration their students' emotions in class through different methods. For instance, taking care of students' negative emotions (anxiety, embarrassment, boredom...) by talking to the students privately, changing the topic if it is boring as Quinlan (2016) asserted that teachers have the ability to know if students will participate or withdraw from a topic, trying to understand them and not hurt their feelings like the example of teacher 4 who reported coming to the class early and have informal conversations with students to get to know them more and discuss any concerns. This goes hand in hand with what Pianta and Hamre (2009) have suggested for the teacher to do in order to achieve a good emotional support.

On the other hand, two teachers reported not taking emotions into consideration for one of them explained this by lack of time to consider each individual and the other claimed that he does not think he has the right to talk or deal with students' emotions as this is personal and this can be regarded as harassment in their society. This teacher taught only for eight months which may explain that he has not had enough experience with teaching to talk about students' emotions as he seems to be afraid of tackling this issue. Following this, Dewaele et al. (2019) also found that Chinese EFL learners experienced anxiety more with younger teachers and strict teachers. This may indicate that younger teachers are not sufficiently aware with the importance of emotions in class to be able to deal with them which is subject to lack of experience.

Furthermore, it was perceived that even though anxiety was the mostly perceived emotion among EFL students, these teachers are well aware of the presence of other emotions including positive ones. Respectively they communicated different recurrent emotions in class as some consider negative emotions like: anxiety, shyness, or lack of confidence as more dominant in class. Whereas other teachers regard positive emotions like: motivation, admiration, or enthusiasm as more dominant. This difference in perceptions maybe the reason of different factors such as teacher-student rapport for example. However, this is only an assumption as we may answer this only by investigating deeper via tackling students' perspectives and classroom observation.

b. Students' perspectives

After interviewing the 25 students about their emotions towards both English and their teachers, it was reported that positive emotions were mostly dominant, mainly 'joy'. Yet, when speaking English in class or participating, 'anxiety' was mostly dominant. Also, when teachers displayed negative behaviours such as ignoring students or embarrassing them, negative emotions were perceived to be more dominant among these students mainly 'sadness' and 'anger'.

Discussing emotions towards the English language, Aragão (2011) clearly stated in his findings that there is a firm relationship between emotions like fear, shyness, and embarrassment and students' beliefs about themselves and attitudes towards the foreign language. In the same sense, in the current results some students expressed their fear for making mistakes in writing practices; HOP1 reported feeling both joy and fear when practicing speaking in class because she is also afraid of making mistakes; and HEX2 expressed her love for listening but she still fears not being able to understand anything. Obviously, these students seem to have a low self-esteem when being afraid of not being able to write correctly, speak correctly, or understand native speakers.

Accordingly, MacIntyre and Gregersen (2012) and Rubio (2007) clearly pointed out the great impact that anxiety can have on language learning or using a new language.

Peckrun et al. (2007) also mentioned emotions related to achievements, like ‘joy’ and ‘pride’ when succeeding and ‘shame’ or ‘anger’ when failing a task. In the same vein, four students reported feeling ‘distracted’, ‘pensive’, ‘annoyed’, and ‘angry’ towards the listening skills because they did not understand anything. Also, HC2 expressed feeling ‘sad’ when practicing reading because she is not good at it. Some students also reported feeling ‘sadness’, ‘fear’, and ‘anger’ when having bad marks in exams. These illustrations show that emotions may not only be engendered by their attitudes towards English but also after success or failure in the foreign language. In other words, students may feel joy towards the language but when they fail, they express negative emotions like ‘anger’ and ‘shame’. Similarly, students may feel ‘boredom’ or ‘anxiety’ towards the foreign language but express ‘joy’ and ‘pride’ when they succeed in exams. This confirms some intriguing definitions of emotions as being variants according to situations and occur for some definite reasons (Keltner et al., 2014; Plutchik, 2003).

Unlike the different studies on EFL student’s emotions which claim that anxiety is the most dominant emotion in foreign language classrooms (e.g., Horwitz et al., 1986; Pekrun et al., 2007; Pishghadam, 2016), the current findings show that positive emotions like admiration, love, and mainly ‘joy’ are more frequent when learning English in class. Indeed, ‘anxiety’ is strongly present but in lower level compared to ‘Joy’, mainly when students practice speaking skills, or they are participating in class. Accordingly, Horwitz et al. (1986) firmly acknowledged that ‘anxiety’ is inherent in foreign language learning. In other words, it was perceived that anxiety was the most dominant negative emotion towards the English language.

Concerning students’ emotions towards their teachers, almost all of the students reported positive emotions for teachers who smile in class and tell jokes as this was one of the characteristics that

some students have previously stated they want in their teachers which indicates that this engenders positive emotions regardless of the minority of students who expressed rather ‘boredom’ when teachers tell jokes because they think they are not funny. Also, the majority of the students reported positive emotions for the teachers who call them with their first name and encourage them to speak as this was also previously reported under the socio-affective qualities. In other words, some students expressed the desire of having a teacher who cares for them and support them when asked about their ideal teachers.

Indeed, there were also some negative emotions like ‘anger’ and ‘embarrassment’, as some students do not like being exposed in public. Wilson (2016) has therefore explained that: *“the feeling of being small and the desire to avoid being seen by others lead to avoidance and withdrawal behaviors”* (p., 237). Which means that some students feel themselves inferiors to others, lack confidence and self-esteem which drive them feeling embarrassed when personally addressed by their teachers and even feel angry sometimes at the teacher. Similarly, this has been noticed in scenario 2 with LC1 who reported feeling angry with the teacher who is encouraging him after getting a bad mark as he believes that the teacher is mocking him. Also, in scenario 1 with 12 students reporting negative emotions like ‘sadness’, ‘anger’ and ‘embarrassment’ when teachers correct them in front of the class after making a mistake.

Nonetheless, with scenario one and two most of the other students expressed rather positive emotions like ‘joy’ and ‘trust’. furthermore, it was acknowledged in the previous literature, that teachers emotional support had a great impact in students' emotions but to a certain extent as they cannot ultimately change students' emotions (Dewaele et al., 2019). In the same vein, it was found that teachers could have an influence on some students' emotions in some situation but not with others. For instance, in scenario 2 most students would feel positive emotions when the teacher encouraged them after having a bad mark, except four students who still felt negative emotions like

‘fear’, ‘sadness’, and ‘anger’. Similarly, with scenario 4 when the teacher defended the students who were laughed at in class, as 11 students would feel positive emotions, but the others would still feel negative emotions despite the action of the teacher. This means that it is true that teachers have a great impact on students’ emotions, but they cannot control all students’ emotions.

Concerning students’ emotions when teachers display negative behaviours such as in scenario 3 and 5 or when teachers ignore their students in class. The majority of the students expressed negative emotions like ‘sadness’, ‘anger’, and ‘embarrassment’. Correspondingly, it was already discussed that teacher negative behaviours may crush rapport with the students, especially when negative emotions like ‘anger’ are engendered. Indeed, there were some students who reported not caring and feeling nothing about these situations whereas others would feel positive emotions like motivation and trust in themselves. The last point confirms Imai (2010) when he alleged that emotions do not necessary affect their learning as negative emotions like ‘anger’ or ‘boredom’ may even lead to achievement, depending on how individuals control and make use of their emotions.

c. Classroom Observation

In classroom observation with different teachers, it was noticed that students’ emotions change from one class to another. For instance, positive emotions were more dominant with teacher A, D, E, and F. whereas, negative emotions were more dominant with teacher B, and C. This may explain why each teacher who responded to the questionnaire had different views about their students’ emotions as some regard positive emotions as more dominant and others regards negative emotions as more dominant. Students have also expressed the impact that teachers can have on their emotions as we could see with scenarios.

As an illustration of what was observed in class from teachers' behaviour and its impact on students, we could therefore see emotions like: Joy, interest and amazement when teacher A praised her students and showed care when correcting them individually. In the same sense, it was highly agreed that teacher emotional support engenders positive emotions like enjoyment, hope and relief (Lei et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2016; McMahon et al., 2013). Dewaele et al. (2018) have also stated that teachers have a great impact on student's enjoyment than on their foreign language anxiety which explain why students showed positive emotions like interest, amazement, and joy when teacher D narrated to them the story of a novel, or when teacher A, E, and F showed their care for their students in different manners.

However, Khani and Ghasemi (2019) said that it is very important for the teacher to understand the difference between leadership and emotional support to reduce as much negativity as possible. Indeed, not all teachers have the art of doing so, as it was noticed with teacher B who spent much of his time trying to fix technical problems and not paying attention to his students' emotions like 'boredom' and 'annoyance'. In the same line, emotions like boredom and annoyance were noticed with teacher C as she was just talking and explaining and did not really care for students who showed their negative emotions. However, we could see some happiness emerging when teacher B gave the opportunity for the student to express themselves, or when teacher C joked once, as this confirms the great impact teachers can have on their students' emotions by simply changing the behaviour.

5.2.2 Students' behaviours with no or little rapport

Indeed, it is important to know how EFL undergraduates' students react when there is little or no rapport with their teachers. This will enable us to also describe what the nature of teacher-student

rapport is. Correspondingly, I have analyzed situations where: teachers display negative behaviours to see the reaction of the students, and when teachers do not really display negative behaviours but they get negative reactions from students. Therefore, to answer this question, findings from students' perspectives and classroom observation are going to be tackled and discussed below.

a. Students' perspectives

It has been acknowledged in the literature, that some of the teachers' behaviours may kill rapport with their students such as insulting them (Buskist & Benassi, 2012; Richmond & McCroskey, 2006). In this sense, we can see that some students have responded negatively to some negative behaviours from the teachers in the scenarios. For instance, the majority would have felt bad about teachers telling them to justify themselves in front of the class for coming late as eight of them would have negative reactions such as lying, going out, or simply not justifying. Also, with scenario five, when the teacher tells them not to shiver, most of them would have felt bad about it as five students would have negative reactions such as: stop presenting or replying negatively to the teacher.

Nonetheless, sometimes a teacher behaviour can be regarded as negative by some students and positive by others such like the case of the first scenario where the teacher corrects students in front of their classmates as 11 students reported that this was a negative behaviour as some would show their sad faces, blush, bend their heads, or keep quiet. Still, others would appreciate this gesture and correct themselves. Also, when a teacher shows positive behaviour, it is appreciated by most of them except one student who believed that the teacher is mocking him; but this has already been discussed earlier as this may be a cause of low self-esteem or confidence. Alternatively, it was observed also that some students react positively or neutrally to negative behaviours from the

teacher such as being motivated after scenario five and this is more like proving to the teacher that they are wrong.

Indeed, with scenario three and five, some students would just accept it and be quiet and they prefer not to make any problems. It may then be concluded that teachers' negative behaviours may and may not engender negative behaviours in class depending on the individuals themselves. However, this does not prove if this will affect other aspects such as students' progress, emotions, and motivation for it is known that rapport is built upon respect, care and empathy (Gkonou, 2021, Ikiugu & Ciaravino, 2007; Nova, 2017). Accordingly, we already saw in the previous title that teacher-students rapport may strongly affect students' emotions and we will be talking about motivation later on in this chapter.

b. Researcher' observation

In classroom observation, some similar and other different negative student's behaviours were perceived. As an illustration, bending head and staying quiet after being scolded by the teacher (teacher A), secretly criticizing the teacher and hiding themselves so that they do not participate (teacher B), looking at their phones and chatting as this was almost perceived with all the teachers but at different degrees. Correspondingly, it has been acknowledged that teachers are more likely to build rapport with the majority of students than with the minority of students (Thijs et al, 2012). Which is the case of Teacher A, D, E, and F.

To expand more, it was seen that even if the teachers have rapport with almost all of their students, there is always this minority group of students who do not take part in this. For instance, these students were seen to be always bored, chatting, looking at their phones, and disinterested from the session. Yuan and Che (2012) thus introduced different reasons for developing misbehaviours in

class such as: attention seeking, learning difficulties, teachers' behaviours, or society. Indeed, when teachers seem to have rapport with the majority of the class, this does not mean that they are the reason rapport is not constructed with this minority of students.

Nonetheless, it was seen that negative behaviours were mostly perceived with teacher B and C as these teachers seemed to have rapport only with minority of students. It is therefore not denied that teacher-student positive relationship is the key to reinforce positive and desirable behaviours as well as attaining educational goals (De Jong, 2005). However, we cannot deny that students also play a role in building rapport with their teachers, for instance, if students do not want to build rapport in the first place with their teachers it is not possible or difficult for the teacher to break this barrier. Still, although teachers are not always the reason of students' negative behaviour in class, teachers have a great impact in changing or preventing these behaviours from happening by establishing and maintaining rapport with students.

c. Conclusion

When combining the students' interviews and the classroom observation, different reactions and behaviours were observed. It was noticed that many behaviours that were perceived in the classroom observation were not mentioned in the interview like chatting and looking at their phones when they are bored or annoyed by the teacher. The same thing with interviews, some mentioned behaviours that were not seen in the classroom observation like going out from the class or expressing themselves to the teacher (replying to the teacher). Presumably, because similar scenarios did not occur in class. The following table summarizes the most common students' behaviours that were mentioned in both the interviews and the classroom observation, when there is no or little rapport.

Table 37: Students' behaviours to little or no rapport

Interview	Classroom Observation
Bending heads	Bending heads
Keeping silence	Keeping silence
Correcting themselves	Chatting
Not believing the teacher	Criticizing or laughing at the teacher (secretly)
Going out of the class	Criticizing the session
Stop presenting or reading	Looking at their phones
Do what is asked from the teacher	Hiding themselves (to not participate)
Lying	Stretching and yawning
Expressing themselves (replying to the teacher)	Forcing themselves to follow (looking sleepy)

5.2.3 Teachers and their Students' Personalities

It was reported that almost all the teachers consider and are aware of their students' personalities, except three teachers who stated reasons like 'crowded classrooms' or 'lack of time' for not considering their students' personalities. Accordingly, some teachers gave different methods in the way they manage the different personalities in class such as: trying to understand their behaviours, bringing different personal topics in class, and leading communication with them. Similarly, Sharp (2004) has claimed that teachers' awareness of their students' personalities is very important as this can add to methodological decisions, helping to know students as individuals, and fostering teacher-students comprehension.

Furthermore, some of these teachers have also stated the importance of knowing students' personalities as they mostly gave the example of introvert students who seem not active in class making you think that they are not interested, but it is just their state of being and the way they prefer to learn. Petraè (2019) stated that to understand students' personalities, sometimes the teachers just need to look at the bigger picture of the class with knowing other aspects of their students' individual differences like multiple intelligences.

Besides of the teacher being aware of their students' personalities, teacher 11 said that he tries to make them aware in turn of their differences and their capacities. For it is believed that self-awareness is associated with many positive life achievements such as interpersonal relationships and education (Lewine, 2012). Differently, being not self-aware may lead to many misconceptions between the conscious self and the unconscious self mostly related to personality troubles and interpersonal struggles (Ibid, 2012).

Conclusively, it is clear that most of these teachers are aware of their students' personalities and differences. However, each teacher has a different method for dealing with these differences and every teacher holds a different belief about the concept of personality and its types. Therefore, knowing students' personalities may help teachers in understanding students as individual and thus build a strong rapport.

5.2.4 Conclusion of the first research question

Teacher-student rapport has been explored from different angles (teacher' perspectives, students' perspectives, and classroom observation) taking into account different aspects like emotions and personality. We have had different perspectives as we could see that teachers see their relationship

with their students according to what they believe about their role as teachers (e.g., friends, parent, professional), but they have all agreed on maintaining a good rapport with their students. On the other hand, students acknowledged having different relationships with different teachers as the classroom observation has also confirmed this, it was observed that each teacher had a different relationship with students where there was rapport with many of them, but there was a poor rapport with two of the observed teachers. In other words, students reported having rapport with the majority of their teachers as they experienced weaker rapport only with a minority with them such is the case with classroom observation as well.

Additionally, teachers seemed to be well aware of their students' emotions as some reported negative emotions as more dominant in class, whereas others reported positive emotions as more dominant. Concerning students, they expressed different emotions towards the learning English compared to their emotions towards their teachers. However, positive emotions were more frequent for both, the difference was in negative emotions as 'anxiety' was seen to be more linked to the learning of English, and 'anger' was more related to teachers mainly when the teacher displays negative or provoking behaviours. The classroom observation can confirm these bounds in emotions as when good rapport was observed, positive emotions were noticed to be dominant and vice versa. In short, the frequency of positive emotions may confirm the good rapport they have with their teachers when they display favorable behaviours.

With instances of poor rapport, we could obtain from the students' interview and the classroom observation different students' negative behaviours such like chatting, negatively replying to the teacher, or looking at their phones. Discerning these behaviours along with students' emotions in class may help teachers know the nature of rapport they have with their students. Indeed, it was observed that not all students display negative behaviours as some prefer to hide their emotions and be neutral. Finally, it seems that most of the teachers are aware of their students' different

personalities, and they are each making their best to deal with these variety in class. Eventually, knowing students is part of building and maintaining rapport in class.

5.3 Students' Motivation in Class

To see if these undergraduates' students are motivated or not in class, a quantitative motivation questionnaire was administered to these students. Moreover, qualitative data was considered to determine these students' level of motivation via regarding students' beliefs about their motivation, teachers' perspectives about their students' motivation, and classroom observation.

Little research was done concerning undergraduate EFL students' motivation. Ghout-khenoune (2014) found in her research that the majority of Algerian undergraduate students she has worked with have a low level of motivation, which does not confirm the results of this research. The questionnaire of motivation is divided into 3 categories: integrative motivation, instrumental motivation, and motivation from the teacher. It has been reported that most of the students scored high in the three categories leading them to reach a high score of motivation in general. The three categories are going to be discussed followingly under each title.

a. Integrative oriented motivation

Gardner (2001) defines integrative motivation as a desire and interest for the learner to learn L2 and become closer to a native-like speaker. correspondingly, the questionnaire resulted in high scores of students having an integrative motivation. In the interview as well, many students gave integrative motivation reasons for choosing to study English such as: love of the language, a dream

from childhood, and love of the history and culture of the language. Indeed, most of these students claimed being motivated to learn the language, only few of them which gave reasons such as there was no motivation from the teacher or society and living far away from university decreases their motivation to come and learn. Obviously, these students seem partially motivated because they love the language.

b. Instrumental motivation

Which is described as more of a motivation of attaining social, academic, or professional objectives such as: travelling, getting a job or having good marks at exams (Carrió-Pastor & Mestre Mestre, 2013). Accordingly, most of the students scored high in the instrumental motivation. Also, from the interview, only five Students claimed choosing English, not because they like it, but rather because they had no other choices or limited choices of subjects to study in university, or because they aim of using it afterwards when travelling abroad. Only one of them claimed not being motivated to learn English for the others are motivated, mainly holding an instrumental motivation.

c. Motivation from the teacher

This category mainly tries to see if students are also motivated by teachers. The questionnaire resulted in high scores for the majority of students, which means that the teacher also has their role in motivating students as it is acknowledged that it is teacher's responsibility to establish the basic of a motivational atmosphere to enhance students' motivation in class (Dörnyei, 2001).

Furthermore, three of the interviewed students blamed teachers for not being motivated to learn English. As one of them stated that he was trying to motivate himself outside the class but there was no motivation from the teacher and the society which reduces his motivation when coming to class.

Notwithstanding, teachers had different perspectives concerning their students' motivation in class, as some of the teachers regard their students as highly motivated, some regards them as not motivated and other regard different levels of motivation depending on the students themselves. It is also important to mention that these teachers are talking about the same students. To expand more, classroom observation may confirm these contradictions as it was observed that motivation fluctuate and varies from one teacher to another. For instance, positive behaviours and emotions were regarded with teacher A such as participation, joy and engagement in activities proved their motivation. On the other hand, with teacher C, the atmosphere of the class emitted negative vibes where most of the students were perceived yawning, bored, and some chatting with one another. In short, these findings show that most of these students are originally motivated to learn English. However, teachers may reduce or enhance this motivation even more when they are in class. Therefore, the role of the teacher in motivating students will be discussed more deeply in the following title entailing the relationship of teacher-students and its impact on motivation.

5.3.1 Teacher-student rapport and motivation

To see the relationship between teacher-student rapport and their motivation, quantitative data and qualitative data are taken into consideration. This is going to be discussed from the students' perspectives, teachers' perspectives and classroom observation.

a. Students' perspectives

In this section, we are going to deal with both results of the third category of the motivation questionnaire (motivation from the teacher) and the students' interview. Initially, in the motivation questionnaire, it was found that a large number of students have agreed about the following statement: Their teachers being a source of inspiration to them, being motivated to go to class because their teachers were good, consider their English classes as very important, and believe that their teachers are good teachers. Indeed, this agreement may show in a way the influence that teachers have on their students, especially with the item of going to class because their teachers are good.

However, these results are not enough to prove the influence of teachers on their students. That is why it is also crucial to look at the qualitative findings. Accordingly, in the interview, it was found that the majority of students agreed on the fact that teachers influence their attitudes towards the English language as only three students disagreed on that. Bouras and keskes (2014) study also demonstrated that students regard teachers' practices as significant in influencing their motivation. Moreover, some of the interviewed students explained this influence by giving some teachers behaviours in class such as: sharing their experience with students, giving them piece of advice, explaining very well, and always motivating them. Indeed, Dörnyei and Csizer (1998) also found that according to teachers, their behaviours are the most significant motivational factor.

As an illustration of the influence of teachers on students' motivation, HC2 who said that when she is afraid of the teacher, she does her best to do well at their module and she succeed in doing so. This kind of motivation contradicts Sanchez et al (2013) when they said that feeling low in performance reduce their motivation and their rapport with their teachers as well. Otherwise, some negative influences were reported where HN2 used to love a module but hated it after because of the teacher, and LAG2 who changed the stream of his study because of a teacher as well. Indeed,

this come in line with teachers who show negative behaviours that harm rapport, and results in students being demotivated (Bekleyen, 2011).

Scenarios also engendered some interesting results concerning teachers' influence on students' motivation. For instance, in scenarios 1, 2, and 4 where teachers show their support, defense and feedback for their students; many students stated that this teachers' behaviours would motivate them. Correspondingly, it was acknowledged that students who have a compassionate, emotional, encouraging and compassionate relationship with their teachers tend to be more engaged and motivated in their academic performances as they tend to work hard, accept guidance and positive and negative feedback, and focus more with the teacher (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Little & Kobak, 2003)).

Nevertheless, in scenario 3, and 5 where the teachers display rather a negative behaviour towards their students. Answers were quite equal in controversy as some believed that this situation would not affect their motivation whereas others believed that it would affect their motivation negatively. Differently with scenario 5, as many students said that this situation would affect their motivation in a way that some will not present next time or stop presenting. In the same vein, Littlejohn (2008) clearly stated that it is the teacher's responsibility to prevent demotivation which is a slow dropping of an already existing motivation as many studies have already confirmed that teachers are the main source of demotivation (Fallout & Maruyuma, 2004).

In short, the finding and discussion, clearly point out to the important impact that teachers' behaviours and relationship have on many students' motivation. Still some students reported not being influenced by their teachers no matter what. This point needs to be explored further as personality may play a role in that.

a. Teachers' perspectives

Teachers were asked in the open-ended questionnaire if they believe they have an important influence on students' motivation. Results have shown that almost all of them agree that they are big influencers. For instance, just like many studies have advocated (Bekleyen, 2011; Fallout & Maruyuma, 2004; Littlejohn, 2008) two teachers agreed on the fact that teachers can either kill or boost students' motivation. Also, four teachers stated the importance of the teachers' love of their job and their own motivation as teacher 10 has stated that it is a contagion that can be forwarded to students which is in line with what Csikszentmihaly (1997) said. Similarly, one student from the interview (LEX1) stated the same thing and she believed that if teachers love what they are doing, they can make you love it too.

Csikszentmihaly (1997) also added that if the teacher does not love and believe in their job, students will sense this and become demotivated by believing that this subject is not important. Just like the case of teacher 5 who said that he believes that teachers have a big influence on their students, but he cannot play this role because he does not love what he is teaching. This teacher has also mentioned earlier that his students are not really motivated, which confirms the several studies that have found that teacher's motivation/demotivation can increase/decrease students' motivation (Chan, 2014; Kalman, 2018; Lamb & Wedell, 2015; Radel et al, 2010).

These teachers mentioned different techniques they are using to enhance their students' motivation such as: explaining why they are learning something, setting a positive and communicative atmosphere (Dörnyei, 2001; Gkonou, 2021; Vilar & Bertran, 1995), boosting their awareness about themselves and their abilities (Lewine, 2012), and checking on their learning needs and design a lesson plan accordingly. These teachers seem to be well aware of their role as motivators, but no one actually mentioned building rapport and maintaining it as a technique for motivating students. Differently, two teachers do not really believe in the significant role of teachers to motivate their students as teacher 8 stated that students' motivation is of a big portion about themselves and

teachers only play a small role in that. Teacher 14 on the other side said that it depends on teachers' personality as they may be willing to motivate their students or not. Still, we cannot deny that most of these teachers agree with the multiple studies that support the great impact of teachers on students' motivation.

5.3.2 Students' Personality and Motivation

The relationship between personality traits and motivation was discussed and tackled at different levels from the biological level to the educational level (Clark & Schroth, 2010; Corr et al., 2013; DeYoung et al., 2007; Kaufman et al., 2008; Komarraju & karau, 2005; Komarraju et al., 2009). In the current study this relationship is interpreted through quantitative data and qualitative data results.

5.3.2.1 Quantitative results

To see if there is a relationship between students' motivation and their personality traits, a Pearson's correlation was regarded between integrative motivation, instrumental motivation and general motivation. These findings are derived from the motivation questionnaire.

Concerning integrative motivation, results have shown that there was a kind of relationship between this type of motivation and some personality dimensions like Extraversion, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness, but no correlation was drawn for Neuroticism and openness to experience. The above correlated personality traits correspond with the findings of Kaufman et al. (2008) and Clark and Schroth (2010) except for Openness to experience which they found to be also related to integrative motivation. Otherwise, Komarraju et al. (2009) found only Conscientiousness and Openness to Experience related to integrative motivation.

Regarding instrumental motivation, four personality dimensions (Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism) were found to be holding a kind of relationship with instrumental motivation wherein conscientiousness drew the strongest correlation. Similarly, these results are compatible with Clark and Schroth (2010) findings. However, Kaufman et al. (2008) found only Extraversion and Neuroticism to be correlated with extrinsic motivation; and Komarraju et al. (2009) found Conscientiousness, Extraversion and Openness to experience to be correlated with extrinsic motivation. Differently, in the current study no significant correlation was found with Openness to experience.

Finally, it was found that the general students' motivation was as well correlated with four personality traits (Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Neuroticism), with Conscientiousness as having the strongest link and neuroticism being negatively correlated, as DeYoung et al. (2007) posited that Neurotic people tend to seek avoidance. Concerning the other traits if we relate them to the reward and punishment theory, Corr et al. (2013) mentioned as an illustration seeking to please others for Agreeableness, seeking sociability and positive emotions for Extraversion, or avoiding failure for Conscientiousness. Nonetheless, no significant correlation was drawn between Openness to experience and Motivation.

5.3.2.2 Qualitative results

Qualitative results were obtained from both students' interviews and classroom observation. Indeed, it is important to combine quantitative and qualitative results to answer the question about the possible existent relationship between students' motivation and their different personalities.

The interview shows that all the students scoring high in Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Openness to experience reported being motivated to learn English. The

additional personality trait here that we previously found no correlation with is Openness to experience. Which may be related this time to Komarraju et al. (2009) findings and Corr et al. (2013) assuming that people with Openness to experience are known to be curious which indicates that getting answers may be rewarding for them. Moreover, the current results also shown that two neurotic students reported not feeling motivated all the time whereas one answered with a short 'yes', which may explain the negatively slightly correlated results that we previously found with the Neuroticism dimension. Similarly, Neurotic students are known to have traits like anxiety, vulnerability and self-consciousness which may lead them to withdrawals and hence demotivation (DeYoung et al., 2007).

In the classroom, active students who showed determination and willingness to learn by their constant participation and questionings had personality traits like Extraversion, Agreeableness, conscientiousness and Openness to experience. Here again, the trait of Openness to experience seems to be present in motivated learners. Nonetheless, other students with personality traits like Introversion and high in Neuroticism were also noticed taking notes and focusing with the teacher which may indicates their motivation to learn. In the same vein, two teachers acknowledged that, by stating that some students show their motivation in class whereas others show it otherwise when they contact them via emails, social media, or outside classes to ask questions. Another trait which was not previously been mentioned is introversion or low score in extraversion.

Additionally, students who seemed demotivated in class (careless, looking at their phones, chatting...) shared different personality traits like introversion, high and low in Neuroticism, high and low in Openness to experience, low in Agreeableness and Conscientiousness. However, no students scoring high in Extraversion, Agreeableness, or Conscientiousness was noticed to be demotivated. In the same line, Komarraju et al. (2009) found that demotivated learners were

noticed to be lacking conscientiousness and Agreeableness. Also, Clark and Schroth (2010) concluded that demotivated learners were disagreeable and careless.

Eventually, we can conclude that motivated students are more likely to have high scores in Extraversion, Conscientiousness, and Agreeableness and demotivating learners are more likely to be disagreeable and non-conscientious. Indeed, we cannot deny that there is a sort of relationship between motivation and some personality dimensions like Extraversion, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness. Neuroticism can also be somehow negatively correlated to motivation but not to a great extent. Concerning Openness to experience, contradictions did occur between quantitative data and qualitative data as despite not finding an apparent correlation in Pearson's correlation, many students seemed to show both motivation and high scores in Openness to experience. Still, other students having high scores in Openness to experience showed also demotivation which is why we cannot consider this dimension compatible with students' motivation.

5.4 The Relationship between Teacher-student Rapport, students' motivation, personalities and emotions

To see if there is a relationship between teacher-student's rapport, students' motivation, personality traits and emotions, we need to study six separate relationships between each two of the above mentioned. Nonetheless, three set of relationships were previously tackled in this chapter: students' emotion and teacher-student rapport, teacher-students' rapport and students' motivation, and students' personality and motivation. Followingly, three other set of relationships are to be

discussed: students' personality traits and emotions, students' personality and teacher-students' rapport, and students' emotions and motivation.

5.4.1 Students' personality traits and their Emotions

Not many studies tried to see the link between personality and emotions, however, among those who highlighted this connectivity are Revell and Scherer (2009) who claimed that: "*personality is to emotion as climate is to weather*" (2009:01). Whether this is true or not, I tried to highlight this link via a qualitative study of students' interviews and classroom observation.

When analyzing the interview, I tried to investigate the most recurrent emotions in every personality dimensions. Indeed, we could have some slightly visible results. For instance, we could see Joy and interest for HEX and anxiety, annoyance but also interest for LEX. In the same vein, Dewaele (2013a) also found that high introverted learners may develop a kind of anxiety towards their learning. Concerning HEX, Revell and Scherer (2009) alluded that people who have traits like pride, surprise, and pleasure are more likely to develop positive emotions like joy.

Additionally, we could see also some anxiety with other personality dimensions like HC, HAG, LC, HN, and HOP. Concerning HC, this may be explained by their fear of not performing well in the language as they tend to have traits of perseverance, productivity, and effectiveness (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015; Maltby, 2017). Regarding HAG, they may be anxious when they tend to be agreeable and please others and fail to do so, as they are known to be helpful, caring and affectionate (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015; Maltby, 2017). Finally, HOP may feel anxious because they are limited by their teachers and not allowed to exert their most known traits by being fanciful and creative (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2015; Maltby, 2017). Moreover, Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) found that anxiety is deeply involved in the dimension of Neuroticism/ Emotional stability. In the

most recurrent emotions of HN, we could see a mixture of positive and negative emotions from joy to sad which may explain their instability of emotions as HN are known to have a fluctuation in emotions which cause them to be most of the time distressed and anxious.

The interview clearly stated some connectivity between personality dimensions and emotions as we could see that some personality dimensions generate some emotions more frequently than others. However, little could be noticed in the classroom observation. Correspondingly, most students were perceived to hold the same emotions through different situations as they could be seen as happy with some teachers or seem to feel bored with other teachers. In this sense, Plutchik (2003) acknowledged that emotions happen in response to different event and situations which may trigger apparent physical reactions such as facial expression and body language.

Nonetheless, some small observations could detect a slight link between some personality traits and emotions. For instance, it could be seen that introvert learners showed different behaviours and emotions compared to extroverted learners as some introverted learners showed their interest when they were constantly taking notes or deeply listening to the teacher whereas extroverted learners showed their interest via participating and asking questions. Introvert learners may not outwardly show their emotions even if they feel interested or happy. Conversely, it was found in a study that extrovert learners are more likely to fake their negative emotions and show only positive emotions (Seeger-Guttmann & Meder-Liraz, 2015). Additionally, it was seen that students who seemed not interested and not motivated mainly held traits like low on Conscientiousness and low on Agreeableness, as they showed no care for the teacher or their studies.

Conclusively, even though classroom observation has not shown much concerning students' personalities in relation to their emotions as it is not evident to see and read students emotion as some students can fake or hide their emotions wherein others would show them explicitly; the interview highlighted some connectivity where we could see some dominant emotions in particular

personality dimensions. Nevertheless, this relationship needs to be explored further in the future as it would need more elaborate tools to read people's emotions and see if they play a role in students' personalities.

5.4.2 Students' personality traits and teacher-students' Rapport

Many studies found a link between students' genetical traits and their rapport with their teachers as they believe that those traits shape the kind of relationship they have with their teachers (Koenig et al., 2010; Rudasill & Rimm-Kaufman, 2009; Shiner & Caspi, 2003; Saft & Pianta, 2001; Sthulman & Pianta, 2002; Zee et al., 2013). Correspondingly to see if this relationship exists in the current study, qualitative data from the students' interviews and classroom observation have been regarded.

Initially, in the students interview students were asked first to describe their ideal teacher where we got different answers and there was nothing to do with their personalities for even students holding the same personality traits answered differently. In addition to that, the five scenarios in the interview were also considered to see if students had the same reactions towards those different situations happening with their teachers. Result has showed that most students reacted differently from each other, but some students had the same reactions. However, students holding the same personality traits reacted differently to these situations with their teachers. Indeed, there were some similar reactions with some personality traits, but it is not strong enough to say that there is a relationship between students' personalities and their relationship with their teachers. Hence, these results contradict previous research saying that students' personality types could predict the kind of relationship they have with their teachers. Nonetheless, for more answers, we need also to see data from classroom observation.

In classroom Observation little was noticed concerning the relationship between students' personality traits and their rapport with their teachers. Nevertheless, Jensen-Campbell and Graziano (2001) posited that friendly students are more likely to develop good rapport with their teachers rather than less friendly students like the case of extravert and introvert learners. However, in the current study, when talking to one of the teachers, she mentioned that it is true that introvert students tend to hide themselves in class and rarely participate but some of them contact their teachers outside the class and most of the time via email and social media. Similarly, Rudasill and Konold (2008) found in their study that introvert learners tend to keep silent and do not show disrupting behaviours in class meaning they are more unlikely to create conflicts in class and thus maintain good rapport with their teachers. This means that being introvert or extrovert does not determine having a good rapport with their teachers or not as they simply have different kinds of relationships.

Concerning Agreeable students, they are thought to be cooperative and tend to build positive relationships with others and avoid conflicts with their teachers or classmates (Barrick et al., 2002; Zee et al., 2013). Indeed, in the current study, agreeable students seemed to have a good relationship with their teachers, but one student had expressed not liking a teacher and thus rapport is somehow considered weak. Still, this student was not the only one who disliked this teacher as I observed a weak rapport between this teacher and many other students in class.

Regarding, Neurotic students, are known to hold temperamental traits like anger and anxiety which are believed to lead to a negative relationship with their teachers by expressing their negative attitudes and impeding teachers from properly responding to them (Little & Hudson, 1998; Mervielde et al., 2005). However, in the current study, Neurotic students seemed not to cause any problems in class as they seemed calm. Still, we cannot say that they had good rapport with all their teachers as HN2 expressed not liking a teacher as she was noticed not entering her class.

Again, it is perceived that teachers seem to be the reason students change their behaviours, attitudes or emotions in class. Which lead us to think that building and maintaining rapport is not about students' personalities but more about teachers' personalities and practice.

The other dimension which are Conscientiousness and Openness to experience are believed to be more cognitive that is predictors of motivation and cognitive abilities (Oz, 2014; Zee et al., 2013). Likewise, in the current study, students with those traits were not perceived to have any conflict with their teachers as rapport was weak only with the previously mentioned teachers. Consequently, from the above-mentioned observations, it is perceived that teachers seem to be the reason students change their behaviours, attitudes or emotions in class. Which lead us to think that building and maintaining rapport is not about students' personalities but more about teachers' personalities and practice. Teachers are believed to be the primary responsible individuals to build and maintain rapport with different personalities in class as teachers can have different kinds of rapport with different personalities such as introverts and extroverts.

5.4.3 Students' motivation and their emotions

Motivation and emotions, cognition and emotion, or passion and reason; these dualities were always debated upon as to whether combined or separated work best when learning. In the current study, I intend to look in the qualitative side and see if there is a link between students' emotions and their motivation. I tried at first to compare students' motivation and their emotions towards the English language. Results showed that those who do not feel themselves motivated or little motivated have a blend of positive and negative emotions, whereas those who reported being

motivated mostly felt positive emotions except for anxiety (fear, and apprehension which seemed to be present in many students especially towards speaking English.

Correspondingly, Swain (2013) posited that negative emotions do refer to the presence of conflict, and it is the case of some students here not being enough motivated or not motivated at all. The findings do show that there is a link between motivation and emotions as motivated students mainly generate positive emotions towards the language they are learning, and demotivated or less motivated learners are perceived to generate some negative emotions. Indeed, it was acknowledged that positive emotions do lead to positive outcome when learning a second language and negative emotions to negative outcomes (Pekrun et al., 2007). Still, some negative emotion may be complex in matter of negative outcomes such like anger and fear (Ibid, 2007).

As a second stage I investigated students' answers about the five scenarios and if this would affect their motivation. Many students have reacted with bad emotions like anger, disapproval and sadness, and said that these situations would affect their motivation to learn English. However, other students reacted differently as they said that this would rather motivate them even more or simply would not affect their motivation. Accordingly, this confirms that negative emotions do always lead to demotivation as they can sometimes play a role in motivation like being angry with the teacher and wanting to do better to prove them wrong. This comes in line with Pekrun et al. (2007) statement about the complexity of some negative emotions. In these scenarios, we can say that motivation and emotions are not always related as motivation can be affected by teachers and situations as well.

Moreover, in the classroom observation I interpreted motivated students with those students showing interest when they listen to their teachers, take notes, participate and ask questions. I thus observed mainly positive emotions with four of their teachers like joy, interest, and admiration and also some anxiety was noticed with some of those students. Only few students seemed demotivated

as they showed emotions of boredom and annoyance. Concerning the two other teachers where rapport seemed to be somehow weak, most of the students showed emotions like boredom and annoyance and seemed to be demotivated by those sessions and they seemed to be in a hurry to finish those classes. Consequently, there seem to be a relationship between motivation and emotion since emotions did help detect whether these students were motivated or not. For instance, when a student is chatting and not paying attention to the teacher or is constantly looking at the watch and making annoying facial expression, the emotion here is apparently ‘boredom’ and thus I can conclude also by this behaviour their demotivation to be in class.

To conclude, combining the interview and the classroom observation, we can say that emotions have served a great deal in detecting students’ motivation, despite the fact that some negative emotions like anxiety and anger are hard to interpret in terms of predicting students’ motivation. Hence, these findings relate to the earlier studies of Aristotle concerning combining passion and reason to understand human being and Vygotsky (1987) when he gave the example of combining and studying hydrogen and oxygen together in order to understand the formula of extinguishing water; for this concerns emotions and cognition too in the process of learning for human beings. Eventually, recent studies have also supported the interconnection between emotions and motivation (e.g., Ross, 2015b; Swain, 2013).

5.5 Conclusion

This chapter tried to cover and discuss all the important questions about this research. It is structured in a coherent and straightforward way to make it easier for the reader to understand the interpretation of the collected data via answering each research question separately. This chapter also combined previous literature with the results obtained in this study as I tried to interpret the

findings accordingly. Eventually, I could reach the point of investigating the kind of relationship EFL undergraduates' students have with their teachers, student's personality traits, students' emotions, and students' motivation and finally, I could highlight the relationship between each of the above-mentioned concepts.

Indeed, not every question was fully answered as some ambiguities still need clarifications which would be subject to further elaborated future research. Yet, large data were reached so far that could answer many important points in this research and will also help open the gate for many other studies to be continued in the field of psychology and SLA.

Chapter Six: Conclusion

6.1 Introduction

As it was previously discussed, the aim of this research was to explore the relationship between Algerian undergraduate students' emotions, personality, motivation and their rapport with their teachers. In other words, the study aimed to look at whether teacher-student rapport had any effect on students' motivation to learn English in relation to their emotions and personalities. To do this,

I have formulated a number of research questions as highlighted in the introductory chapter. The key findings as per research question are summarized in what follows.

6.2 Key findings

6.2.1 Research question 1:

What is the nature of teacher-student rapport in undergraduate English language classes at the participating university?

First of all, the rapport between Algerian EFL undergraduate students and their teachers was investigated by combining classroom observations, student interviews and a teacher questionnaire. An important conclusion was that some teachers maintain good rapport with their students while others do not. However, it seems that the majority of these teachers supported the prominence of having a positive relationship with their students. Indeed, building rapport is always challenging especially when teachers are confronted with difficulties and conflicts in class such as those related with student discipline, as some teachers claimed that this may slow down or impede the process of building rapport. On the other hand, many students reported having a good rapport with almost all of their teachers and believed that it was their responsibility to maintain this good rapport with them. In other words, some students believed that if they behave well with their teachers, they will have a good rapport with them.

6.2.1.1 Sub-research question a

What are the most recurrent emotions experienced in class in relation to teacher-students' rapport?

In addition to that, some teachers regarded negative emotions like anxiety, low self-confidence and shyness as more dominant in class whereas other teachers commented that positive emotions such as enthusiasm and admiration are more recurrent. Otherwise, students seemed to show mainly joy when learning English and some anxiety but to a lesser degree than joy. Nonetheless, it was hard to detect a dominant emotion towards their English classes, because students seemed to express different emotions in different situations. With respect to their teachers, they seemed to express mainly positive emotions except in some situations such as teachers embarrassing them in front of their classmates, where anger and embarrassment were detected. All in all, thanks to the classroom observations, it was noticed that students' emotions do not only change across different situations and stages of the lesson but they also change with different teachers.

6.2.1.2 Sub-research question b

How do undergraduate students behave when there is little or no rapport with their teachers?

Furthermore, it was concluded that when teachers display negative behaviour in class towards their students, many students misbehave or show negative emotions in return. It was also observed that some students misinterpret a teacher behaviour even if the intention of the teacher is good. From that sense, it was concluded that evidently teachers play a key role in building rapport with their students, but students also have their part in that; students who do not wish in the first place to have a good relationship with their teachers or do not intend to be close with their teachers make it harder for teachers to approach them.

6.2.2 Research question 2

To what extent are undergraduate students motivated to learn English as a foreign language?

Concerning students' motivation to learn English, quantitative results showed that most students were both integrative and instrumentally motivated to learn English. However, it was concluded that teachers somehow may reduce or increase student motivation in class.

6.2.2.1 Sub-research Question a

What is the impact of teacher-student rapport on undergraduate students' motivation?

The interviews showed that teachers' behaviour and the kind of relationship students have with their teachers had a great influence on many students' levels of motivation to learn despite the fact that some students expressed the view that their teachers had no impact on their motivation. Most teachers, on the other hand, also agreed that they influence their students' motivation to a large extent mainly due to the different techniques they use to boost their students' motivation. Still, two teachers denied this as they claimed that student motivation is mainly about themselves, and teachers can only play a small role in that

6.2.2.2 Sub- Research Question b

To what extent do undergraduate students' personality traits play a role in their motivation?

The findings of the present study also showed that motivated students are more likely to have high scores in Extraversion, Conscientiousness, and Agreeableness, as opposed to demotivated students who are more likely to score low on agreeableness and conscientiousness. In addition, Neuroticism

was found to be negatively slightly correlated with motivation. Finally, students who scored high in Openness to experience had different motivational levels and, therefore, we cannot safely say that this dimension correlated with motivation. Therefore, we can say that some personality traits like HEX, HC and HAG are more likely to be motivated in class compared to other traits like LAG and LC which makes us conclude that there is a kind of non-negligeable relationship between students' personality traits and their motivation.

6.2.3 Research question 3:

What is the overall relationship between undergraduate students' personality traits, emotions, motivation and teacher-students' rapport?

6.2.3.1 Relationship between personality traits and emotions

The interview clearly revealed some apparent link between some personality dimensions and emotions. For instance, we could see frequently positive emotions (joy, interest) with dimensions like HEX and negative ones (annoyance, anxiety) with LEX. Nonetheless, anxiety was also noticed to be frequent with many dimensions like HC, HAG, HOP, and HN. Concerning HN, it showed a mixture of emotions which explain the emotional instability of the individual.

However, classroom emotions showed that traits like LC and LAG seemed to hold negative emotions in class compared to other traits like HOP, HEX, and HC. The observation also showed that students' emotions change according to the situation they are in or the teacher they are dealing with regardless of their emotions as you can also perceive negative emotions like boredom or anger with teachers they do not appreciate.

6.2.3.2 Relationship between Teacher-Student Rapport and Students' Personalities

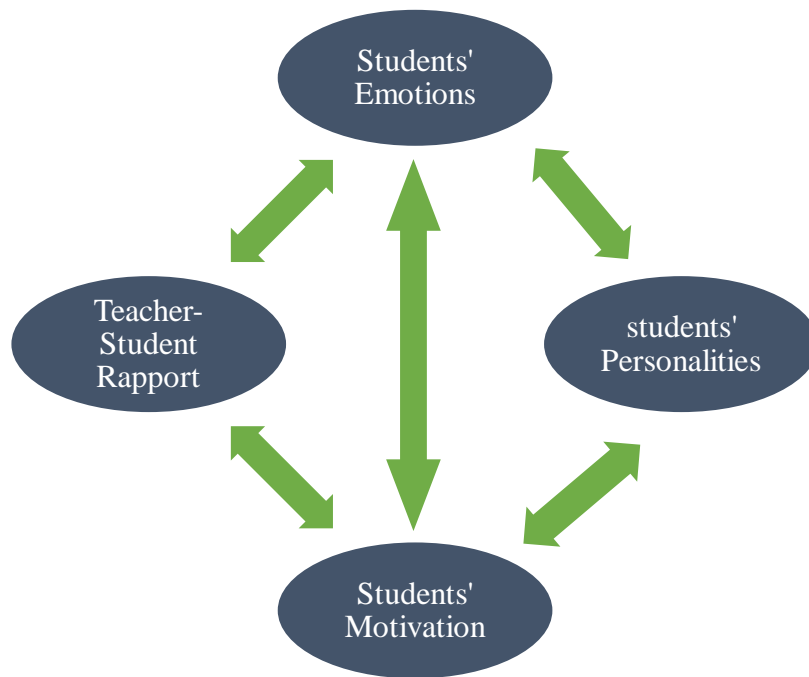
Interviews showed no clear link between teacher-student rapport and students' personalities and the same thing with classroom observation as it has revealed that teachers are the primary responsible for building rapport with their students as it may have more to do with teacher personalities than students'. Therefore, it was noticed that teachers may build good rapport but with different kinds of relationship with their students like the case of introvert and extrovert students (I.e., extrovert students participate in class and favor direct communication with their teachers whereas introvert learners prefer contacting their teachers outside the class).

6.2.3.3 Relationship between Motivation and Emotion

With the combination of students interviews and classroom observation, qualitative results highlighted an apparent link between students' positive emotions and students' motivation as the former could predict if students were motivated or not and vice versa. That is students who displayed negative emotions such like boredom were more likely to be demotivated to learn and be in class except for emotions like anger and anxiety which are considered to be complicated to interpret regarding students' motivation.

To clarify these results, the following diagram summarizes the answer to the third research question which looks for the relationship between all of teacher-student rapport, students' motivation, students' emotions and students' personality traits.

Figure 3: Summary of the findings



The above diagram shows that students' emotions and students' motivation are linked together and also hold a connection with all of teacher-student rapport and students' personality traits. However, I did not link teacher-student rapport and students' personalities because the findings did not display a relationship between these two.

6.2 Limitations and challenges of the study

It can be quite common that although a research study is well designed, things do not always go as planned. There are always some limitations and challenges that a researcher may encounter along the way. Below are some of the obstacles that I faced:

1. An important limitation of the present study concerns the design of instruments for data collection. Wishing to combine both motivation and emotion in one single questionnaire drawing from the fact that motivation and emotions are linked, was my original intention as I designed a questionnaire that tested motivation through student emotions. However, when piloting the questionnaire, I could hardly manage to analyze because students seemed not to understand the instructions where they were asked to pick only three emotions maximum. In some cases, I had six contradicting emotions at once and this made it difficult to interpret the results. That is why I dropped the use of this questionnaire and rather opted for an adapted version of Gardner's Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB). Another reason why the former questionnaire was dropped was that it was widely complex to test emotions quantitatively.

1. Another significant limitation that needs to be considered in this study was the duration of data collection. The plan was to collect data with first year undergraduate students of English and their teachers for a duration of six months. However, things happened differently, as there was a major political Strike happening (Hiraq) that prevented me from accessing university and there were neither students nor teachers attending class. Certain students started going back to their classes by mid-May and I managed to give them the first questionnaire (BFI). Exams started in June and then students were off for the summer vacation. Therefore, it was impossible to have classroom observations or complete the rest of the data collection. Plans had to change and I had to consider collecting data online or wait until the start of the next academic year in October. I could reach teachers online and hand them their questionnaires, but students were impossible to reach especially in the summer, so I had to return to Algeria

in October for a duration of two months to complete all data collection. Out of 40 teachers that I contacted only 15 teachers responded and accepted to take part in the study.

1. In October 2019, I went back to Algeria to complete my data collection. Students at this time were willing to participate in the study and things went fine with the interviews and the rest of the questionnaires. However, since not all of these students had participated in the study in May, I had to also give them the personality questionnaire. I also noticed that some students had answered the personality questionnaire and not the motivation questionnaire, so I had to look for them one by one in their classes to ask them to do what they had not done. Some of them were never found and therefore I had to exclude them from the study. With respect to classroom observations, the only challenge was at the beginning when I had planned to use an observation grid across all observations but I did not use it in the end. This was something that could have been rectified early on if I had the chance to pilot the observation guide. Things went well this second time as I could collect almost all data, except for five students interviews which I then held online. In short, instead of six months, data collection took one year and students who were supposed to be first-year students ended up being in their second year of university studies in the second stage of data collection.

6.3 Implications for teaching

From the research findings it has been found that the teacher plays a massive role in students' motivation to learn English. Notwithstanding that, teachers can change students' emotions in class and can make them like or dislike their sessions. That is why the recommendation here is for teachers to work towards increasing students' motivation via using different methods and techniques depending on their students' needs and personalities. Correspondingly, it was found that students who have a positive and healthy relationship with their teachers tend to be more motivated in their sessions and like the teacher more, that is why establishing a good rapport with students is one of the most useful methods to motivate students.

Indeed, establishing a good rapport is not an easy task which is why teachers need to work on that from the beginning, that is when meeting their students for the first time. This research has made it clear that there are a variety of personalities and different levels of personality dimensions within a single classroom. Thus, it is important for teachers to appreciate these different personalities and get to know their students from the beginning including other underlying psychological factors such as their emotions, background experience, culture, strengths and weaknesses (Gkonou, 2021). There may be many techniques to achieve this acquaintance with students, as the teacher can use personality questionnaire at the beginning to have at least an idea of the different personalities in class. Concerning students who seem to be reserved, shy or maybe because they are introverted learners, teachers can try to communicate with them when they are alone or outside the class so that they feel at ease.

Moreover, along with knowing them, it is very important for teachers to show their care about their students by encouraging them, talking to them, calling them by their names, praising their work and achievements. This can also be challenging for teachers when faced with difficult students who show bad behaviours in class or seem not to care about their teachers or classmates. Teachers need to have good training on emotional support and control to be able to approach such kinds of students

(Gkonou & Miller, 2020, Rubio, 2007). Teachers need to look for the reasons behind such behaviour in class, as the student may be facing difficult times in their life, teachers need to stay calm, control their emotions, and look for ways of communication with these students like talking to them when they are alone and showing that they care for them and want to help them if they ever want to talk (see also Quinlan, 2016; Pianta & Hamre, 2009 for more suggestions on emotional support). It is also a good idea for teachers to talk between themselves and create a social group to expose different conflicts happening in class with their students as they may offer each other help, support and solutions (Derakhshan et al., 2022). For instance, teachers may have come through similar situations before and have managed to solve it which would help the other teacher experiencing it in the present time solve it as well.

In addition to that, Gkonou (2021) has also suggested another dimension for creating positive relationships with students and maintaining it during their learning process, which is creating a positive atmosphere in class by introducing humor, funny and dynamic activities, relating taught topics to their personal experiences and many other techniques that can be added to keep students' motivation always high and avoid any boring tasks that may lead students despise the teacher and the class. It is also important to consider some students' personalities when presenting such tasks as the case of introvert learners who do not like to be exposed in public or work in a group with their classmates. This can be done by giving them the choice whether to participate or not in the group activities and giving them other tasks to do which would be specially designed for them. Another example are learners with low self-esteem for teachers need be cautious when using humor in class as it should not be employed against them but with them (Rubio, 2007). Teachers should also listen to these students without judgement or pity to make them feel secure and accept themselves (ibid, 2007).

Another recommendation for teachers to maintain good rapport with their students is to keep this working and learning environment open even after class. For example, the teacher can create a platform on social media where they can group their students together and share activities with them, create discussions, and keep the learning process on going. This will also allow different kinds of students to participate, even the reserved ones. They would likely stay motivated and like to meet their teachers again.

Overall, taking into consideration the relationship between student-teacher rapport, student motivation, students' personalities and emotions, it is highly recommended for the teacher to treat students as individuals rather than a whole class to teach and address their different needs in this way.

6.4 Suggestions for future research

The current study has investigated the impact of teacher-student rapport on EFL undergraduate students' motivation in relation to their emotions and personalities. Although this research is considered to be exploratory and one case-based research in Tlemcen University, Algeria, it has shed light on the investigation of the nature of rapport these students had with their teachers, the impact of this rapport on their motivation, emotions and personalities, the different emotions they felt in class with respect to their studies and their teachers, and the nature of the relationship that connects these four concepts together (student-teacher rapport, student motivation, student emotions, student personalities).

Further research could explore more universities in Algeria as well as other levels of education such as primary and/or secondary schools for the purposes of exploring more contexts as well as comparing and contrasting among them. Another recommendation for further research is to not only look at students' motivation, emotions and personality in class, but also consider teachers'

psychology in this domain too and how this can play role in building rapport with their students.

Do teachers' personalities and emotions affect their students' motivation and learning? Or does teachers' motivation affect also students' motivation and their rapport with their students?

Interviews may be conducted with them, and other research instruments may also be used that have not been included in this research such as teachers' diaries and students' diaries. Studies can be longitudinal as they can investigate a long-time teacher-student relationship, that is how a relationship starts, how it proceeds through months or several years and if this relationship remains good even after students finishes their studies with this teacher. Other studies should also look are other individual differences covering other psychological and sociodemographic factors such as attitudes, values, self-concept and self-esteem, religion, cultures, gender, etc.

Indeed, this domain is vast and can be explored in other African, Arab or other countries with English being a foreign language and see if results would be the same or other findings may come out leading to further studies. Other studies may also focus on designing and evaluating methods and techniques that help teachers approach and build rapport with their students taking into consideration their students' psychological dimensions.

Appendices

Appendix 1



Application for Ethical Approval of Research Involving Human Participants

This application form must be completed for any research involving human participants conducted in or by the University. 'Human participants' are defined as including living human beings, human beings who have recently died (cadavers, human remains and body parts), embryos and fetuses, human tissue and bodily fluids, and human data and records (such as, but not restricted to medical, genetic, financial, personnel, criminal or administrative records and test results including scholastic achievements). Research must not commence until written approval has been received (from departmental Director of Research/Ethics Officer, Faculty Ethics Sub-Committee (ESC) or the University's Ethics Committee). This should be borne in mind when setting a start date for the project. Ethical approval cannot be granted retrospectively and failure to obtain ethical approval prior to data collection will mean that these data cannot be used.

Applications must be made on this form, and submitted electronically, to your departmental Director of Research/Ethics Officer. A signed copy of the form should also be submitted. Applications will be assessed by the Director of Research/Ethics Officer in the first instance, and may then passed to the ESC, and then to the University's Ethics Committee. A copy of your research proposal and any necessary supporting documentation (e.g. consent form, recruiting materials, etc) should also be attached to this form.

A full copy of the signed application will be retained by the department/school for 6 years following completion of the project. The signed application form cover sheet (two pages) will be sent to the Research Governance and Planning Manager in the REO as Secretary of the University's Ethics Committee.

1. Title of project:

The Impact of Personality traits and Emotions on Motivation in Relation to Teacher/Student Rapport: The Case of Algerian EFL Undergraduate Students.

2. The title of your project will be published in the minutes of the University Ethics Committee. If you object, then a reference number will be used in place of the title.
Do you object to the title of your project being published? Yes ☐ / No ☒

3. This Project is: ☐ Staff Research Project ☒ Student Project

4. Principal Investigator(s) (students should also include the name of their supervisor):

Name: Amina Tchouar	Department: language and linguistics
Supervisor: Dr Christina Gkonou	Language and linguistics

5. **Proposed start date:** 25th February 2019
6. **Probable duration:** 4 months

7. Will this project be externally funded? Yes ☐ / No ☒
If Yes,
8. What is the source of the funding?

9. If external approval for this research has been given, then only this cover sheet needs to be submitted

External ethics approval obtained (attach evidence of approval)

Yes ☐ / No ☒

Declaration of Principal Investigator:

The information contained in this application, including any accompanying information, is, to the best of my knowledge, complete and correct. I/we have read the University's *Guidelines for Ethical Approval of Research Involving Human Participants* and accept responsibility for the conduct of the procedures set out in this application in accordance with the guidelines, the University's *Statement on Safeguarding Good Scientific Practice* and any other conditions laid down by the University's Ethics Committee. I/we have attempted to identify all risks related to the research that may arise in conducting this research and acknowledge my/our obligations and the rights of the participants.

Signature(s): 

Name(s) in block capitals: AMINA TCHOUAR

Date: 11/12/2018

Supervisor's recommendation (Student Projects only):

I have read and approved the quality of both the research proposal and this application.

Supervisor's signature:



Outcome:

The departmental Director of Research (DoR) / Ethics Officer (EO) has reviewed this project and considers the methodological/technical aspects of the proposal to be appropriate to the tasks proposed. The DoR / EO considers that the investigator(s) has/have the necessary qualifications, experience and facilities to conduct the research set out in this application, and to deal with any emergencies and contingencies that may arise.

This application falls under Annex B and is approved on behalf of the ESC ☒

This application is referred to the ESC because it does not fall under Annex B ☐

This application is referred to the ESC because it requires independent scrutiny ☐

Signature(s): 

Name(s) in block capitals: BEATRIZ DE PAIVA

Department: LANGUAGE AND LINGUISTICS

Date: 22/02/19

The application has been approved by the ESC ☐

The application has not been approved by the ESC ☐

The application is referred to the University Ethics Committee ☐

Signature(s):

Name(s) in block capitals:

Faculty:

Date:

Appendix 2

CONSENT FORM (Students)

TITLE OF THE PROJECT: The Impact of Personality traits and Emotions on Motivation in Relation to Teacher-student rapport: The Case of Algerian EFL Undergraduate Students.

RESEARCHER: Amina TCHOUAR

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. I confirm that I have read and understood the Information Sheet for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these questions answered satisfactorily. | <input style="width: 80px; height: 30px; border: 1px solid black;" type="text"/> |
| 2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw from the project at any time without giving any reason and without penalty. | <input style="width: 80px; height: 30px; border: 1px solid black;" type="text"/> |
| 3. I understand that interviews may be audio recorded, and I can refuse to be recorded. | <input style="width: 80px; height: 30px; border: 1px solid black;" type="text"/> |
| 4. I understand that the identifiable data provided will be securely stored and accessible only to the researcher, and that confidentiality will be maintained. | <input style="width: 80px; height: 30px; border: 1px solid black;" type="text"/> |
| 5. I agree to take part in the above study. | <input style="width: 80px; height: 30px; border: 1px solid black;" type="text"/> |

Participant's Name

Date

Signature

Researcher's Name

Date

Signature

CONSENT FORM (Teachers)

TITLE OF THE PROJECT: The Impact of Personality traits and Emotions on Motivation in Relation to Teacher-student rapport: a Case of Algerian EFL Undergraduate Students.

RESEARCHER: Amina TCHOUAR

1. I confirm that I have read and understood the Information Sheet for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these questions answered satisfactorily. ☐
2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw from the project at any time without giving any reason and without penalty. ☐
3. I understand that the identifiable data provided will be securely stored and accessible only to the researcher, and that confidentiality will be maintained. ☐
4. I agree to take part in the above study. ☐

Participant's Name

Date

Signature

Researcher's Name

Date

Signature

Appendix 3

Motivation/Emotion Questionnaire (Pilot)

Thank you for answering this questionnaire which aims to explore students' motivation through their emotions. The first section aims to gather general information about the students and the nature of the rapport they have with their teachers. Please be aware that your answers will be strictly confidential and subject to research only. This questionnaire should only take you 4 to 5 minutes to complete.

Email/Facebook

.....

Section 1: General Information

Please circle only one answer when appropriate.

1. What is your Gender?

Male

Female

2. What is your age?

18-20

21-25

26-30

31-35

36-40

40+

3. How long have you been studying English?

.....

4. How would you consider your level of English?

Very good

good

average

bad

very bad

5. What other languages do you speak?

.....

Section 2:

Please circle only one answer

1. Teachers you feel yourself comfortable with.

All of them	Most of them	Some	Few of them	None
-------------	--------------	------	-------------	------

2. Teachers smiling when teaching in class.

All of them	Most of them	Some	Few of them	None
-------------	--------------	------	-------------	------

3. Teachers you enjoy interacting with.

All of them	Most of them	Some	Few of them	None
-------------	--------------	------	-------------	------

4. Modules you participate in.

All of them	Most of them	Some	Few of them	None
-------------	--------------	------	-------------	------

5. Teachers with a good sense of humor.

All of them	Most of them	Some	Few of them	None
-------------	--------------	------	-------------	------

6. Teachers calling you with your first name.

All of them	Most of them	Some	Few of them	None
-------------	--------------	------	-------------	------

7. Teachers asking questions that relate to you personally.

All of them Most of them Some Few of them None

8. Teachers encouraging you to speak in English.

All of them Most of them Some Few of them None

9. Teachers ignoring you in class.

All of them Most of them Some Few of them None

10. Teachers criticizing/ correcting you in class.

All of them Most of them Some Few of them None

Section 3:

Please circle one to three emotions that you think you experience during each of the classroom situations below.

1. When you speak English in class

Joy Admiration Fear Amazement Sadness Boredom Anger Interest

2. When you write in English in class

Joy Admiration Fear Amazement Sadness Boredom Anger Interest

3. When you practice listening in class

Joy Admiration Fear Amazement Sadness Boredom Anger Interest

4. When you practice reading in class

Joy	Admiration	Fear	Amazement	Sadness	Boredom	Anger	Interest
-----	------------	------	-----------	---------	---------	-------	----------

5. When you listen to a native speaker of English

Joy	Admiration	Fear	Amazement	Sadness	Boredom	Anger	Interest
-----	------------	------	-----------	---------	---------	-------	----------

6. When you study English outside the classroom

Joy	Admiration	Fear	Amazement	Sadness	Boredom	Anger	Interest
-----	------------	------	-----------	---------	---------	-------	----------

7. When you participate in class

Joy	Admiration	Fear	Amazement	Sadness	Boredom	Anger	Interest
-----	------------	------	-----------	---------	---------	-------	----------

Section 4:

Please circle one to three emotions you think you experience during each of the classroom situations below

1. When the teacher enters the class

Joy	Admiration	Fear	Amazement	Sadness	Boredom	Anger	Interest
-----	------------	------	-----------	---------	---------	-------	----------

2. When the teacher smiles in class

Joy	Admiration	Fear	Amazement	Sadness	Boredom	Anger	Interest
-----	------------	------	-----------	---------	---------	-------	----------

3. When the teacher calls you with your first name

Joy	Admiration	Fear	Amazement	Sadness	Boredom	Anger	Interest
-----	------------	------	-----------	---------	---------	-------	----------

4. When the teacher encourages you to speak

Joy Admiration Fear Amazement Sadness Boredom Anger Interest

5. When the teacher asks questions that relate to you personally

Joy Admiration Fear Amazement Sadness Boredom Anger Interest

6. When the teacher tells jokes in class

Joy Admiration Fear Amazement Sadness Boredom Anger Interest

7. When the teacher ignores you in class

Joy Admiration Fear Amazement Sadness Boredom Anger Interest

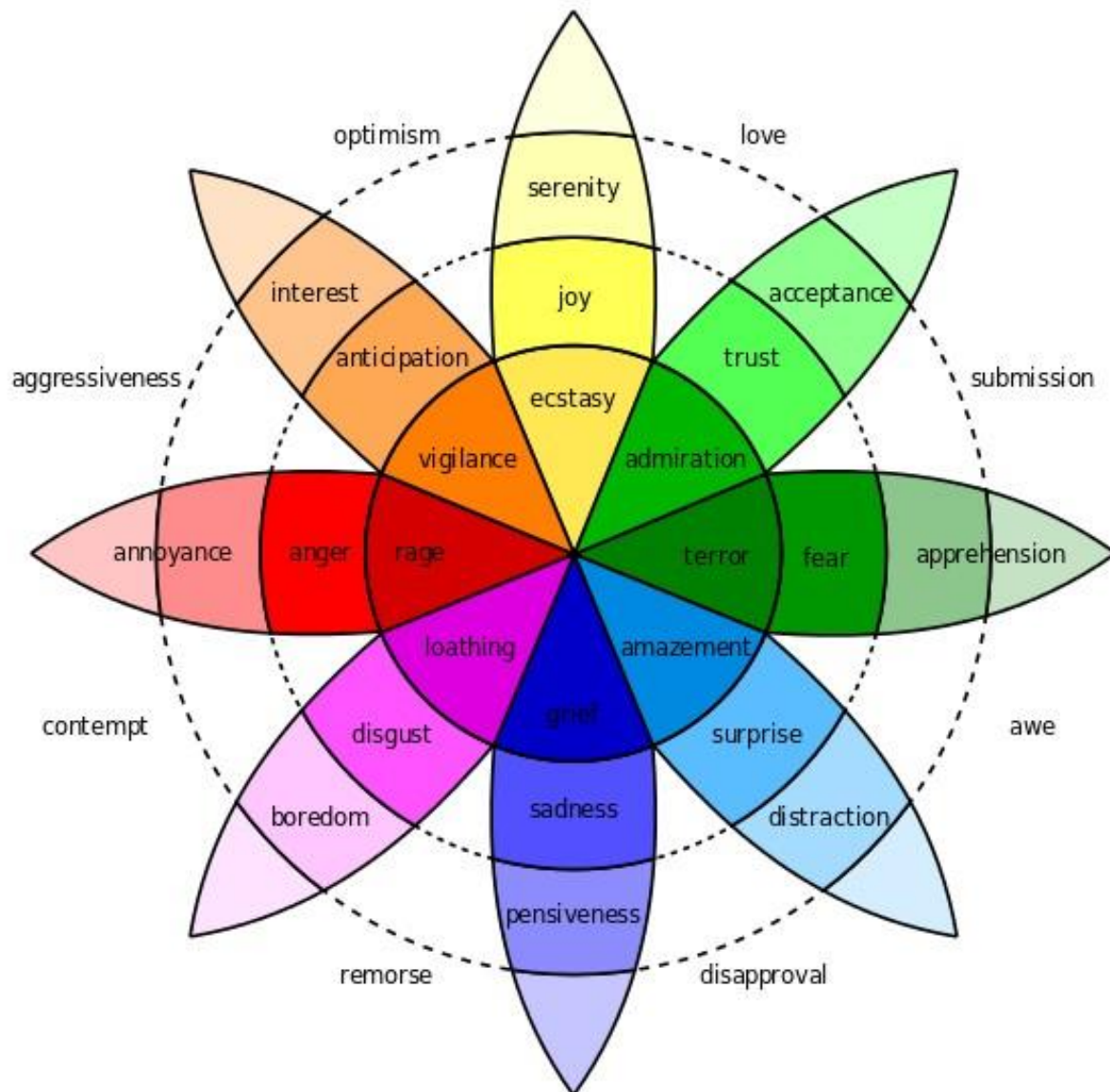
8. When the teacher criticizes/corrects you in front of your classmates

Joy Admiration Fear Amazement Sadness Boredom Anger Interest

Thank you

Appendix 4

Plutchik's wheel of Emotion



Appendix 5

Personality Questionnaire (BFI)

Thank you for accepting to answer this questionnaire which aims at knowing your personality traits.

Please write a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statement. The numbers are as shown in the table below. Be aware that your answers are strictly confidential and will only be used subject to research. This questionnaire will only take you 15 to 20 minutes to complete.

1	2	3	4	5
Disagree Strongly	Disagree a little	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree a little	Agree strongly

I am someone who...

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. ____ Is talkative | 12. ____ Starts quarrels with others |
| 2. ____ Tends to find fault with others | 13. ____ Is a reliable worker |
| 3. ____ Does a thorough job | 14. ____ Can be tense |
| 4. ____ Is depressed, blue | 15. ____ Is ingenious, a deep thinker |
| 5. ____ Is original, comes up with new ideas | 16. ____ Generates a lot of enthusiasm |
| 6. ____ Is reserved | 17. ____ Has a forgiving nature |
| 7. ____ Is helpful and unselfish with others | 18. ____ Tends to be disorganized |
| 8. ____ Can be somewhat careless | 19. ____ Worries a lot |
| 9. ____ Is relaxed, handles stress well. | 20. ____ Has an active imagination |
| 10. ____ Is curious about many different things | 21. ____ Tends to be quiet |
| 11. ____ Is full of energy | 22. ____ Is generally trusting |

23. _____ Tends to be lazy
24. _____ Is emotionally stable, not easily upset
25. _____ Is inventive
26. _____ Has an assertive personality
27. _____ Can be cold and aloof
28. _____ Perseveres until the task is finished
29. _____ Can be moody
30. _____ Values artistic, aesthetic experiences
31. _____ Is sometimes shy, inhibited
32. _____ Is considerate and kind to almost everyone
33. _____ Does things efficiently
34. _____ Remains calm in tense situations
35. _____ Prefers work that is routine
36. _____ Is outgoing, sociable
37. _____ Is sometimes rude to others
38. _____ Makes plans and follows through with them
39. _____ Gets nervous easily
40. _____ Likes to reflect, play with ideas
41. _____ Has few artistic interests
42. _____ Likes to cooperate with others
43. _____ Is easily distracted
44. _____ Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature

Appendix 6

Motivation Questionnaire

Thank you for answering this questionnaire which aims to explore students' motivation. The first section is about general information, and the subsequent sections are related to your motivation. Please be aware that your answers will be strictly confidential and subject to research only. This questionnaire should only take you 5 to 10 minute to complete

Email/Facebook:

.....

Section 1: General Information

Please circle only one answer when appropriate.

1. What is your Gender?

Male Female

2. What is your age?

18-20 21-25 26-30 31-35 36-40 40+

3. How long have you been studying English? (Please include, middle and secondary school)

.....

4. How would you consider your level of English?

Very good good average bad very bad

5. What other languages do you speak?

.....

Section 2: Integrative Motivation

1. I enjoy learning English.

Strongly agree Partially agree Neither agree nor disagree Partially disagree Disagree

2. I have a strong desire to learn all aspects of English.

Strongly agree Partially agree Neither agree nor disagree Partially disagree Disagree

3. Studying English is important because it will allow me to meet and converse with more
and varied people around the world.

Strongly agree Partially agree Neither agree nor disagree Partially disagree Disagree

4. If it were up to me, I would spend all of my time learning English.

Strongly agree Partially agree Neither agree nor disagree Partially disagree Disagree

5. Studying English is important because it will enable me to better understand and
appreciate the way of life of native speakers.

Strongly agree Partially agree Neither agree nor disagree Partially disagree Disagree

6. To be honest, I really have no desire to learn English.

Strongly agree Partially agree Neither agree nor disagree Partially disagree Disagree

7. I can't be bothered trying to understand the more complex aspects of English.

Strongly agree Partially agree Neither agree nor disagree Partially disagree Disagree

8. Studying English is important because I will be able to interact more easily with speakers of English.

Strongly agree Partially agree Neither agree nor disagree Partially disagree Disagree

9. Studying English enables me to understand English movies, music and books.

Strongly agree Partially agree Neither agree nor disagree Partially disagree Disagree

10. Studying English enables me to transfer my knowledge to other people.

Strongly agree Partially agree Neither agree nor disagree Partially disagree Disagree

Section 3: Instrumental Motivation

1. Knowing English isn't really an important goal in my life.

Strongly agree Partially agree Neither agree nor disagree Partially disagree Disagree

2. Studying English is important because I will need it for my career.

Strongly agree Partially agree Neither agree nor disagree Partially disagree Disagree

3. Studying English is important because it will make me more educated.

Strongly agree Partially agree Neither agree nor disagree Partially disagree Disagree

4. I want to learn English because it will make me a more knowledgeable person.

Strongly agree Partially agree Neither agree nor disagree Partially disagree Disagree

5. Studying English is important because it will be useful in getting a good job.

Strongly agree Partially agree Neither agree nor disagree Partially disagree Disagree

6. Studying English is not my priority for my career.

Strongly agree Partially agree Neither agree nor disagree Partially disagree Disagree

7. I study English only for exams, if there were no exams I would not care.

Strongly agree Partially agree Neither agree nor disagree Partially disagree Disagree

8. I am more interested in earning a university degree and a good job than learning the English language itself.

Strongly agree Partially agree Neither agree nor disagree Partially disagree Disagree

9. Learning English is important when traveling abroad.

Strongly agree Partially agree Neither agree nor disagree Partially disagree Disagree

10. Being proficient in English makes other people respect me.

Strongly agree Partially agree Neither agree nor disagree Partially disagree Disagree

Section 4: Motivation from the teacher

1. Some of my English teachers are a great source of inspiration to me.

Strongly agree Partially agree Neither agree nor disagree Partially disagree Disagree

2. I think my English classes are boring.

Strongly agree Partially agree Neither agree nor disagree Partially disagree Disagree

3. I look forward to going to class because my English teachers are so good.

Strongly agree Partially agree Neither agree nor disagree Partially disagree Disagree

4. My English classes are really a waste of time.

Strongly agree Partially agree Neither agree nor disagree Partially disagree Disagree

5. I don't think my English teachers are very good.

Strongly agree Partially agree Neither agree nor disagree Partially disagree Disagree

Thank you

Appendix 7

Students' Interview

Thank you for accepting to take part in this interview. This will last for 20 to 30 minutes. The aim is to gather information about your thinking and feelings about teacher-student relationships. We will go through four sections. In the first part I will ask you general questions. In the second and third part I will ask you to look at the wheel of emotions in front of you and say the emotions you feel in each situation; and in the last part I will present to you five scenarios that can happen in class with the teacher and ask you some questions about them, if they ever happen or have already happened. Please, bear in mind that I am going to record this interview and take notes. Your answers are strictly confidential.

Section 1: General Introductory questions.

1. Why did you choose to study English?
2. What are the modules you like the most? Why? And which modules do you like the least? Why?
3. Do you feel yourself motivated to learn English? Why?
4. How would you describe your ideal teacher?
5. How do you think the teacher can influence your attitudes towards the English language?
6. Do you feel yourself comfortable with all teachers? if no, explain.

Section 2: English Language and Emotions/Motivation.

Have a Look at the wheel and tell me the emotions you feel in each of the situations below

1. When you speak English
 - a. In class
 - b. Outside the class
2. When you practice English writing in class
3. When you practice listening in class.
4. When you practice reading in class.
5. When you listen to a native speaker
 - a. In class
 - b. Outside the class
6. When you study English outside the classroom
7. When you use English outside the classroom
8. When you participate in class.

Section 3:

Just like the previous section, I would like you to look at the wheel and tell me the emotions you feel in each situation below.

1. When the teacher enters the class.
2. When the teacher smiles in class

3. When the teacher calls you with your first name.
4. When the teacher encourages you to speak in English.
5. When the teacher asks questions that relate to you personally.
6. When the teacher tells jokes in class.
7. When the teacher ignores you in class.

Section 4: Scenarios

Scenario one: You make a mistake in class and the teacher corrects you in front of the class.

- Look at the wheel in front of you and choose three emotions you would feel at this moment?
- How would you react to it?
- How do you think it can influence your motivation to learn?

Scenario 2: You have had a bad mark, the teacher smiles at you and tells “you can do better, you are a stronger student than what you think”

- Look at the wheel in front of you and choose three emotion you would feel at this moment?
- How would you react to it?
- How do you think it can influence your motivation to learn?

Scenario 3: You have missed or came late to the class because of a personal situation, and the teacher asks in front of the class to justify yourself.

- Look at the wheel in front of you and choose three emotion you would feel at this moment?
- How would you react to it?
- How do you think it can influence your motivation?

Scenario 4: The teacher tells you to read a passage, you mispronounce a word and your classmates start laughing at you. The teacher intervenes and tells them to stop laughing as they will all have to work on harder activities in front of the class. He then turns to you and gently corrects you.

- Look at the wheel in front of you and choose three emotion you would feel at this moment?
- How would you react to it?
- How do you think it can influence your motivation?

Scenario 5: The teacher tells you to come and present your work in front of the class. You feel anxious, your hands sweat, and you begin to tremble. The teacher notices that and tells you in front of the class " Why are you shivering, you are just presenting a simple piece of work?".

- Look at the wheel in front of you and choose three emotion you would feel at this moment?
- How would you react to it?
- How do you think it can influence your motivation?

Final closing question

Do you have any questions for me? Is there anything you want to ask me?

Thank you

Appendix 8

Teacher Questionnaire

Thank you for agreeing to devote time to complete this important questionnaire. In this questionnaire I intend to investigate the kind of relationship that exists between Algerian Undergraduate students and their teachers from the teacher's point of view. I also want to look at the teachers' awareness of their students' personalities and emotions. The questionnaire will take you 20 to 30 minutes to fill in. Bear in mind that your responses are completely voluntary, anonymous and confidential.

Section 1: Personal Questions

1. How long have you been teaching English?
2. What modules are you or have you been teaching so far?
3. Do you like being a teacher? Why?
4. What would irritate you the most in the classroom?
5. What is your teaching philosophy?

Section 2: Teacher-students relationship

1. How would you describe your relationship with your students?
2. How would you describe your students' motivation?
3. Do you take into consideration your student's personality traits? If yes, how? If no, why not?
4. Do you take into consideration your students' emotions? If yes, how?

5. What are the most recurrent emotions that you notice in your students when you are interacting with them?
6. How do you think the teacher influences students' motivation in class?

Section 3:

You have here the profiles of five students with different personality traits. I would like you to please say how you see yourself dealing and building rapport with each of them.

Student A: You have a student who performs very well in written exams. However, he is all the time nervous, takes teacher's comments negatively and tends to be reserved and does not express himself well in class or in oral tests.

Student B: You have a student who is so curious and asks a lot of questions in class, she tends to bring new ideas and knowledge to class and tries to break the routine every time.

Student C: You have a student who participates all the time and is continuously striving to do his best to succeed. Yet, he sometimes fails in exams.

Students D: You have a student who tends to be noisy in class but very active when there are social and interacting activities. She wants the class to be always animated even in rather passive individual work and practice.

Student E: You have a student who tries to please everyone and acts as a protector, he is cooperative but not competitive as he does not want to look superior to his classmates. His only matter is to have a good relationship with everyone including the teacher.

Section 4:

If you have other views that you think you have not mentioned about teacher/students' relationship, students' personality traits, students' emotions and motivation, please comment below.

Thank you

Observation Grid

Part 1: General information

Session number:

Date:

Time:

Teacher:

Module:

Class Setting:

Number of students:

Part 2: The beginning of the class

	Teacher	Students
Entering the class		
Greetings		

Presenting the start of the class		
Student's participation		
Students' behaviour and emotions		

Notes:.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Part 3: During the class

	Teacher	Student A
The teacher speaking		
Organizing		

activities		
Interacting with the students		
Students’ participation		
Students’ behaviour and emotions		

Notes:........

.....

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Part 4: The end of the class

	Teacher	Students
Announcing the end of the class		
Plans for the next class		
Saying goodbye		
Students' behaviour and emotions		

Notes

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.....

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.....

.....

Part 5: Concluding questions

1. Did the students appear to understand the teacher and the purpose of the lesson?
2. Did the students ask for clarification?
3. Were the students equally engaged in the session?
4. How would you evaluate the general atmosphere of the session (teacher/students' rapport)?
5. What would you say about the strong point and the weak point you have noticed in the teacher/students' relationship?

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