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**Emotional Intelligence in English Language Education:
Study of the Classroom Practices of Middle School
Female and Male Teachers in Chlef Area, Algeria**

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Linguistics and Didactics

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Declaration

I hereby declare that the substance of this dissertation is entirely the result of my investigation and that due reference or acknowledgement is made, whenever necessary, to the work of other researchers.

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6th June 2023

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to be 'Naima Iddou', written over a horizontal line.

Abstract

This work investigates the issue of emotional intelligence in the Algerian context. It seeks to find out whether middle school teachers of English are emotionally intelligent, and examines the extent to which gender impacts their emotional classroom practices. The study at hand was conducted with six teachers of English from three different middle schools of the Chlef Area, 218 middle school pupils from these schools, and four inspectors of English. To collect data, three tools were used: a questionnaire addressed to teachers, their pupils and inspectors of English; observation sessions, using an emotional intelligence checklist adapted from Allen's (2014); and document analysis of inspectors' official reports, based on Marshall's (2009) teacher evaluation rubrics that we obtained from the Education Academy of Chlef. In an attempt to analyse the data in an as much reliable way as possible, the researcher used different approaches and methods. Considering that this research is based on a mixed-methods approach, the investigator used the approaches and methods appropriate for both qualitative and quantitative methods. For the quantitative method, for example, we used statistical analysis and interpretation grounded on systematic and graphical representations, notably tabulation, pie and bar charts. Additionally, to give more accuracy to our research, we calculated our findings by means of different statistical measures namely 'mode' and 'mean'. Moreover, to transform the qualitative data into the quantitative data, the researcher resorted to the quantitative content analysis approach. With reference to the missing data encountered during the analysis of the data, the researcher had recourse to the listwise deletion approach that suggests analysing only the cases with complete data. The findings revealed that most middle school English teachers targeted in this research, are unaware of emotional development as a way to improve their teaching. The results also disclosed that these teachers are emotionally intelligent to only a certain degree. With reference to gender, the results contradict the belief that women are more emotionally intelligent than men. Although female teachers of English were found to outperform their male counterparts in certain emotional classroom practices such as peer work and classroom scanning

and monitoring, men were reported to excel in other practices like social interaction and students' encouragement and motivation. Grounded on these findings, recommendations have been made for policymakers, stakeholders and teachers to increase teachers' awareness of emotional intelligence and emotional classroom practices.

Key words: Emotional intelligence; Teachers' awareness of emotional intelligence; Middle school teachers of English; Emotional classroom practices and gender; Algerian educational system.

Dedication

To the apple of my eye, Mohammed

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Table of Contents

Abstract	I
Dedication	III
Acknowledgements	IV
Table of Contents.....	V
List of Abbreviation.....	XIV
List of Figures.....	XVI
List of Tables	XVII
General Introduction	1
Chapter One: Emotional Intelligence and the Learning Process	
Introduction.....	8
1.1. The Nature of Emotions.....	8
1.2. Emotions are Neurone-Based.....	9
1.3. Studies on Emotional Intelligence.....	10
1.4. Learning Theories in Relation to Emotional Intelligence	11
1.4.1. Aristotle’s Philosophy of Learning.....	12
1.4.2. Behaviourist Theory of Learning	13
1.4.2.1. Classical Conditioning	13
1.4.2.2. Operant Conditioning.....	14
1.4.3. Behaviourism and Emotional Intelligence	16
1.4.4. Cognitive Constructivist Theory of Learning.....	17

1.4.5. Socio-cultural Theory of Learning	19
1.4.6. Social /Cognitive Constructivism and Emotional Intelligence	21
1.4.7. Gardner’s Multiple Intelligences Theory	22
1. Verbal-Linguistic Intelligence	23
2. Math-Logic Intelligence.....	24
3. Spatial Intelligence.....	24
4. Musical Intelligence.....	24
5. Bodily-Kinesthetic Intelligence	24
6. Interpersonal Intelligence.....	24
7. Intrapersonal Intelligence.....	25
8. Naturalist Intelligence	25
9. Existential Intelligence.....	25
1.4.8. Multiple Intelligence Classes.....	28
1. Verbal-Linguistic class	29
2. Math-Logic Intelligence class	30
3. Spatial Intelligence class	31
4. The Bodily-Kinesthetic Intelligence class	33
5. The Musical/ Rhythmic Intelligence class.....	34
6. The Interpersonal Intelligence class	36
7. The Intrapersonal Intelligence class	38
8. The Naturalist Intelligence class.....	40
9. Existential Intelligence class.....	41

1.4. 9. The Virtues of Multiple Intelligences	42
1.4.10. Gardner’s Theory and Emotional Intelligence	44
Conclusion	45
 Chapter Two: Classroom Practices of an Emotionally Intelligent Teacher	
Introduction	46
2.1. Emotional Classroom Environment	47
2.2. Social and Emotional Teaching/ Learning.....	51
2.3. Momentousness and Virtues of Emotional Intelligence in the Classroom.....	52
2.4. Emotional features of an Effective Teacher	54
2.4.1. Caring.....	55
2.4.2. Fairness and Respect.....	56
2.4.3. Social Interactions with Students.....	57
2.4.4. Promoting Enthusiasm and Motivating Learning	59
2.4.5. Teacher’s Attitude Toward the Teaching Profession	61
2.4.6. Reflective Practice	62
2.4.7. Teachers’ Leadership and Mentoring	64
2.5. Teachers’ Emotional Intelligence Preventers.....	65
2.5.1. Pedagogical Deterrents.....	65
2.5.1.1. Poor Classroom Environment	65
2.5.1.2. Unavailability of Emotion-based Curricula and Syllabi	69
2.5.1.3. Absence or Defective Teachers’ Training and Education.....	69
2.5.1.4. Overcrowded classes	70

2.5.2. Psychological Deterrents: Burnout, Emotional Exhaustion.....	72
2.6. Teachers' Emotional Education and Development	75
Conclusion	77

Chapter Three: Gender- Based Emotional Intelligence

Introduction.....	78
3.1. Men's Versus Women's Emotions	78
3.1.1. Self-awareness	79
3.1.2. Motivation	81
3.1.3. Self-regulation.....	85
3.1.4. Empathy	87
3.1.5. Social Skills	91
3.2. Reasons for Gender- related differences	95
3.2.4. Neuro- biological Reasons	96
3.3.2. Psychological Reasons.....	97
3.2.5. Social Reasons	99
Conclusion	107

Chapter Four: Research Design and Procedure

Introduction.....	109
4.1. Population Sampling.....	109
4.2. Data Collection Instruments	110
4.2.1. Description of the Questionnaires.....	111
4.2.1.1. Teachers' Questionnaire.....	111

4.2.1.2. Pupils' Questionnaire	114
4.2.1.3. Inspector's Questionnaire.....	116
4.2. 2. Description of the Observation Checklist	116
4.2. 3. Description of the Inspectors' Reports	119
4. 3. Procedures of Data Collection	120
4. 3. 1. Administring the Teachers' Questionnaire	120
4. 3. 2. Administring the Inspectors' Questionnaire	121
4. 3. 3. Administring the Pupils' Questionnaires	121
4. 3. 4. Observing Classes	122
a- Description of the schools	122
b- Observation Procedure	123
4. 3. 5. Collecting Data from the Inspectors' Reports	124
4.4. Procedures of Data Analysis	125
4.4.1. Procedure of Analysis of Teachers' Questionnaire Data.....	125
4.4.2. Procedure of Analysis of Pupils' Questionnaires Data.....	126
4.4.3. Procedure of Analysis of Obsevation Checklist Data.....	127
4.4.4. Procedure of Analysis of Inspectors' Questionnaire Data.....	128
4.4.5. Procedure of Analysis of Inspectors' Reports Data.....	129
4.4.6. Dealing with Missing Data Analysis	129
Conclusion	129
 Chapter Five: Presentation and Analysis of the Results	
Introduction.....	131

5.1. Analysis of Teachers' Questionnaire Responses	131
5.1.1. Section A: Responses to Questions on Teachers' Gender	131
5.1.2. Section B: Responses to Four Open Questions	132
5.1.3. Section C: Responses to Questions on Awareness of EI	134
5.1.4. Section D: Responses to Questions on Teachers' Emotional Practices	137
5.1.5. Analysis of Teachers' Further Comments in the Teachers' Questionnaire	145
5.2. Analysis of Pupils' Questionnaire Responses	146
5.2.1. Section A.....	146
5.2.2. Section B.....	157
5.3. Analysis of the Classroom Observation Checklist	169
5.3.1. Section A of the Checklist	169
5.3.2. Section B of the Checklist	170
5.4. Analysis of the Inspectors' Questionnaire Responses	173
5.5. Analysis of Inspectors' Reports	175
Conclusion	176

Chapter Six: Discussion and Interpretation of Research Findings

Introduction.....	178
6.1. Awareness of Emotional Intelligence as a Way of Improving Teaching Practices	179
• Motivation and Job Satisfaction	179
• Professional Training.....	183
6. 2. Emotional Practices in the Language Classroom	184

• Physical and Emotional Environment of the Classroom	184
• Humour and Classroom Scanning.....	193
• Extrinsic Motivation: Praise , Reward and Punishment	194
• Fairness and Equity.....	197
• Learners as Becoming, not Being	198
• Social Interaction.....	198
• Individual Work.....	200
• Requests for clarification.....	201
• Teacher Comprehensible Input	201
• Responding to Learners’s Problems.....	202
• Close Teacher-Learner Relationship.....	203
• Body/Non-Verbal Language.....	204
6. 3. Teachers’ Emotional Practices Related to Gender.....	205
6. 3. 1. Gender-related Emotional Practices from the Teachers’ Perspective.....	205
• Humour and Emotional/Interpersonal Skills.....	205
• Classroom Scanning.....	206
6. 3. 2. Gender-related Teachers Emotional Practices from the Pupils’ Perspective	208
6. 3. 3. Gender-related Emotional Practices from the Researcher’s Perspective.....	213
6. 3. 4. Gender-related Emotional Practices from the Inspectors’ Perspective.....	213
6. 4. Limitations.....	216

6. 5. Conclusion and Recommendations.....	217
General Conclusion.....	219
References	224
Glossary	311
Appendixes	317
Appendix A: Teachers’ Practices from their Own Perspective.....	317
Appendix B: Teachers’ Classroom Practices according to Inspectors’ Reports.....	318
Appendix C: Teachers’ Questionnaire	319
Appendix D: Pupils’ Questionnaire.....	324
Appendix E: Pupils’ Questionnaire in Arabic.....	327
Appendix F: Inspectors’ Questionnaire.....	330
Appendix G: Allen’s (2014) Emotional intelligence classroom checklist	332
Appendix H: Allen’s (2014) Adapted Emotional intelligence classroom checklist	341
Appendix I: Inspectors’ Report.....	349
Appendix J: Marshall’s Teacher Evaluation Rubrics.....	352
Appendix K: Academy’s Authorisation.....	356
Abstract in Arabic.....	357

List of Abbreviations

ADD-H: Attention Deficit Disorder-Hyperkinesis

ALS: Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis

ASHRAE: American Society of Heating, Refrigerating and Air-Conditioning Engineers

CBC: Classroom Behavioural Climate.

CIBSE: Chartered Institution of Building Services Engineers.

CS: Conditioned Stimulus

ECEC: Early Childhood Education and Care

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

EI: Emotional Intelligence

E/S: Emotional and Social

ESL: English as Second Language

GBV: Gender-based Violence

IAQ: Indoor Air Quality

ICT: Information and Communication Technology

IH: Input Hypothesis

IPA: Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis

IQ: Intelligence Quotient

LAD: Language Acquisition Device

MI: Multiple Intelligence

MNS: Mirror-Neuron System

MRI: Magnetic Resonance Imaging

MRS: Magnetic Resonance Scans

NS: Neutral Stimulus.

OAEC: Owner, Architecture, Engineering and Construction

OECD: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

PFC: Prefrontal Cortex

SBS: Sick Building Syndrome

SEC: Social and Emotional Competence

SEL: Socio- emotional Learning

STEM: Scientific, Technology, Engineering, Mathematics

TPJ: Temporal-Parietal Junction

UR: Unconditioned Response

US: Unconditioned Stimulus

US: United States

WWI: First World War.

List of Figures

Figure 01: Conferences and Workshops Teachers' Attendance.....	135
Figure 02: Gender- based Teachers' classroom practices according to the inspectors' reports.	175

List of Tables

Table 01: Teachers' distribution in terms of their gender.....	132
Table 02: The atmosphere created by the teachers in the classroom.....	137
Table 03: Frequency of the use of humour by the teachers in the classroom.....	138
Table 04: Frequency of the classroom scanning by the teachers.....	139
Table 05: Impact of the teachers' comments on the pupils.	140
Table 06: Comments about a good work that the teachers make.	140
Table 07: Type of praise that the teachers use.....	141
Table 08: Methods of praise that the teachers use to encourage their pupils.	142
Table 09: Methods of correction that the teachers use when dealing with inappropriate behaviour.	143
Table 10: Form of detention used by the teachers.	144
Table 11: The way teachers see their pupils.	144
Table 12: pupils' distribution in terms of school year of study.....	147
Table 13: Teachers distribution in terms of gender according to the pupils.	147
Table 14: Type of language used by the teachers when upset.....	148
Table 15: Pupils' feelings when they get with their teachers in the classroom.....	149
Table 16: Teachers' behaviours that make pupils feel safe, as defined by Stronge 2007.....	150
Table 17: Teachers' behaviours that make pupils feel threatened.....	152
Table 18: Teachers' positive behaviours that make the learners feel safe.	153
Table 19: Teachers' negative behaviours that make the learners feel threatened	156
Table 20: Pupils' answers about the use of motivating words by their teachers.	158
Table 21: Frequency of individual work given by the teachers.....	159
Table 22: Frequency of pair work given by the teachers.....	160
Table 23: Frequency of group work given by the teachers.	161
Table 24: Teachers' approval about students' requests for clarification.....	162
Table 25: Comprehensibility of the Teachers' Input.	163
Table 26: Teachers' listening and understanding of the pupils' problems	

happening inside the classroom.	164
Table 27: Teachers’ listening and understanding of the pupils’ problems happening outside the classroom.	165
Table 28: Kind of relationship that teachers build with their pupils.	166
Table 29: The use of voice tones and body language by the teachers.	166
Table 30: Frequency of voice tone and body language used by the teachers.....	167
Table 31: Teachers’ fairness from the pupils’ perspective.	168
Table 32: Teachers’ social communication (smiles and jokes) with their pupils.	169
Table33: Physical Environment of the Classroom.	170
Table 34: Teachers’ emotional Classroom Practices according to the researcher’s observation.	171
Table 35: Gender- based teachers’ emotional classroom Practices from inspectors’ perspective	174

General Introduction

General Introduction

1. Background

A significant number of academicians and prominent psychologists have long been intrigued by the subject of human intelligence, which has been defined as multifaceted potentiality and skill that encompasses reasoning, problem solving, learning from experience, and comprehending surroundings. In others words, it refers to the differences in the capacity to learn, to integrate into society, and to conform to current social norms. There are at least two distinct categories of intelligence: cognitive intelligence (CI) and emotional intelligence (EI). Cognitive intelligence encompasses intellectual capabilities such as language, reasoning, attention, and problem-solving. It has been of paramount importance for centuries, as it was considered to be the key to a successful existence. Contemporary educationists and thinkers such as Descartes have implemented this belief in numerous ways, which evolved from Plato's influential theory founded on reason. Conversely, emotional intelligence is defined as the capacity to be aware of and effectively manage the emotions and thoughts of oneself and others. The concept of emotional intelligence is significantly influenced by Aristotle, who contested Plato's theory and maintained that humans are composed of both emotion and reason. Emotions are purported to influence our daily behaviours, decisions, attitudes, and beliefs. For example, positive emotions reinforce positive emotions, while negative emotions are as potent as a magnet that draws in negative thoughts, which exacerbate the situation. These negative emotions are said to be governed by high stress hormones secretion, including cortisol and adrenaline, by the brain.

A few decades ago, the concept of emotional intelligence emerged as a pervasive and compelling concept. Since then, it has been the subject of research for a significant number of scholars from a variety of disciplines. Mayer and Salovey introduced the concept of emotional intelligence in 1990, drawing inspiration from Gardner's (1983)

intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences. Immediately following the publication of Goleman's book on Emotional Intelligence in 1995, it garnered increased attention and consideration. The postmodern era has shown that emotions have a substantial impact on the cognitive faculties of individuals, contrary to the traditional belief that the intelligence quotient (IQ) has a powerful impact on their success. That is to say, individuals tend to perform better in both school and society when they are emotionally intelligent. In the 21st century, the process of teaching as a multidimensional and multifaceted endeavour appears to be becoming increasingly complex and demanding. Teachers are being held more accountable for each and every practice they engage in in the classroom, regardless of whether it is professional or emotive. They are obligated to maintain a high level of knowledge and awareness regarding the highest teaching standards, as well as to maintain their academic and professional skills. In contrast to the past, when a significant number of individuals, including scholars, perceived teaching as a mere cognitive operation, a burgeoning corpus of literature has demonstrated that it is primarily an emotional process. Academicians are currently inclined to abandon the concept of "cognition" in favour of "emotion." It has been reported that an emotional classroom environment is a place that inspires, makes a difference, alters lives, and motivates learners to achieve success both inside and outside the classroom. Additionally, teachers are perceived as trustworthy in terms of the methods and approaches they employ in an emotional classroom environment. A teacher who is emotionally intelligent may possess a variety of characteristics; however, the most commonly recognized characteristics include respect, impartiality, compassion, social interactions with learners, the promotion of enthusiasm and learning, the teacher's attitude toward the teaching profession, and reflective practices. The latter are addressed in the second chapter of Part one. The emotional traits of teachers are typically influenced by a variety of inhibitory factors, including the following: 1) an insufficient classroom physical environment, which includes a high or low temperature, a lack of air, dirt, and light, and a high number of learners; 2) syllabi that are incompatible with the needs of the learners; and 3) a lack of emotional education and development for teachers. Emotional exhaustion, which is technically referred to as "burnout," is the predominant outcome of these inhibitory

factors. Burnout has been examined to determine which demographic is more susceptible to the emotional exhaustion that is a cause for concern among researchers from various field of interest. Subsequent chapters will address these elements in the context of emotional intelligence.

2. Study Context, Research Problem and Research Questions

Notwithstanding the attempts to revamp and upgrade the quality of teaching which should be not only ‘pedagogical’ but also ‘ethical’ (Algerian Ministry of National Education, 2015), teachers’ emotional intelligence in the Algerian national education system is still left behind- a fact that jeopardizes the advancement of the teaching of English nationwide. Seemingly, Algerian Middle school teachers of English are more concerned with the improvement of their professional classroom practices than with their emotional practices (Iddou, 2018); and as in any developing country, many of them teach in exasperating working conditions and still struggle to deal with a set of challenging factors: 1) Inappropriate physical environment, including dirty classroom floors and walls, absence of decoration, inadequate painting and colours, poor equipment and lighting, noise, and insufficient or bad ventilation; 2) Classroom behavioural climate which usually engenders disruptive behaviours that sometimes lead to violence among the learners or/ and from the learners to the teachers or from the teachers to the learners; 3) A lack of emotional training and education among teachers, which hinders their ability to create a positive classroom environment, manage students emotionally and fairly, communicate effectively, listen to their problems both inside and outside the classroom, motivate them, and handle distressing situations. 4) Large classes, which are usually due to insufficient infrastructure and that make the teachers ineffective and unable to respond to all the learners’ needs and to appropriately manage their classes in terms of time and students’ behaviour; 5) Curricula and syllabuses that surpass the intellect of the learners and do not align with their needs; 6) The absence of autonomy that prevents teachers from fulfilling their duties in the manner that they believe is most conducive to their objectives makes them feel bored and exhausted. These unfavorable working conditions tend to impede teachers from performing their classroom practices in the best way possible, and

learners from attaining the wished for objectives which we believe should be both cognitive and emotional. A teaching environment that lacks emotional traits, principally on the part of the teachers, usually engenders troublesome learners' behaviour. This disrupted environment usually leads to conflicts between the teachers and the learners. Given these circumstances, the aim of this research is to examine the emotional performance of middle school English teachers in their classrooms.

The current study is conducted in the educational context of middle school, with school teachers, learners and school inspectors. Middle school is taken as a case study, because middle school learners are at the age where they are more vulnerable and in need of special support, care and protection which are not always provided in the middle school environment. A number of middle school pupils drop out of their studies even before they take the "Brevet d'Enseignement Moyen" (BEM), because of lack of understanding on the part of school teachers, and of the school in general . We believe that emotional intelligence could help teachers provide not only cognitive but also emotional support to learners. This research work attempts to inquire into these issues and seeks to answer the following three research questions:

RQ1: To what extent are middle school teachers of English aware of emotional intelligence as a way to improve their teaching?

This research question seeks to investigate whether middle school teachers of English are aware of emotional development as an approach to enhance their teaching

RQ2: To what extent are middle school teachers of English emotionally intelligent in their classroom practices?

This research question explores the degree to which they are emotionally intelligent in their daily classroom practices,

RQ3: To what extent do their emotional practices differ relative to gender?

This research question seeks to examine whether or not gender affects their emotional classroom practices, as it is commonly believed that female and male teachers differ in their approach to EI. Though the emotional dimension is seen as a

core and essence of successful teaching/ learning, it has received little attention in Algeria and is worth investigating.

3. Significance of the Study

As the area of teachers' emotional practices seems to be under researched in Algeria, we believe it is worth investigating. Emotional intelligence is claimed to be among the momentous factors that determine the success or failure of teaching and learning processes. This study is worth conducting because it intends to examine whether middle school teachers of English are aware of their emotional development, whether they behave emotionally in their classrooms practices and how their gender affects their teaching practices. Furthermore, it is significant since it is one of the scant studies, if not the first study that sheds light on Algerian middle school English teachers' emotional classroom practices and encourages teachers to promote their emotional intelligence in order to foster success in learners, and cope with stressful situations to avoid emotional exhaustion.

4. Methodology

The study at hand is descriptive and exploratory, based on a mixed methods research design that is thought to fit best triangulation. It was carried out in three middle schools in the Wilaya of Chlef (the western region of Algeria). To obtain reliable answers to our research questions, three research instruments have been used for data collection: 1) questionnaires addressed to middle school teachers, inspectors and pupils; 2) observation of the teachers in their classrooms, using a checklist based on the emotional intelligence checklist designed by Allen (2014); 3) official inspectors' reports, based on Marshall (2009)'s teacher evaluation rubrics, that we obtained from the Education Academy of Chlef. These reports were used to scrutinize the best way possible teachers' emotional classroom practices, as the restricted number of six teachers that we dealt with was considered insufficient for this research work.

To make this research work as much valid and reliable as possible, we resorted to a variety of approaches and techniques for the data analysis that fits best mixed methods design. For the quantitative method used to analyse teachers' and pupils' questionnaire

data, we used statistical analysis and interpretation based on a range of tools including tabulations, pies and bar charts. Moreover, the frequency of the teachers' practices during our observation sessions were calculated by means of 'mode' as suggested by Hayes, 2022). To analyse gender-based discrepancies in both emotional intelligence classroom checklist and inspectors' questionnaire, we resorted to the 'mean' as a statistical measure. Finally, in the analysis of inspectors' reports, the researcher used the content analysis approach, where the qualitative data were transformed into quantitative data. As for the missing data that have been encountered during the analysis, we had recourse to the listwise deletion approach that suggests analysing only the cases with complete data. A detailed description of the research design and procedure is provided in Chapter four of this thesis.

Like any other research, conducting this scientific inquiry was not without its constraints and issues. In addition to the short time allotted to the pupils to answer the questionnaires and the short amount of time devoted to the observation of the teachers' classroom practices, the major issue faced during our investigation was the COVID-19 pandemic that interrupted our observation sessions for many months and inflicted highly rigid sanitary measures, essentially social distancing which prevented us from dealing with as many teachers as possible, and, therefore, restricted our research to only six English teachers. Consequently, that may have interfered with the results.

5. Structure of the Thesis

This research work comprises a general introduction, a general conclusion and two parts. The first part deals with the theoretical background, and contains three chapters on literature review; the second part tackles the empirical study, and embraces three chapters. In Part one, the first chapter discusses the concept of emotional intelligence and the role of learning theories in its emergence. It also sheds light on Gardner's Multiple Intelligence Theory that provides an interesting discussion of intelligence and corrects the classical standpoint. In Part Two, Chapter two provides an overview on classroom practices of emotionally intelligent teachers and the factors that interfere with teaching/learning process. Chapter three discusses how women and men strikingly diverge in matters of emotion, and demonstrates the components that make

General Introduction

the discrepancies take place. Chapter four in part two describes the research methodology used in this study, including a detailed description of sampling techniques, instrument development and data collection procedures and data analysis. Chapter five is devoted to data analysis and presentation of the results of the research. Chapter six comprises the answers to the research questions and a discussion of the findings. Also, some recommendations are made to decision-makers and teachers. A general conclusion ends the research study. It summarizes the main findings of the study and offers a set of recommendations addressed to stakeholders in general.

Chapter One

Chapter One

Emotional Intelligence and the Learning Process

Introduction

A great deal of attention is currently being paid to emotional intelligence and its key role in moulding teaching and learning of a good quality. A considerable body of literature shows that teaching with positive emotions makes the learners feel secure and free from anxiety and fear, and, therefore, raises the likelihood of effective learning.

This chapter is meant to shed light on ‘emotional intelligence’ in relation to the learning process. It includes four sections. Section 1.1. deals with the nature of emotions. Section 1.2. seeks to explain how emotions are neurone-based. Section 1.3. is devoted to emotional intelligence-related studies. Section 1.4. sheds light on learning theories in relation to emotional intelligence, including Aristotle philosophy of learning, Behaviourist and Cognitive/ Social Constructivist Theories of learning, and, finally, Gardner’s Multiple Intelligences Theory.

1.1. Nature of Emotions

‘Emotion’ is a concept that goes back to a long distant past; it came into existence more precisely in the time of the philosopher Aristotle who, contrary to Plato, highlighted the significance of emotions, believing in the idea of man being made of rational (reason) and irrational (emotions) parts (Yazici, 2015). According to Frevert and Dixon (2014 p. 2) “Emotions are often regarded as something very basic, and essentially human.” They added “...according to psychologists, the emotional experiences we have in our first years are crucial for our whole life balance and for our subsequent relationships”. Bibri (2015) defined emotions as “...a complex, multidimensional experience of an individual’s state of mind triggered by both

external influences as well as internal changes” (p. 405). For many decades researchers took this issue for granted or left it behind, focusing more on other aspects of human beings like the cognitive one. Only recently, findings of a higher rate in the neuroscientific area have made the hidden neurological world come to the surface, and confirmed the role of emotions in the learning/teaching process. Mortiboys (2005) believes that teaching is much more than being expert in the subject and knowing learning and teaching methods or teacher’s pedagogy. It is also teaching emotionally. Emotion is claimed to be one of the most crucial components of good teaching and the major role to be performed by the teachers, the sole actors that can render the teaching scene enjoyable and learning environment comforting. However, teachers have typically been seen to be skillful in their teaching practices but unaware of the emotional aspect of the teaching/ learning process (Motiboys, 2005), as the present study will demonstrate.

1.2. Emotions are Neurone-Based

One would not have a full understanding of emotions without discussing the organ responsible for them. Laboratory experiments demonstrated that the brain is the organ “which controls the emotions and the impetus for social interactions, and the last organ of the body to mature anatomically” (Taylor & MacKenney, 2008 p. 15). As a matter of fact, research in neuroscience allowed to have a clearer idea about the complex functions of the brain one of which is ‘emotional regulation’. It has been discovered through advanced studies with sophisticated tools that damage at the prefrontal cortex (PFC) engenders some behavioural disorders, the fact that makes the individuals emotionally unable to adapt to their environment. Driscoll (2009), Davidson (2000) and Machado & Bachevalier (2003) contended that being an emotionally regulated and balanced individual augments the experience of positive emotions while restricting the impact of negative emotions helps to get acclimatised to one’s surroundings; however, emotional dysregulation has been regarded as a sign of psychopathology. Studies conducted by Driscoll (2009 p. 1-2) suggest that “damage involving certain PFC regions can disrupt the ability to effectively regulate emotion”. Some years before, the neurologist Damasio and her colleagues (1994) carried out an investigation on the

exhumed skull of Phineas Gage who had a dreadful accident at work in 1848 and died in 1861. Before the accident, where an iron bar damaged the frontal part of his brain, Phineas Gage had been known for his good behaviour, energy, intelligence and significant productivity at work. After the accident, abnormality in this patient's behaviour was noticed including fitfulness, irreverence and grotesque profanity. The aforementioned investigation, based on photographs and computer manipulation obtained from magnetic resonance scans (MRS) of Gage's brain, led Damasio and her colleagues to the conclusion that damage at the prefrontal lobe was the origin of the deviation and strangeness of Gage's behaviour (Damasio, 1995). Advanced research like that conducted by Ragozzino (2007) also revealed the contribution of the orbitofrontal cortex to behavioural flexibility. Consistent with these results, a study carried out by Meier et al. (2010) evidenced the association between behavioural and cognitive impairments and orbitomedial prefrontal cortex in a typical group of patients with Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis (ALS). Similarly, Brower and Price (2001) who ran an experiment on criminal and violent individuals found a link between the frontal lobe lesion and the aggressive and antisocial behaviour.

1.3. Studies on Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence is a modern approach emerged as an upheaval against the classical and traditional perspectives and beliefs purely based on reason and cognition. It has been defined by Goleman (1995) as "the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships" (quoted in Mortiboys, 2005 p. 7). This concept was first introduced by Mayer and Salovey in 1990 following Gardner's (1983) intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence. They defined it as "the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action" (Mayer & Salovey 1990, p. 189). Emotional intelligence became more popular after the release of Goleman's book (1995) on Emotional Intelligence that suggests the importance of emotional intelligence in our personal and professional lives. Consistent with Goleman, Lynn (2005, p. 37) views emotional intelligence as

“channeling our emotions in a fashion that works to our advantage.” Contrary to those who believe that emotional intelligence refers to social skills, Lynn (2005) sees that the latter (social skills) are just a small piece of the whole; in other words, individuals’ emotional intelligence drives and determines the way they deal with the external world. These views somehow diverge from the early definitions of emotions as a neurological phenomenon, bringing a social dimension to them.

Emotional intelligence was also split into two types: trait EI and ability EI. Trait EI was identified by Pérez et al. (2005) as a non-cognitive ability which allows an individual to regulate his/her mood, recognize and make the most of emotions, and utilize social skills, and is measured by self-report. Ability EI is the ability of an individual to understand, generate, and manage emotions. Ability EI is measured using a performance measure which assesses the capacity of an individual to perceive emotions in him/ herself, others, and the environment (DeBusk, 2008).

1.4. Learning Theories in Relation to Emotional Intelligence

History has witnessed and is still witnessing debates on the way human beings learn their language. This fundamental issue traces its roots back to the Greek era, and the divergent visions, nature- nurture, which arose since that time. Nature supports the innate capacity and natural predisposition to learn a language; but nurture supports the social environment that helps individuals to learn a language. Discussions and debates became more intense, and acute in the twentieth century and led to the opposition between the behaviourists led by B. F. Skinner and the nativists led by Noam Chomsky. These debates gave rise to the theories that are discussed below.

Education owes much to the philosophers and thinkers who contributed significantly to the understanding of the learning process by means of the theories and approaches they set. According to the literature, theories and approaches can be split into two: traditional and contemporary. Traditional theories are the ones set by ancient philosophers such as Plato and Aristotle who are still considered as an extremely valuable inspiration. In this regard, Jowett (1885, p. xii) claimed: “...Their thoughts have become a part of our thoughts, and enter imperceptibly into the speculations of

modern writers on the same subjects, but with a difference”. On the other hand, Western contemporary theories such as behaviourism, cognitivism and socio-constructivism still influenced by great ancient philosophers, were set by modern thinkers, such as Skinner and Watson, Piaget and Vygotsky who introduced new perspectives on the learning process based on experiments and research undertaken in laboratories and classrooms to come to a better understanding of the way learners get access to successful learning. The next section examines philosophies and theories of learning and discusses the extent to which these philosophies and theories have accounted for emotional intelligence in their definition of learning.

1.4.1. Aristotle’s Philosophy of Learning

Unlike Plato who exclusively dealt with the rational side of man, and therefore believed that reason and emotion are antagonist, Aristotle’s divergent vision on human nature was wider and more developed to entail the emotional side of man. Aristotle believed man to be a sort of fusion of reason and emotions. For him, virtues, including moral and emotional, can be learned through doing. In this regard, and according to McKeon (1941, p. 956), Aristotle, referring to the learning of virtue, suggests that most people, instead of doing virtuous acts, have recourse to discussing virtue, “take refuge in theory...and in so doing they act like invalids who listen carefully to what the doctor says, but entirely neglect to carry out his prescriptions” (quoted in Brockbank & Mc Gill, 2007, p. 19). According to the literature, Aristotle’s beliefs had been so widely spread that they gave birth to many well-known trends, two of which are Character Education and Social and Emotional Learning. According to Kristjánsson (2007), Character Education trend spread throughout the educational field mainly in the United States, but had echoes in Europe. The advocates of this trend stressed the importance of inculcating a set of basic virtues of action and reaction that must be transmitted through a wide range of methods especially at early stages. For them, the transmission of these virtues must take place, to a certain degree, by means of direct habituation in order to become a part of learners’ personalities. Social and Emotional trend, which is gaining great attention, mainly in the United States, concerns social and emotional learning. This trend, developed into what is called nowadays ‘emotional

intelligence’, strengthened the Aristotelian point that virtue is made of emotion and action. In other words, in order for a person to be thoroughly upstanding, they have to “... not only act, but also react, properly” (Kristjánsson, 2007, p. 03).

1.4.2. Behaviourist Theory of Learning

Behaviourists see learning as a relatively long- lasting change in discernible behaviour that results from experience (Moreno, 2010), and is the acquisition of new behaviour (Pritchard, 2008). Behaviourism is based on the principle that any behaviour is an absolute reaction to a given action, and concerned only with the observable and measurable processes, neglecting all the mental and cognitive processes which are, of course, unobservable. From a neurological perspective, any action-reaction relationship, technically termed stimulus-response relationship, is a result of the reinforcement of the neural pathways in the brain. This strengthening is made through a repeated learning until the learner, be it an animal or human, makes a correct association between stimulus and response. This method of learning is called ‘conditioning’, and divided into two types: Classical Conditioning and Operant Conditioning, as we briefly describe below.

1.4.2.1. Classical Conditioning

The Classical Conditioning experiment was first conducted by the Russian scientist Ivan Pavlov on dogs. The salivation of the dog at the presented food triggered his curiosity and made him examine the process closely. The conditioning experiment involved four phases. In the first phase, Pavlov observed the dog salivating when it saw the food. The food here is considered to be unconditioned stimulus (US), and salivation is the unconditioned response (UR). In the second phase, Pavlov introduced a ringing bell to the dog. The latter did not show any response; the bell here is a neutral stimulus (NS). In the next phase the dog was repeatedly presented the food accompanied by the bell ringing, which made the dog salivate. After many experiences, and in the fourth phase, the bell alone or any other similar instrument producing a sound made the dog automatically salivate. In this phase, the bell became conditioned stimulus (CS). This implies that the dog associated the bell sound with the

food. Therefore, conditioning took place, and a new behaviour had successfully been learned. Following Pavlov, the American psychologist John B. Watson, who is said to have invented the word 'behaviourism', applied the experiment to humans. He observed the behaviour of a baby when presented a monkey, then a dog, after that a rabbit and finally a white lab rat that the baby liked the most. At the very beginning of the experiment, the baby was calm, and even expressed his inclination and desire to play with the rat. Then, after many experiences, Watson accompanied the rat by a loud noise that made the baby cry and express fear. By so doing, the baby was conditioned to fear the rat even when the latter was not accompanied by any noise. Like Pavlov's dog response, the baby's panic and agitation was generalised to all the stimuli that looked like the white rat, such as a dog, rabbit and furry objects. According to Pitchard (2008, p. 6-7), Pavlov claimed that stimulus-response connection is followed by (1) acquisition which refers to the initial learning of the conditioned response; (2) extinction that is used to describe the disappearance of the conditioned response; (3) generalisation which refers to the fact that the subject (animal or human) may also respond to similar stimuli without further training; and (4) discrimination that refers to the fact that the subject learns to produce a conditioned response to one stimulus but not to another similar stimulus.

1.4.2.2. Operant Conditioning

Contrary to Classical Conditioning, Operant Conditioning refers to the volitional behaviour that the individual, be it an animal or man, displays in order to be rewarded. According to Monero (2010), Skinner (1953) sees operant conditioning as learning in which individual's actions occur as the result of a consequence. Operant conditioning learning, also called instrumental learning, is found to be the major sort of behaviourist learning, and more flexible in its nature than classical conditioning, therefore potentially more powerful. It consists of strengthening an act by remunerating it (Pritchard, 2008). In 1913, Thorndike who is considered as the pioneer in the operant conditioning, investigated the way cats behave in order to get food. He placed them in experimental boxes equipped with a bolt, lever, or latch, and put food outside the boxes. When observing the cats, he noticed that the latter tried to get out of the boxes

by pulling the bolt, pressing the lever, or opening the latch. First, they acted randomly and opened the boxes accidentally. After many trials, the cats learned how to open the boxes. After this experiment, Thorndike came to the conclusion that behaviours that are followed by a positive outcome are strengthened and behaviours that are followed by negative outcomes are weakened; this is what he called ‘law of effect’ (Moreno, 2010)

In 1950, Skinner, one of the preeminent names in the field, developed Thorndike’s experiment by using rats and pigeons in his research. He made use of an empty box, called ‘Skinner box’, equipped with a lever and food pellet, in which an animal could get food by pressing the lever. After many experiences, the animals learned to press the lever correctly and more frequently to get their reward (food). Skinner concluded that rewards reinforce behaviour. He claimed that his discoveries can move from rats and pigeons to human case. Therefore, human behaviours are controlled by reinforcements or punishments. The former are used to increase the occurrence of a behaviour; the latter are used to reduce the occurrence of behaviour (Moreno, 2010). Operant Conditioning has therefore four angles that describe the association that the individuals make between the act they perform and what happens as a consequence of their act. They are: positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, positive punishment and negative punishment.

Besides classical conditioning and operant conditioning, Ratner & Gleason (1997) claimed the existence of a third type of learning based on the behaviourist approach called ‘social learning’. As its name indicates, this type of learning occurs through the learners’ imitation of the people they socially interact with, and those they admire. Ratner & Gleason (1997, p. 382) claimed that “Little boys learn to talk like their fathers, and little girls imitate the speech (and other behaviours, of course) of their mothers” (quoted in Trawinski, 2005, p. 10). For Trawinski (2005), learners do not need rewards; the fact of imitating an admired individual successfully is a reward itself.

In spite of its influential power that lasted for a great number of years, the behaviourist approach to learning engendered a strong criticism among linguists, mainly nativists led by Noam Chomsky who, in 1959, fiercely criticized Skinner's (1957) book on 'Verbal Behaviour'. According to Larsen-Freeman & Long, (1991), Chomsky, in response to Skinner, claimed that all human capacities, including the linguistic one, are based on some genetic property. Therefore, human language is a result of the unfolding of genetically determined programs. The fact that children do not reproduce but rather produce sentences that they have never heard before, and the fact that by the age of five they become able to acquire most of their first language-irrespective of their intelligence and the class they belong to- made Chomsky draw the conclusion that human infant must be gifted with a highly advanced innate ability to learn language, that he called Language Acquisition Device (LAD). In addition, Chomsky strongly refuted the idea of the laboratory rats being compared to human infants: the former learn to perform simple and concrete tasks, while the latter learn language which is abstract and complex without direct teaching (Mitchell & Myles, 2004).

Skinner's claim brought into existence another opposite theory called Cognitive Constructivism based on the belief that language learning is a mental process, regarded by the constructivists as "...the result of mental construction, and it takes place when new information is built into and added onto an individual's current structure of knowledge, understanding and skills" (Pritchard, 2008, p. 17).

1.4.3. Behaviourism and Emotional Intelligence

From the behaviourist perspective, learners' emotional reactions can be the response to their teachers' emotional stimulus; in that negative or inadequate teachers' behaviour may certainly make the learners feel insecure and anxious, while positive and friendly teachers' behaviour set the learners' self-confidence, self-esteem and motivation high. A study conducted on Iranian high school teachers disclosed that emotionally intelligent teachers are courteous, altruist and conscientious (Adabifirozjaee, et al., 2014). Thus, positive teachers' behaviour (stimulus) leads to

positive learners' reaction (response) and the opposite is true. In this respect Ming-tak & Wai-shing (2008, p. 64) stated: "Quite often teachers are quick to respond to misbehaviour by verbal intervention and reprimands which can have an adverse effect on student learning and ruin a classroom atmosphere". In the same vein, Moreno (2010, p. 159) contended:

Test anxiety and teacher fear are examples of associating negative emotions to an originally neutral stimulus. When stimuli produce negative emotional responses, they are called aversive stimuli. However, classical conditioning can also operate on positive emotions. When a teacher is associated with something that makes us happy, relaxed, or secure, she will also elicit the same positive feelings. Therefore, an implication for the teaching practice is that teachers should create a classroom environment in which the stimuli (including teacher behaviours) are likely to elicit positive emotional responses.

1.4.4. Cognitive Constructivist Theory of Learning

Cognitive constructivist theory, founded by the Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget, came as a reaction against Skinner's behaviourist theory. Hopkins et al. (2005, p. 49) define constructivism as the philosophical and scientific position that knowledge arises through a process of active construction. They believe that learning is neither an innate process nor is it fulfilled by experience. Cognitive theory lies on the principle that learning as a mental construction happens when the learner moves gradually from simplest to more complex rules of a given language. While observing children and their linguistic development in a longitudinal study, Piaget came to the conclusion that the latter cannot learn and use correctly abstract vocabulary since they are not, cognitively speaking, able to understand abstract words (Trawinski, 2005). Piaget, influenced by his initial field of research as a biologist, related the cognitive development to the biological maturation of the brain. According to Helmore (1969), Piaget's approach is genetic and biological at the same time. In order for his experiments to be effective, with successful results, Piaget avoided scientific methods of research. During his research, and in order to have a better and fuller understanding of the way children think and grow mentally, Piaget used to get closer to them; he

would share activities and play games with them. In this regard Helmore (1969) reports:

...He is trying all the time to get inside the mind of the child in order that he may see the world from the child's standpoint. A much-quoted example of this was the experiments which involved his joining in each child's favourite game on an equal footing with the child, which included such activities as learning how to make a good shot at marbles, how to make a bad shot, and even how to cheat (pp. 2-3).

After a great deal of research conducted on children, Piaget concluded that the latter pass through five stages, where the speed of the movement from the first stage to the final one depends on the intelligence of the children as described below. Thus, intelligent children would be quicker than unintelligent ones. Intelligence was defined by Piaget (1950) as “the state of equilibrium towards which tend all successive adaptations of a sensori-motor and cognitive nature, as well as all assimilatory and accommodatory interactions between the organism and the environment” (quoted in Helmore, 1969, p. 05). For him, intelligence is a sort of adaptation which is an operation of learning from one's environment, and attuning to it. Adaptation encompasses two complementary activities: Assimilation and Accommodation. The former refers to the act of taking in new information and integrating it into one's perception of the world. The latter, refers to the way of modifying one's understanding to adapt to new information (Strickland, 2001). To stress the importance of the environment and its impact on human cognitive development, Keating (2004) added: “In fact, some older children and adults may show characteristics of young children's thinking if they have not had sufficient interaction with the environment or others” (quoted in Moreno, 2010, p. 80). As mentioned above, according to Piaget, children pass through five stages of cognitive development: they start as egocentric but, as time passes by, they end by becoming able to think abstractly and logically (Vidal, 2000).

Like the Behaviourist Theory, in spite of its significant contribution to promote education and teaching and explain how learning takes place, Cognitive Theory represented a set of weaknesses which resulted in serious criticisms at different facets. In terms of learning stages, researchers refuted this principle, and found that Piaget did

not take into account: 1) the fact that the cognitive ability of children can vary according to the contextual support provided to them; 2) the nature of the task; 3) the conceptual domain in which the task occurs; and 4) the child's emotional disposition (Mascolo & Fischer, 2005, p. 51). Contrary to Piaget's claim that middle and junior high school students would be able to think in the abstract, researchers found many students at that age and older were unable to use formal operations in their thinking; and as the notion of stage which did not hold true, experts claimed that the tasks used by Piaget to test children's cognitive development were inappropriate, in that they were not compelling and used objects unfamiliar to the child (Moreno, 2010). Finally, for many researchers, namely social interactionists, Piaget neglected the sociocultural factor, the foremost side of the matter, which plays a crucial role in children development. Led by Vygotsky, social interactionists asserted that the child's functions cannot develop without the help of more capable individuals (parents, teachers or more competent peers).

1.4.5. Socio-Cultural Theory of Learning

As mentioned above, the weaknesses of Piaget's theory gave rise to a new trend that believes in the inevitable powerful effect of the sociocultural side on the development of children. The Vygotskian Socio-cultural Theory states that language learning is social rather than individual since it happens through social interactions (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). Sociocultural theory proposed to consider two types of psychological functions: "natural" functions reflecting the maturational processes in the child's mind and "cultural" functions dependent on the use of symbolic tools available in a given culture (Kazoulin, 2000). What made Vygotsky convinced of the importance of social interaction in the cognitive development of the individuals was the Socratic instructional method, a question-and-answer technique, used by his tutors when he was a boy, and his experience he acquired as a teacher (Moreno, 2010). Sociocultural theory gave a significant stimulus to a great deal of research on socialization, a term that has been defined by Brim & Wheeler (1966, p. 1) as "the process by which persons acquire the knowledge, skills and dispositions that make them more or less able members of a society" (Quoted in Popkewitz, 1976, p. 2). The

function of socialization, according to them, "is to transform the human raw material of society into good working members." (Quoted in Popkewitz, 1976, pp. 2-3). According to Brim and Wheeler (1966, pp. 1- 5), socialization concerns how people come to accept their assigned roles in society; (1) how an individual acquires understandings of the recognized statuses in society; that is, learns the names so as to locate oneself and others in the social structures; and (2) how individuals learn role prescriptions and role behavior and its consistent attitudes and emotions (Cited in Popkewitz, 1976, p. 4). Vygotsky's philosophy involves a large number of key ideas, some of which are translated and interpreted by his followers such as ZPD, Zone of Proximal Development refers to Vygotsky's belief that in order for acquisition/learning to take place, language acquirer/ learner should be assisted by more capable people, be they parents, teachers or more competent peers. That is, these more capable people help the learners to develop their understanding of the new ideas. As reported by Briner (1999), Zone of Proximal Development indicates the area of inquiry for which the student is ready to deal with cognitive matters, but still needs to socially interact with the more skillful or qualified people around him, be they partners or mentors, so they get the fullest meaning of the notion (Cited in Burch, 2007, pp. 13-14). On the other hand, Egocentric and Inner Speech refers to Vygotskian interpretation of egocentric speech and takes another dimension. Unlike Piaget who claimed the uselessness of egocentric speech, Vygotsky affirmed that egocentric speech plays a crucial role in problem solving by children in that it "...serves mental orientation, conscious understanding, it helps in overcoming difficulties, it is speech for oneself intimately and usefully connected with the child thinking, whose use increases through time" (Vygotsky, 1986, p. 228). Neo-Vygotskian theorists of language acquisition found that the phenomenon of egocentric speech is not confined to children, as Piaget claimed. According to McCafferty (1994), adults too, mainly English as a Second Language (ESL) students were found to use self-regulatory egocentric speech when engaged in a picture-narration task. Being on the same wave length with Vygotsky, he claimed that learners having greater difficulty in communicating in a second language produce more self-regulatory speech than advanced learners. Finally, Mediation, is a process that involves the use of cultural

tools in a socially organised activity. It is thought to be of great importance to the process of learning, in that when a more capable person scaffolds a learner, he/she uses mediational tools. The latter are divided by Vygotsky into two types: psychological tools that can be used to direct the mind and behaviour, and technical tools that are used to bring about changes in other objects.

1.4.6. Social /Cognitive Constructivism and Emotional Intelligence

Vygotsky's belief that learning is more social than individual seems to take over other theories in the literature on emotions. Cognitive development is found to be dependent to a greater extent on the social environment. According to Taylor and MacKenney (2008), Galloway (1982); Newberger, (1997) and Sousa, (1995) contended that a prolific learning environment affords more inclusive brain pathways found to be beneficial for setting a link between meaning and learning experiences. Children are found to be better at making new brain connections than adults, which makes them integrate new experiences at a fast rate (Taylor & MacKenney 2008). This has neurobiologically been explained by the fact that before puberty the brain is more plastic, and new cerebral connections and shapes are allowed. Around the age of puberty, however, lateralization takes place as a result of the loss of plasticity, and the brain becomes specialised for different functions.

The Social environment includes both the physical environment and the emotional environment. The former refers to the way the classrooms are managed and arranged. Well decorated and furnished classes are believed to be more motivating. Gordon (1974), stated that the management of the physical environment is often not taken into account by both teachers and school administrators; consequently, classrooms are equipped in a way that demotivates the learners, and therefore blocks the learning process (Cited in Wai- shing, 2008, p. 48). As for the emotional environment, it refers to the relationships between the teacher and learners and between the learners themselves. It has been reported that good relationships, and collaborative and cooperative works lead to a positive learning environment, and the reverse is true. Research conducted by Sylwester (1994) showed that emotions drive attention then

learning and memory; and this happens because more neural fibers project from the brain's emotional center into the logical/rational center than the reverse. Therefore, emotion tends to determine behaviour more powerfully than rational processes (Taylor & MacKenney 2008). Emotions have been proved to be necessary even in teaching scientific subject contents, those based on a pure logic and reason such as mathematics. A study carried out by Ben-Avie et al. (2003) revealed a positive relationship between students' achievement in mathematics and their social knowledge of themselves and others. The study also suggested a link between their skill in solving mathematical problems and their competence in solving onerous and challenging social problems.

1.4.7. Gardner's Multiple Intelligence Theory

Gardner's (1983) Multiple Intelligence (MI) Theory came as a reaction or an upheaval against the classical perspective and attitudes to the concept of intelligence which "...historically has been both reified and singularized" (Eisner, 2004, p. 31), and has been thought of as being "...set at birth by heredity and could be assessed through tests yielding a quantifiable intelligence quotient or IQ" (Lazear, 1992, p. 08). Gardner's MI was nurtured by Lippmann's (1922) truculent attitudes towards the IQ tests that had been set by Binet- Simon, and developed by Terman (1916) to measure the intelligence of the US Army soldiers during WWI. This test, which scored a large number of soldiers as mentally handicapped, was rejected by many officers for the subjectivity of its questions, and inappropriateness of the contexts where it had been taken (McNutt, 2013). Termans' heredity- based theory and his erratic view on intelligence were subject to severe criticisms. Lippmann, an American journalist, considered Terman not intelligent enough to understand intelligence (McNutt, 2013), and regarded human intelligence as too dynamic, multiplex, dependent on cultural context, and too individual and impressionistic to be measured by means of a list of test questions (Herrnstein & Murray, 1994). In line with Lippmann's assumption, and contrary to the 'g' factor theory or general intelligence perspective, Gardner (2011) criticised the IQ tests for inclination towards fluid intelligence (Gf) at the expense of crystallized intelligence (Gc), and showing little about the testees' future qualities and

capacities; he regards intelligence to be a multi-dimensional aspect that embraces a variety of skills which enable the individual “...to resolve genuine problems or difficulties that he encounters and, when appropriate, to create an effective product” (2011, p.64); he also believes that intelligence “...must entail the potential for finding or creating problems-thereby laying the groundwork for the acquisition of new knowledge” (2011, pp. 64- 65). Gardner holds these skills to be autonomous and developed separately to different degrees. His point of view implies that all humans are intelligent in a manner that individuals are skillful in areas where others are less or not skillful. Gardner made such an assumption on the basis of his observation of his patients whose brain damage affected some of their skills but not all (Fleetham, 2006). As maintained by Baş (2016), Gardner (1993a) suggested that despite the fact that intelligences work independently, in front of complex tasks they work as a consistent whole. Gardner’s MI theory, that was first addressed to psychologists (Baum et al., 2005), contradicts traditional teaching theories based on linguistic and mathematical intelligences (Brualdi Timmins, 1996). This multimodal teaching is not new; it goes far back to the time of Plato who suggested that learning should start as a kind of fun that would finally turn into a natural predisposition and orientation. By the same token, some 18th and 20th centuries philosophers and educators attempted to modernise educational systems, such as Jean Jacques Rousseau, Friedrich Froebel, founder of the modern-day kindergarten, Montessori and John Dewey who respectively asserted that children learn through experiences and the books of life, developed experience-based curriculum all along with playing games, singing songs, gardening, and caring for animals, put in place tactile letters and self-paced material-based instruction system, and viewed the classroom as a miniature representation of a society (Strong, 2009). Gardner’s MI was implemented in education in the late 1980’s (Campbell & Campbell, 1999); and it covers a set of nine (09) distinguishable intelligences, the first eight of which are summarised by Nicholson-Nelson (1998, p. 10- 12) as follows:

1. Verbal-Linguistic Intelligence involves ease in producing language and sensitivity to the nuances, order, and rhythm of words. Students who are strong in verbal-linguistic intelligence love to read, write, and tell stories. They have good memories for names, places, dates, and trivia. Professionals who use this intelligence include

writers, public speakers, teachers, secretaries, business and office managers, comedians, poets, and actors.

2. Math-Logic Intelligence relates to the ability to reason deductively or inductively and to recognize and manipulate abstract patterns and relationships. Students who excel in this intelligence have strong problem-solving and reasoning skills and ask questions in a logical manner. They can also excel in science-related logic and problem-solving. This intelligence can be seen in such people as scientists, bankers, mathematicians, computer programmers, lawyers, and accountants.

3. Spatial-Visual Intelligence includes the ability to create visual-spatial representations of the world and to transfer them mentally or concretely. Students who exhibit spatial intelligence need a mental or physical picture to best understand new information; do well with maps, charts, and diagrams; and like mazes and puzzles. They are strong in drawing, designing, and creating things. Professionals who use this intelligence include graphic artists, cartographers, draftspersons, architects, painters, and sculptors.

4. Musical-Rhythmic Intelligence encompasses sensitivity to the pitch, timbre, and rhythm of sounds as well as responsiveness to the emotional implications of these elements of music. Students who remember melodies or recognize pitch and rhythm exhibit musical intelligence. They enjoy listening to music and are aware of surrounding sounds. This intelligence is seen in such people as singers and songwriters, rock musicians, dancers, composers, and music teachers.

5. Bodily-Kinesthetic Intelligence involves using your body to solve problems, make things, and convey ideas and emotions. Students who are strong in this intelligence are good at physical activities, hand-eye coordination, and have a tendency to move around, touch things, and gesture. Professionals who use this intelligence include actors, athletes, surgeons, mimes, musicians, dancers, and inventors.

6. Interpersonal Intelligence refers to the ability to work effectively with other people and to understand them and recognize their goals, motivations, and intentions.

Students who exhibit this intelligence thrive on cooperative work, have strong leadership skills, and are skilled at organizing, communicating, mediating, and negotiating. This intelligence relates to a person's ability to understand other people but should not encourage overemphasis on cooperative learning activities and is not always found in extroverts. In fact, some extroverts are weak in this area as they talk over, around, and alongside others on a regular basis. This intelligence is usually seen in such people as teachers, therapists, salespeople, counsellors, politicians, religious leaders, and business executives.

7. Intrapersonal Intelligence entails the ability to understand one's own emotions, goals, and intentions. Students strong in intrapersonal intelligence have a strong sense of self, are confident, and can enjoy working alone. They have good instincts about their strengths and abilities. This intelligence is difficult to observe. The only way to identify it may be by watching students and analyzing their work habits and products. Also, it's important to be careful not to automatically label students who enjoy working alone or who are introverts as being strong in this intelligence. This intelligence is highly developed in such people as philosophers, psychiatrists, religious leaders, and brain researchers.

8. Naturalist Intelligence It includes the capacity to recognize flora and fauna; to make distinctions in the natural world; and to use this ability productively in activities such as hunting, farming, and biological science. Armstrong (2009) explains this intelligence as the ability to see the natural world from a larger perspective—an understanding of how nature interacts with civilization, the symbiotic relationships inherent in nature, and the life cycles of nature. Charles Darwin, John Muir, and E. O. Wilson are examples of people strong in this intelligence. This intelligence is seen in botanists, naturalists, and physicists.

9. Existential Intelligence: is the latest intelligence added by Gardner (2006b). He defines existential intelligence as "...the intelligence of big questions... based on the human proclivity to ponder the most fundamental questions of existence. Why do we live? Why do we die? Where do we come from? What is going to happen to us? What

is love? Why do we make war?"; he continued: "I sometimes say that these are questions that transcend perception; they concern issues that are too big or too small to be perceived by our five principal sensory systems". (2006: 20). McCoog (2010) contended that individuals with existential intelligence have an understanding of their ideas that they use along with their experiences to understand and interpret new ideas (Cited in Al Jaddou, 2018, p. 535). This intelligence may be found in philosophy departments, religious seminaries, or the ateliers of artists. According to Kelly (2020), among the historical figures known for their high existential intelligence are: Socrates who invented 'Socratic method' that involved deeper questions attempting to understand the truth; Buddha who founded Buddhism, a religion that is based on seeking higher truths; Jesus Christ who put forward the belief in God who possesses the eternal truth; and St Augustine who suggested the idea of there being an abstract truth that is higher and more complete than what we witness in the real, imperfect world. We may also add the Prophet Mohamed who spent most of his time in prayer and meditation, and who received his first revelation of the Quran from Allah. He was also attempting to deeply understand the world and seeking higher truths. He may have possessed an exceptionally developed existential intelligence.

It has been suggested that although Gardner could create new intelligences, he preferred to make the latter out of the combination of the nine existing intelligences as long as they are represented as a chemistry set. For instance, instead of giving birth to a new concept such as technological or tool intelligence, he thought it better to combine logical, spatial, and bodily intelligences.

Multiple intelligences seem to vary depending on age and gender. As stated by Beceren (2010), studies conducted on preschool children, aged between 4 and 6 years old, demonstrated that the intelligences these children use the most are Visual-Spatial Intelligence, followed by Bodily-Kinesthetic Intelligence, then Verbal-Linguistic Intelligence, while Musical Intelligence is the least favoured. Teele (1995) found that boys' and girls' preference converge in Visual-Spatial Intelligence. This intelligence is followed by Bodily-Kinesthetic intelligence, then logical-mathematical Intelligence

in boys, whereas it is followed by logical-mathematical Intelligence, then Verbal-Linguistic Intelligence in girls (Cited in Bercen, 2010, p. 2478).

Serin et al. (2009) suggested that male primary school teachers in Lefkosa, Turkey, display inclination for naturalistic multiple-intelligence; whereas female teachers in Izmir have a penchant for spatial intelligence. These research results may be conducive to the conclusion that Multiple Intelligence- related discrepancies between males and females vary depending on contextual evidence or clues such as environment, including culture, and the tools provided. Another investigation conducted by Tirri and Nokelainen (2008) on Finn female and male preadolescents and adults indicated a significant outperformance of older participants over their younger counterparts in Linguistic intelligence. Besides, it reported preadolescents' superiority in Logical- mathematical intelligence, and females' transcendence in Linguistic, Interpersonal and Intrapersonal intelligences. These research findings are consistent with the study carried out by Aydemira and Karalı (2014) who also found Visual intelligence to be the least preferred by all participants, and Musical intelligence the most favoured by female participants. Inconsistent with these research outcomes, Fardad et al (2015's) study revealed males' remarkable outperformance in vocabulary, and the absence of significant relationship between vocabulary knowledge and Linguistic intelligence.

It is noteworthy that these discrepancies are not universal. In Jordan, for instance, a study carried out by Ayasrah and Aljarrah (2020) on university students revealed that their culture, customs and religion are conducive to the non- existence of such differentiations.

The way individuals' multiple intelligences are tested or evaluated is different from that of IQ tests. Tirri and Nokelainen's test (2011), for instance, based on the intelligences presented in Gardner's MI theory, is made of self- evaluation where students answer questionnaires corresponding to their understanding and way of thinking about themselves as learners. According to these investigators, self- evaluation is substantial and worthwhile in that it enhances students' intellectual

growth, it is not financially demanding, and it provides both teachers and students with feedback useful for teaching and learning processes. Above all, and most importantly self-evaluation, as stated by Tirri (1993), is less threatening than any other evaluation done by someone else. Tirri and Nokelainen's (2008, 2011) test contained items that measured students' general self-evaluation and academic self-evaluation in relation to Gardner's nine intelligences: 1) Linguistic intelligence includes 'Academic verbalness' and 'Everyday verbalness'; 2) Logical-mathematic intelligence entails 'Academic problem-solving' and 'Systematic and logical thinking'; 3) Musical intelligence concerns the ability of hearing and producing music; 4) Spatial intelligence embraces 'Visual imaging' and 'Spatial perception'; 5) Bodily-kinesthetic intelligence covers the 'Handyman' component and 'Body coordination'; 6) Interpersonal intelligence concerns the abilities to build social relations; 7) Intrapersonal intelligence comprises 'Self-reflection' and 'Self-knowledge'; 8) Spiritual (existential) intelligence is split, according to Tirri et al. (2006), into 'Awareness sensing', 'Mystery sensing', 'Value sensing' and 'Community sensing'; 9) Environmental intelligence that includes 'Love for nature', 'Nature conservation' and 'Environment-friendly consumer habits'.

It seems clear from these studies that, since its emergence, Multiple Intelligence Theory has become one of the main concerns of researchers from different fields of interest, and specifically in teaching and learning fields. They attempt to understand it better and further it. As classrooms embrace learners with different intelligences, scholars have put forward strategies and practices that can promote multiple intelligences-based teaching in order to fulfil various learners' needs. These multiple intelligence classes are described in the next section.

1.4.8 Multiple Intelligence Classes

Since its emergence, Multiple Intelligence Theory has become one of the main concerns of researchers from different fields of interest in an attempt to understand it better and further it. As classrooms embrace learners with different intelligences, scholars put forward strategies and practices that promote multiple intelligences-based teaching in order to fulfil various learners' needs. Armstrong (2009) and Hoerr et al

(2010), among others, explained how to creatively teach the way that fits best each of these intelligences, including lessons and activities that are summarised as follows:

1. The Verbal-Linguistic Class: In addition to the old-fashioned tools such as textbooks, worksheets, and lectures used to develop the linguistic intelligence, teachers use a plethora of strategies. Storytelling, for instance, through which learners get inspired by the creative imagination of their teachers and their eagerness and enthusiasm to deal with the subject in all sincerity. Brainstorming, on the other hand, consists in giving the learners the opportunity to share all the ideas that cross their minds. And then, to organise these ideas, the teacher writes them on the board or screen or presents them in an outline, a mind- map or a Venn diagram. Finally, without criticizing any of those ideas, the learners are invited to reflect on them and use them in a specific project. Tape Recording is another tool that is said to boost the improvement of the learners' thoughts, in that it helps them use their linguistic abilities to communicate, get information, solve problems and express their feelings. Journal Writing, a forth technique, is the one that keeps the learners engaged in making written records concerning a particular subject. Journal writing can either be private, shared between teachers and learners, or read to the class. It can also include non- linguistic data such as drawings, photos and sketches. Finally, publishing that was traditionally deemed as a way to accomplish a written task. Nowadays, it is seen as a paramount and influential instrument for expressing thoughts and influencing people. This strategy enhances the learners to keep on writing and publish their written works through publishing sources like a class or school newspaper, a city newspaper, or a children's magazine. If linguistic intelligence is efficaciously applied in the classroom, the learner undoubtedly becomes

Good at reading and writing, spells easily, enjoys word games, understands puns, jokes, riddles, tongue-twisters, has well-developed auditory skills, readily incorporates descriptive language, easily remembers written and spoken information, good story teller, uses complex sentencestructure, appreciates the subtleties of grammar and meaning, often enjoys the sounds and rhythms of language, loves to debate issues or give persuasive speeches, able to explain things well (Hoerr et al., 2010, p. 106).

2. The Math-Logic Intelligence Class: One might think that this intelligence is confined only to math and science subjects. In fact, the development of critical thinking urged the implementation of the curriculum that imposed the use of logical-mathematical intelligence in all school subjects, including social sciences and humanities. To further this intelligence, five strategies have been set according to the nature of the subjects. They are:

a) Calculations and Quantifications, this approach fits best subjects such as history and geography. It is used through statistics on, for instance, lives lost in wars and populations of countries. Calculations and Qualifications are also dealt with in literature through literary works that invoke numbers.

b) Classifications and Categorisations, this method can be used in various subject matters such as geography where the learners are asked to list geographical places, then classify them according to their climate (e.g., desert, mountain, plains, or tropical). This strategy may also be applied in science subjects where the teacher names categories related to the state of matter (gas, liquid, solid), for example, then asks the learners to give instances in accordance with each category.

c) Socratic Questioning, this strategy is called after the Greek philosopher Socrates who advanced this way of teaching. It consists in having the teachers partake in the dialogues with their learners and ask them questions in an attempt to have an idea about their right or wrong beliefs. The objective of Socratic Questioning is to improve and reinforce the students' own critical thinking skills.

d) Heuristics, this strategy is based on the use of a set of general rules, guidelines and suggestions to solve a problem logically by means of experience that we previously acquired from solving similar problems. In addition to math and scientific domains, heuristics is used in other domains in order to sharpen the learners' "...ability to frame new problems and to think creatively - in essence, to solve the problem of how to solve problems" (Michalewicz & Fogel, 2000, p. 1).

e) Science Thinking, this strategy consists in using scientific ideas in fields other than science such as psychology where scientific notions can be inserted to explain some psychological issues like Witzelsucht and anxiety disorders. Additionally, scientific concepts can be mentioned even when dealing with literary works, where the teacher, for example, explains scientifically the chemical components of the poison that caused the death of Romeo and Juliet, or the physiological deformation of Joseph Carey Merrick known as ‘The Elephant Man’. Incorporating science thinking in the curriculum makes the class lively, and the learners more active, and keeps them engaged and broadens their perceptions.

Researchers believe that if Math-Logic Intelligence-based teaching, including the aforementioned strategies, is well performed, the learner becomes the individual who

Notices and uses numbers, shapes and patterns, is precise, is able to move from the concrete to the abstract easily, uses information to solve a problem, loves collections, enjoys computer games and puzzles, takes notes in an orderly fashion, thinks conceptually, can estimate, explores patterns and relationships, constantly questions, likes to experiment in a logical way, organizes thoughts, employs a systematic approach during problem-solving (Hoerr et al., 2010, p. 138).

3. The Spatial Intelligence Class: A tremendous amount of archaeological discoveries like those of cave writings proves that learning through Spatial Intelligence dates back to prehistory. Though Spatial Intelligence embraces one’s mind pictures and other external pictures like photos, films, drawings and graphic symbols, nowadays schools still restrict it only to simple writing on the board. Learning through Spatial Intelligence can be extended to five strategies that follow:

a) Visualisation, this strategy consists in asking students to close their eyes to convert what they studied into pictures by means of an ‘inner blackboard’ that they construct in their mind. This strategy helps them to memorise spelling words, math formulas, history facts, or other data. If need be, students can have recourse to their mental blackboard to retrieve information previously stored in their memory.

b) Colour Cue, as spatial learners are more attracted by colours, this strategy is based on using colours as a learning instrument. It implies that learners can use a range of colours to ‘colour code’ the items they that are dealing with. In geography, for instance, learners can mark geographical area in green, its population in blue, and climatic characteristics in orange. This strategy is deemed as a memory enhancer and stress reducer.

c) Picture Metaphors, this strategy helps learners comprehend new concept by means of linking ideas to visual images. In other words, students associate between the input at hand and what they already know. For instance learners can associate literary work ‘The Adventures of Tom Sawyer’ by Mark Twain with the cartoon that they have already seen on TV, or associate the topic of ‘the power of natural disasters’ with the tsunami that was engendered by the earthquake that struck Japan in 2011. Gardner suggested that metaphor is more developed in children; but this skill dwindles as time goes by.

d) Idea Sketching, this strategy consists in asking the learners to transform the ideas they are taught into drawings. It helps the learners understand deeply the ideas given by the teacher, on the one hand, and assists the teachers in gauging the students’ understanding. In order for the learners to get used to this strategy, they have to learn how to make quick drawings as a tool to successfully transmit the main ideas. This strategy can be used in different subject matters such as literature where the learners, for instance, can draw an ugly woman in a dark room, wearing a dirty wedding dress, to illustrate the character of Miss Havisham in ‘ Great Expectations’ by Charles Dickens. It is worth mentioning that drawing activities should be followed by the discussion of the importance of the relationship between the drawings and the central point.

e) Graphic Symbols, this strategy requires the teachers to draw pictures or graphs on the blackboard to depict the gist of the lesson. It is found to be useful in that it makes the teacher draw attention of as many students as possible. Like the aforementioned strategies, Graphic Symbols can be used in a variety of subject contents. Teacher of

science, for example, can draw a graph to illustrate the fluctuating hormonal secretions; and a teacher of phonetics can draw horizontal and vertical lines to illuminate tongue movements (frontness/ backness; openness/ closure) in vowel articulation.

Hoerr et al. (2010) claimed that a spatially inclined learner “Enjoys maps and charts, likes to draw, build, design, and create things, thinks in three-dimensional terms, enjoys putting puzzles together, loves videos and photos, enjoys colour and design, enjoys pattern and geometry in math, likes to draw and doodle” (p. 198).

4. The Bodily-Kinesthetic Intelligence Class: Applying this intelligence in classroom is a way of concretising learning. It is said to be of paramount importance since it affords the students an ample opportunity to understand the subject matter and further their memory. Learning through Bodily-Kinesthetic Intelligence is divided into to five strategies that follow:

a) Body Answers, this strategy consists in asking the learners to use their bodies as a way of expressing themselves. Though the more commonly used way is raising their hands, this strategy encompasses a range of other ways, such as smiling, blinking one eye, holding up fingers and making flying motions with their arms. Teachers can ask their learners to make a bodily expression for each problem they encounter. For instance, learners might be asked to scratch their heads when they do not understand what their teachers have said, hold up one finger when they understand just a little, and hold up five fingers when they understand well.

b) Classroom Theatre, this approach is based on asking the students to role-play the contents to be learned. Role-playing can be formal, like the one that takes place by the end of the semester, or informal, like the one that is improvised on the spot. This strategy can be used in subject matters like literature, where the students can perform one of Shakespeare’s plays. Seemingly, role-playing is used to reinforce the interpersonal skills inside and outside the classroom. In this regard, Chesler & Fox (1966, p. 3) claimed “...role playing provides the student with a dramatic confrontation and clarification of (1) his relations with others, (2) his information about and

expectations of society, (3) his evaluation of himself and his life style, and (4) the ways in which academic material may be relevant to his daily tasks.”

c) Kinesthetic Concepts, this strategy lies in asking the students to pantomime words or ideas from the lesson. Here the students are required to convert linguistic or logical symbol systems into purely bodily- kinesthetic expressions. Many key points or ideas can be expressed through body language, be they scientific, mathematical, political, geological, or literary.

d) Hands-On Thinking, this method is based on learning by manipulating. In other words, students are asked to construct things with their hands, and involved in experiments or lab work in science. Students can make a wide range of items with pipe cleaners and clay; they can make, for example, animals, insects, numbers, geometric shapes and architectural designs.

e) Body Maps, as the human body is conventionally considered as one of the primary instruments for transmitting knowledge, this approach is grounded on using our body in the classroom to make ourselves understood by the learners. Body Maps can be used to teach different subject contents, such as geography, mathematics and vocabulary. To help the learners understand the meaning of the verbs ‘inhale and exhale’, for example, the teacher shows them the expansion and deflation of their chest. The teacher also can use their fingers for counting.

A kinesthetically intelligent student is “ Dexterous, agile, enduring physical energy, quick, well-defined body control, takes in information through bodily sensations, hands-on learner, well- coordinated motor skills, athletic, likes to figure out how things work, performer, demonstrates skill in crafts, uses body language, enjoys exhilarating experiences (Hoerr et al., 2010, p. 76).

5. The Musical-Rhythmic Intelligence Class: though its importance was recognised long ago in fields like commercial advertising, this approach was scarcely used in education. Current studies show that music positively affects children’s cognitive and

emotional development (Foti, 2020). Consequently, educators urged its implementation in education through strategies that follow:

a) Rhythms, Songs, Raps, and Chants, this approach involves translating the subject matter into a rhythmic format that can be performed as songs, raps, or chants. For instance, vocabulary lessons on animals and the sounds they produce, and body parts names are successfully taught to children through ‘Old McDonald Had a Farm’ and ‘This Is Me’ songs. Mathematics lessons, too, can be taught using songs called ‘Mental Math Songs.’ For this strategy to be more effective, teachers can insert musical instruments, as they can invite their learners to create their songs according to what they have learned.

b) Discographies, in addition to songs, rap and chants, teachers can reinforce students’ understanding of the lesson with recorded tapes, MP3 files, compact discs and the like. For example, students’ understanding of racism might be deepened by Timmy Thomas’ song ‘Why Can’t We Live Together?’ Lesson unit that deals with the destruction of nature by man can be amplified by Michael Jackson’s songs ‘Heal the World’ and ‘Earth Song’.

c) Supermemory Music, this approach consists of having teachers perform rhythmically their lessons against Baroque or Classical musical background. At the same time, the students listen in a relaxed state, lying on the floor or having their heads on the tables. Research conducted in Eastern Europe showed that this method fosters students’ memory. It can also be used for different subject contents. In history, for instance, the lesson on Christophe Columbus’s travel to the New World can be accompanied by ‘The Conquest of Paradise’ song, or the lecture on Renaissance by Thomas Morley’s ‘Sing We And Chaunt It’ popular madrigal song.

d) Musical Concepts, this method that gives teachers and learners the chance to express creatively, is based on using tones to convey ideas, blueprints, or conceptions in different subject contents. Geometric shapes, such as a circle can be taught in a way where the teacher starts at a specific voice tone, decreases it gradually in accordance with the inclination of the circle, and then moves up gradually to the original tone.

This technique can also be used in the literary subject content. For example, the rising action and climax in the plot of Sherlock Holmes Adventures can be said with a high tone, while the introduction and resolution with neutral voice tone.

e) Mood Music, this approach requires teachers to set a good emotional environment to prepare the students for the targeted lesson or unit. Before starting the class on forest conservation, for example, the teacher may play relaxing music with birds singing. Learner who possesses Musical Intelligence

Enjoys singing and playing musical instruments, remembers songs and melodies, enjoys listening to music, keeps beats, makes up her own songs, mimics beat and rhythm, notices background and environmental sounds, differentiates patterns in sounds, is sensitive to melody and tone, body moves when music is playing, has a rich understanding of musical structure, rhythm, and notes (Hoerr et al., 2010, p. 172).

6. The Interpersonal Intelligence Class: Interpersonally intelligent learners are found to be more productive when they share their ideas with their classmates. Implementation of collaborative learning significantly helps learners with this kind of intelligence. Nevertheless, the teacher has to apply this intelligence to his teaching with caution, as the learners vary in degree of intelligence. Interpersonal intelligence can be inserted through five strategies that follow:

a) Peer Sharing, this strategy is based on asking the learners to work in pairs. The learner can work with the same classmate. Or as time goes by, and by the end of the year, the learner will have worked with all his classmates. Peer Sharing can be used as Peer Tutoring, where the student coaches or teaches his classmate a particular topic, or as Crossage Tutoring, where the student can work with a younger learner from a different class. This method can be used in all subject contents.

b) People Sculptures, this approach consists in encouraging the learners to make sculptures for the sake of concretising the key points. This technique can be adopted in various subject matters. If the subject content is on the vital organs, for instance, the students are allowed to build them and each student represents an organ. It can also be

used in language teaching, including words, sentences and paragraphs, where each student represents a letter, part of speech, or a sentence. The activity can be directed by the student that the teacher assigns, or it can be done collectively.

c) Cooperative Groups, this method lies in forming groups of three to eight students, and can be undertaken in different ways. A written assignment, for example, can be either achieved by all members of the group contributing to the whole parts of the project, or pointing a student to do a part of the whole: a student works on the first section, another on the second section, and the third student on the last section of the assignment. Different roles may also be assigned among the group members: a student writes the assignment, another reviews the quality of the assignment in terms of spelling, punctuation, etc, a third student presents the work to the class, and the last leads the discussion. Cooperative groups are said to suit best Multiple Intelligences-based teaching since the group covers a number of students with different intelligences. That is to say, each student performs the assigned role according to their intelligence.

d) Board Games, this technique is based on the implementation of games. It is usually enjoyed by the learners since it allows them play, chat and laugh. At the same time, they are involved in learning of the subject content. The games entail manila file folders, magic markers, a pair of dice, and miniature cars, people, or coloured cubes. Board Games fits a wide variety of subjects, such as mathematics, geography, science and history. The intended concepts are to be placed on the individual squares of the winding road, or on cards made from tag board or thick construction paper; and the answers are given as a separate key from a designated ‘answer person’, on the board square, or cards themselves.

e) Simulations, this method lies in making a group of students create an ‘as- if’ environment that represents the context of the targeted subject matter. For instance, George Orwell’s ‘Animal Farm’ literary work can be acted by the students wearing animal face masks with uniforms and costumes that reflect the time of Russian

Revolution. Besides interpersonal intelligence, this strategy includes other intelligences, such as Bodily- Kinesthetic, Linguistic and Spatial intelligences.

An interpersonally inclined student “Enjoys cooperative games, demonstrates empathy toward others, has lots of friends, is admired by peers, displays leadership skills, prefers group problem solving, can mediate conflicts, understand and recognize stereotypes and prejudices” (Hoerr et al., 2010, p. 8).

7. The Intrapersonal Intelligence Class: Any classroom is an amalgam of students with different psychological traits. Some students, mainly introverts, do not take pleasure in working with their classmates; they appreciate working individually because working with others makes them feel claustrophobic. To satisfy these students’ needs, five strategies have been set as follows:

a) One-Minute Reflection Periods, this strategy requires teachers to offer their students time to manipulate the input their way and quietly. Though silence is regarded as a good reflection enhancer, teachers can optionally play background ‘thinking’ music. This One-minute period, which can be lengthened or reduced according to attention spans, warms the students up for the next activity.

b) Personal Connection, this method is intended to focus on intrapersonally inclined students who usually wonder about what the subject contents they learn with what they live outside the school. Therefore, teachers are required to create connections between what is being taught to the learners in the classroom and their personal lives by interlacing the lessons with their students’ experiences and feelings. Teachers can apply this strategy through questions (“How many of you have ever...?”), statements (“You may wonder what this has to do with your lives. Well, if you ever plan on...”), or requests (“I’d like you to think back in your life to a time when...”). To start a lesson on domestic animals, for instance, the teacher may ask “Do you have a pet at home?” Students then describe the animals they have at home before diving into the lesson. If the lesson is on Scottish resistance against English occupation, the teacher may ask “Who has seen ‘Braveheart’ film?” Students then give the facts of the film and its theme.

c) **Choice Time**, this approach is based on giving the learners the opportunity to decide on their learning experiences. The chances may be short and restricted as when the teacher asks the students to work on the exercises on the page they want, or they may be significant as when the teacher gives his students the chance to select the project they go for. Choices may be informal and given on the spot, or they may be meticulously refined and well organised.

d) **Feeling-Toned Moment**, this method is put forward to make the teachers avoid teaching with an emotionless and indifferent manner. It puts them in charge of building up emotional moments in which the learners can laugh, feel enthusiastic about the subject matter, express strong opinions, etc. This strategy can be implemented in various courses of action: first, by showing those emotions while teaching; second, by making the learners feel safe to have feelings in the classroom; third, by sharing knowledge that elicits feeling-toned feedback.

e) **Goal- Setting Sessions**, as intrapersonally inclined students are deemed capable of setting practical and achievable objectives, this method has been advanced to encourage teachers help their learners to plan for their goals. These goals may be momentary as when the teacher asks the students to list things that they want to learn that day, or perpetual as when he asks them to say what they see themselves doing in the upcoming years. The goal- setting sessions may last only a few minutes, or may concern exhaustive planning over several months' time. The goals per se have to do with academic outcomes (when the teachers asks the learners about the grades they are setting for the term), wider learning outcomes (when the educator asks the students what they want to know how to do by the time they graduate), or life goals (when the teacher asks his students about the job they see themselves in after they graduate).

Intrapersonally inclined students have a set of traits. They are identified as people who “Pursue personal interests, set realistic goals, identify and label feelings, sense their own strengths and weaknesses, are confident in their abilities, daydream, are insightful and reflective, are intuitive, follow their instincts, are comfortable with themselves, express a sense of justice and fairness” (Hoerr et al., 2010, p. 42).

8. The Naturalist Intelligence Class: Naturalistically inclined learners are deprived of having the chance to develop properly their intelligence due to the belief that school is the natural setting for instruction. As a result, pedagogues suggested that these learners should be in direct contact with nature. Two solutions have been put forward to dissolve this issue. Firstly, learning has to take place outside the classroom in natural places. Second, the natural world should be brought into the classroom and other parts of the school building. To help this category of students to reach a satisfying outcome, five strategies have been set as follows:

a) Nature Walks, this approach requires teachers to take their learners to the natural areas far from the school to deepen the subject content being learned in the classroom. Nature Walks is claimed to fit all the subjects like science, mathematics, history, literature and geography. In a science lesson, for instance, teachers can take their learners to the woods to discover animals' and plants' habitats. Lessons on human history and prehistory can also be reinforced by taking the students to archaeological sites and historical buildings.

b) Windows onto Learning, this technique lies in using windows as a way to enhance learners' understanding. This strategy fits a set of subject matters, such as science, mathematics and literature. Teachers can use windows in weather study, for example, to show the learners how the seasons affect the trees and the plants, or how to make addition or subtraction by means of the trees they see through the windows. Windows onto Learning also helps learners in producing creative pieces of writing whose metaphor is based on nature. This method may work well even in classes that do not have windows, where the teacher might ask the learners to use visualization from spatial intelligence that helps them imagine that they have windows.

c) Plants as Props, this strategy can be implemented in classrooms that do not have windows and when the teachers and learners cannot go on nature walks. It requires teachers to transform the classroom plants intended for ornament into a valuable tool for teaching different subjects such as mathematics, science and history. This method

is found to help manage disruptive naturalistically inclined students in that teachers appoint these students to take care of the plants to alter their energies.

d) Pet-in-the-Classroom, this approach is implemented to help learners to be in direct contact with animals. It makes naturalistically inclined learners to feel safe in their world. It also boosts their scientific observation skill through watching animals and keeping records on their behaviours. This method can be used in subjects such as science and mathematics, for example, where learners can keep notes on pet's food intake, weight and other vital statistics.

e) Eco-study, this technique lies in reminding learners to respect the natural world, and that all the subjects tackled in the classroom have to do with ecology. Suppose the lesson is on fractions, for instance. In this case, the teachers can ask the learners to examine the frequency of volcanos' eruptions nowadays compared to the 18th century. If the lesson is on civilisation, the students can be asked to compare the nature of the modern world with the nature during the Roman civilisation. The advantage of Eco-study is that it helps the learners think deeply about the well-being and prosperity of our mother nature. According to Hoerr et al (2010), naturalistically inclined students

Learns through observation and discovery of natural phenomenon; is good at comparing, categorizing, and sorting; enjoys being outdoors; excels in finding fine distinctions between similar items; feels alive when in contact with nature; appreciates scenic places; enjoys having pets; likes to camp, hike or climb; is conscious of changes in the environment (p. 226)

9. The Existential Intelligence Class: only few has been written on the application of this intelligence in the curriculum. According to Armstrong (2009), teachers avoid the implementation of this intelligence in order not to come into conflict or argument with the community, transgress the separation of the church and the state, or violate their own beliefs and those of their students. Additionally, Armstrong believes that no benefit can be gained from implementing existential intelligence unless the teachers insert without infraction the subject content that, for instance, helps the learners reflect

on how scientists, writers, politicians and others have integrated existential issues in their works. He suggested that existential intelligence fits a number of subjects, namely science, mathematics, literature, history, geography and the arts. In literature, for instance, existential intelligence can be tackled through the impact of religions on the writers. If the subject is science, the teachers can incite the learners consider the discrepancies between non-life-forms (rocks and mineral) and life-forms (plants and animals). An appropriate and effective insertion of existential intelligence in the classroom makes the students

...‘fully aware’ of the cosmos - of its diversity, complexity, interconnected threads, and its wonders...Students who excel in this intelligence typically are able to see the big picture. They seek meaningful learning. They look for connections across the curriculum. They like to synthesize ideas based on their learning. They develop a strong identity with their neighbourhood and town. They express a sense of belonging to a global community. They like to get involved in social and political causes (Tamilselvi & Geetha, 2015, p. 5).

1.4.9. The Virtues of Multiple Intelligences

Multiple Intelligence theory gained much attention, echoed so strongly and had such influential power that Gardner himself had not expected (2006b). Its implementation was supported and embraced by a lot of educators in the USA and the world over. This popularity did not come out of nothing. There has been a wide range of rationales behind it. McFarlane (2011), one of the strong advocates of MI, asserted: “...Gardner's MI theory therefore represents the most effective platform for global 21st century educational and instructional methodologies and those educators who embrace this perspective will find themselves meeting and surpassing stakeholders' demands for accountability in the classroom and education” (p. 7). Hoerr (2000) also suggested that MI adoption by educators is due to the fact that “...it respects the role of the teacher. MI allows educators to know their students, to identify the ways they learn, and to be creative in creating curriculum and assessment tools. MI can be a powerful tool in helping students learn skills and acquire understandings” (p. 33). As maintained by McFarlane (2011), and in line with Hoerr’s suggestion, Griggs et al, (2009) claimed

that MI is beneficial both to teachers and learners. On the one hand, it helps the teachers to pinpoint their students' strengths, and set lessons accordingly; and it aids the learners to discover then know best about their strengths, and, therefore, engage in a variety of activities, on the other. This reciprocal awareness and give and take action undoubtedly fosters students' outcomes, and guarantees scholastic achievement. According to Madkour & Abdel Moati Mohamed (2016), MI helps the learners to develop their phonological awareness by means of linguistic and musical intelligences activities such as short stories, poetry, and journal and essay writing. Consistent with the aforementioned perspectives, Armstrong (2009) suggested that MI helps teachers, mainly those in difficulties and under stress and pressure, find fitting and proper management strategies to create a positive learning environment and gain their students' attention. In addition, Multiple Intelligences theory, as stated by the same author, has been proved to be a better strategy to prepare students for transitions, communicate class rules, form heterogeneous groups grounded on multiple intelligence- related characteristics, and finally, deal effectively with learners' behavioural issues. In this respect, he contended: "MI theory makes its greatest contribution to education by suggesting that teachers need to expand their repertoire of techniques, tools, and strategies beyond the typical linguistic and logical ones predominantly used..." (p.54), and "It also helps teachers expand their current teaching repertoire to include a broader range of methods, materials, and techniques for reaching an ever wider and more diverse range of learners" (p. 56). MI marvellousness lies in its flexibility; in that, its implementation varies according to schools' context and culture. Nevertheless, its effective use in curriculum development, instruction and assessment depends on how much time and energy teachers devote to understand it (Hoerr, 2000). According to Baş (2016), Bümen (2005) argued that Gardner's MI theory strengthens learners' self- confidence, self- knowledge, creative thinking and respect for individual differences. Moreover, it renders the learning process smoother and even makes the learners think of the suitable future careers. MI's advantages and benefits do not seem to be incarcerated within the four walls of the classroom; they apparently extend from the classroom education to online education. In this respect, Green and Tanner (2005) regard MI to be the best fit for online teaching, in that it

allows learners, be they children or adults, deal with the problem in dissimilar manners, using their different intelligences and learning styles- the reason why educators develop online tasks that entail as many intelligences as possible and meet to a higher degree the learners needs. Moreover, MI enforces learners' interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences as it gives learners with similar skills the opportunity to work collaboratively, and those with different aptitudes the chance to identify their strengths and weaknesses, and complement each other when working together (Riha & Robles-Piña, 2005).

1.4.10. Gardner's Theory and Emotional Intelligence

Gardner's multiple intelligences theory, particularly interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences seem to be the essence or the milestone of what is referred to as emotional intelligence. While emotional intelligence entails both intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences, these two intelligences are reported to be constructed separately and independently. The former is one of the characteristics of the introverts who are known for their unsociability and propensity to focus on their inner and private world; the latter concerns the extroverts who are known for their sociability, and their tendency to stress the external world and their social interactions with other people (Bay & Ming Lim, 2006). Ramirez (2018) reported that intrapersonal and mainly interpersonal intelligences help the students engage fully in reading novels and analysing and manipulating literary texts. Another investigation was carried out by Shafiee et al.(2020) to see how well multiple intelligences influence Iranian EFL learners' writing skill development; the study revealed that intrapersonal intelligence contributes outstandingly, mainly in terms of vocabulary and grammar, while interpersonal intelligence plays remarkably a part in spelling.Literature discloses that Gardner's interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences that enhance students' willingness to work collaboratively, attend their lectures and complete their education (Gasong & Toding, 2020) evolved from humanistic education where teachers

are obliged to treat their students equally, decently, courteously, and with the respect they deserve as autonomous, rational, sensitive and singular beings, students who are entitled, like everyone else, to seek their happiness, shape their own worldview, and define themselves according to their best understanding and awareness (Aloni, 2007, p. 81).

Conclusion

This chapter entitled Emotional Intelligence and the Learning Process has attempted to define the notion of Emotional Intelligence in relation to the brain, the emotions, and the theories of learning. The idea of using emotions for teaching and learning goes as far back as the ancient Greeks. The concept of EI came as a response to the assumptions and belief in the one-sidedness of human beings which views men and women as made of nothing but reason and cognition. According to Plato, reason and cognition were possessed only by people who belonged to the upper class, and therefore, those who had the right to education. Educationists such as John Dewey refuted this logically untenable theory, and called for democratisation of education and eradication of social stratification. Such views seem to have placed the notion of Emotional Intelligence at the foreground. Early learning theories such as behaviourism and constructivism insisted on the technicality of teaching and learning processes. It is only recently that the emotional side of the teacher that evolved from Gardner's (1983) interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences (MI Theory) gained the attention of a great deal of scholars. As a matter of fact, teachers are likely to be more efficient and effective if they possess both professional and emotional characteristics. This chapter discusses emotional intelligence as a key element in high-standard teaching and learning; the next chapter will focus on teachers' emotional classroom practices and how they can help to make them emotionally intelligent.

Chapter Two

Chapter Two

Classroom Practices of an Emotionally Intelligent Teacher

Introduction

Not too long ago, education's main concern was the classroom practices of the professional teacher. In other words, teacher education programs focused on whether or not the teachers performed their lessons according to the imposed way of teaching including approaches, methods, curricula and syllabuses. Yet, the incompatibility between teachers' accountability and the unfortunate reality of the conditions they work in made the educationists give more prominence to teachers' emotionality. As a matter of fact, there are teachers who keep being emotionally intelligent whatever the circumstances, and, therefore, highly contribute to the students' academic achievement; and there are others who struggle with the situation to end up with job dissatisfaction or mental health problems such as depression and/or burnout that in turn usually leads to physical health problems, not to mention resignation. This chapter gives an insight into classroom practices of emotionally intelligent teachers. It includes six sections. Section 2.1. sheds light on the environment that makes the classroom emotional. Section 2.2. deals with the importance of social and emotional teaching/learning even in scientific subjects like mathematics that is thought to be purely cognitive. Section 2.3. shows how the implementation of emotional intelligence in the classroom is beneficial to both teachers and learners. Section 2.4. is devoted to the emotional traits that make teachers effective and learners safe and comfortable in the classroom. Section 2.5. deals with the traits of the leader teacher and the importance of teacher's leadership and monitoring., Section 2.6. attempts to describe the factors that can interfere with teachers' emotionality. Finally Section 7. discusses teachers' emotional education and development and their role in fostering classroom emotional environment.

2.1. Emotional Classroom Environment

Much has been said and written on the emotional classroom; and the agreed-upon definition is that the emotional classroom is a kind of positive environment where teachers show a comprehensive understanding of the environment where their learners live, and of their brain development, particularly matters and is closely connected to emotions and personality (Allen, 2014).

Emotional classrooms are also held to be classrooms that, along with the cognitive subject content, incorporate "...non-cognitive skills such as working collaboratively with others to resolve problems, generating new products, communicating clearly, and making decisions with integrity" (Frey et al., 2019, p. 2); they are where teachers' "...skills of guiding, coaching and mentoring will be vital in encouraging the development of emotional competencies" (Allen, 2014, p. 18). According to Pekrun (2014), in order for classrooms to remain emotional, individual differences should be taken into account, particularly culture, ethnicity, gender, school membership, and class membership. He believes that teachers should avoid "...stereotype phrases that relate to group membership, such as 'girls are afraid of math'. It is more useful to pay attention to the uniqueness of each individual student's emotions" (p. 11).

Lessons planned for emotional classroom should be pertinent to the situations that the learners are facing or that will face in the near or far future in their lives, and related to emotional development as well as academic and practical aspects of learning. Allen (2014) suggested that the lesson have to incorporate and combine all school characters and climate to incite students to become "...self-assured, confident, happy and positive young people who are continuously developing personal self-knowledge" (p. 12). In line with this suggestion, Fey and colleagues (2019) referred to the fact that lessons designed for Emotional and Social Learning (ESL) should include values, in that teachers have to use books that focus on values, and respond to students' questions in a manner that conveys values. They also affirmed that every single lesson taught should make known intentionally or unintentionally the values, morals, and beliefs of the schools and their staff members, and all those associated with them. These lessons are found to have such a powerful impact on the learners that

a lead inspector charged of lesson observations claimed: “Students who talked to inspectors said that they learn best when they are able to discuss, question and apply what they have come across in their lessons to new, real-life problems and situations drawn from examples around the world” (Quoted in Peal, 2014, p. 27). Consistently with this claim, Frey et al. (2019) stressed that students should be taught how to make decisions about the choices and problems they face because “A student who has excellent content knowledge but poor social or problem-solving skills is a student at risk of being manipulated. Similarly, students who are able to predict possible consequences of their actions may be better equipped to make good decisions” (p. 9).

Rudasill et al. (2010) who carried out an investigation on the correlation between classroom emotional support and the reading and math achievement of third grade pupils found that classrooms equipped with emotional support fostered pupils’ attention, their reading and mathematics achievement, while classrooms with the tiniest emotional support decelerated the pupils’ achievement. A significant body of evidence demonstrate that classroom emotional support does not only enhance achievement but also nurtures and strengthens positive relationship among the pupils and between teachers and the pupils. In this regard, Ruzek et al. (2016) reported that an emotionally supportive contact with the learners helps the teachers to create experiences that make the learners feel that their classmate are supportive, positive, and respectful. On the same wavelength, Villaseñor (2018) argued that socio-emotional skills stimulate favourable and agreeable teacher- students and peer to peer relationships. Rodrigo-Ruiz (2016) also stated that teachers’ positive emotions motivate students and promote both communication and learning, while negative ones, except anger that is found to be a double- edged sword, have an adverse effect on the learners. Teachers’ negative emotions do not only jeopardize academic achievement, but also give the students bad impression and bad conception of their teachers- which in turn make teachers’ success difficult if not impossible (Toraby & Modarresi, 2018). Classroom climate is a multidimensional construct (Wang et al., 2020) that is grounded on “...patterns of people’s experiences of school life and reflects norms, goals, values, interpersonal relationships, teaching and learning practices, and organizational structures” (National School Climate Council, 2007, p. 4, quoted in

Thapa et al., 2013, p. 358) that covers five fields: (a) Safety (e.g., rules and norms, physical safety, social-emotional safety), (b) Relationships (e.g., respect for diversity, school connectedness/engagement, social support, leadership, and students' race/ethnicity and their perceptions of school climate), (c) Teaching and Learning (e.g., social, emotional, ethical, and civic learning; service learning; support for academic learning; support for professional relationships; teachers' and students' perceptions of school climate), (d) Institutional Environment (e.g., physical surrounding, resources, supplies), and (e) the School Improvement Process (Thapa et al., 2013, p. 358). According to Garibay (2015), putting positive and agreeable classroom climate in place calls for active endeavours to be made by the teachers before starting the lesson; these include: 1) Self-identification where the teachers reflect about their own identity and the way their attitudes and experiences may affect their teaching and their students' responses; 2) Self-learning where teachers inform themselves about other groups and cultures through readings or any other instrument at hand; 3) Accommodations where teachers accommodate their performances and their way of transmitting information according to their learners' needs. Accommodation concerns mainly students with disabilities; 4) Course content where teachers select courses and insert materials that best fit diverse groups with different backgrounds and perspectives; 5) Teaching methods where teachers set and use methods that foster students' engagement including project-based and experiential learning, research projects, class discussions, reflective writing, cooperative learning and group projects, student presentations; 6) Ground rules where teachers lay down and prescribe rules at the very beginning of the courses, and get armed with a number of plans of action to deal with ground-rule violation.

Emotional Classroom seems to depend heavily on the quality of the physical environment of the classroom. The latter is found to shape to a greater extent both teachers' and learners' behaviours. Poor learning environment is believed to have adverse effect both on students' learning and teachers' performance, way of thinking and behaviours (OECD, 2017). In this regard, Ucci et al. (2015) suggested:

...the indoor built environment is likely to impact on pedagogy and academic performance in a variety of ways, including the size of the school; the distance between buildings and classrooms; the pedagogic approach (active or passive); and the interior design of the classroom, as well as associated environmental parameters including indoor air quality, temperature, light and noise (p. 578).

World Health Organisation (WHO, 2015) affirmed that amalgamation of low temperature and high humidity transforms the classroom into a disagreeable environment that badly affects pupils' learning skills and their well-being. On the same wavelength, Hensley-Pipkin (2015) asserted that physical classroom environment "is oftentimes viewed merely as the context for learning to occur, rather than an actual tool to support learning" (p. 53). Physical classroom environment does not cover only light, temperature and ventilation. It also entails acoustics and accessibility. According to Cheryan et al. (2014), students in the classrooms surrounded by loud noise are found to score low; and classes with inadequate accessibility have adverse effects mainly on students with disabilities like those with hearing loss who find difficulty deciphering teacher's words from challenging background noise. In addition to the aforementioned classroom physical aspects, researchers went further to include classrooms decoration and colours as a momentous aspect. In the sense that there are colours like blue and green that make the students feel calm and safe, therefore stimulate learning; and others like red and orange that make them feel nervous and anxious, therefore impede learning (Bucholz & Sheffler, 2009). On the same wavelength, Weinstein (1977) showed that bringing a new look and appearance to the classroom in terms of layout and design (e.g., changes to location of materials, colour, attractiveness of room, use of shelving, etc.) led to a more even distribution of children across locations, a change in the distribution of behaviours observed, and an increase in the variety of appropriate and engaged behaviours (cited in Simonsen et al., 2008, p. 358). Apropos of the tidiness and cleanness of the classroom, a growing body of literature puts stress on its importance. This classroom feature is reported to have such a positive effect on both teachers and learners that some teachers from the very beginning of the year think creatively about

the way to put up their classrooms and establish a physical environment that fosters their teaching and learning programmes (Hill & Hawk, 2000).

2.2. Social and Emotional Teaching/ Learning

Referring to Salovey's and Mayer's (1990) assumption that emotional intelligence is a part of social intelligence, a countless number of scholars have directed their attention towards both emotional and social facets, and an avalanche of works has been devoted to social and emotional teaching / learning. A significant body of literature reveals that teaching/learning process based on a two- side social/ emotional relationship between teachers and learners highly contributes to the learners' success, be it academically, emotionally, or even socially. In line with this perspective, Devine and Cohen (2007), stressing the potency of the social and emotional education put out:

Just as physical education builds a child's muscles and motor skills, social, emotional, ethical, and academic education builds a child's self-reflective and empathic capabilities. Children learn to control impulses, communicate sensitive issues more clearly, cooperate, become more self-motivating, learn how to become a friend, and become more altruistic (p. xvi).

And this starts from preschool classes (Fantuzzo et al., 2007). Social and emotional teaching / learning entails positive features that "...need to be developed for our children to be successful not only in school but in life; those who do not possess these skills are less likely to succeed" (Zins et al., 2004, p. 4). Emotional and social teaching/ learning is all about teachers' practices and their relationship between them and their learners. It happens when the teachers have the power to transform the challenging environments into warm and welcoming spaces (Farr, 2010), "... where students can escape some of the distracting burdens of poverty, a space where they want to, and can, learn" (Farr, 2010, p. 72). Ensign (2003) put out: "If we do not teach all children so that they can succeed in mathematics and science, we are doing a disservice to society as well as to individual students" (p.105). On the other hand, Fowler (2003) suggested that math and science learners' social and emotional development and maturation is not grounded solely on teachers' skill and talent, but it

requires partners including the adults involved in learners' lives and community institutions. Similarly, Ben-Avie and his colleagues (2003) remarked that the fear of failure that debilitates and disables students has no room in successful math and science classrooms; it is usually mediated by the thoughtfulness and motivation of the teachers and other adults in the school and in the home.

2.3. Momentousness and Virtues of Emotional Intelligence in the Classroom

As Emotional Intelligence may explain, "...despite equal intellectual capacity, training, or experience, some people excel while others of the same caliber lag behind" (Lynn, 2000, p.1), one can effortlessly and straightforwardly discern and tell the difference between teachers. Advocating the power of emotional intelligence in the teaching and learning process, many scholars believe that emotion-based education has "...a positive effect on academic achievement, graduation outcomes, and workplace readiness" (Trujillo, 2019, p. 29). Mortiboys (2005) warned: "...If you do not use emotional intelligence in your teaching, then the value of both your knowledge of your subject and your learning and teaching methods can be seriously diminished" (p. 2). In line with this remark, Stronge (2007) considers the emotional features of the teachers as a key element that determines learners' success or failure. In this regard, he wrote that teachers

have a powerful, long-lasting influence on their students. They directly affect how students learn, what they learn, how much they learn, and the ways they interact with one another and the world around them. Considering the degree of the teacher's influence, we must understand what teachers should do to promote positive results in the lives of students with regard to school achievement, positive attitudes toward school, interest in learning, and other desirable outcomes (Stronge, 2007, p. ix).

Consistent with Stronge and other advocates of the idea of emotions being a pivotal ingredient in teaching/learning process, Jennings and Greenberg (2009) suggested teachers endowed with emotional trait or competence are those who ingeniously use "...emotional expressions and verbal support to promote enthusiasm and enjoyment of

learning and to guide and manage student behaviour” (p. 493). Similarly, Hargreaves (1998a) asserted:

Good teaching is charged with positive emotion. It isn't just a matter of knowing your subject, being efficient, having the correct competences, or learning all the right techniques. Good teachers aren't just well-oiled machines. Computers can never replace them. They are emotional, passionate beings who fill their work and their classes with pleasure, creativity, challenge and joy (p. 559).

Studies showed that emotionally regulated and balanced learners are more effective than their counterparts. Taylor and MacKenney (2008) went far to suggest that agreeable and emotional classroom environment triggers neural connections that make the learning process feasible and more practical. In this respect they stated:

...chronic emotional stress has adverse effects on the entire body...Stressful school experiences and environments inhibit learning, while positive classroom atmospheres encourage neural connections in the brain to help children learn. Children naturally seek out and thrive in places where their needs are met. Integrating emotional expressions of children in the classroom can improve memory and stimulate learning (p. 16).

It is noteworthy that there may be no chance for teachers' mental or psychological issues to take place in emotionally flavoured classes. In this respect, Jennings and Greenberg (2009) contended: “Improvements in classroom climate may reinforce a teacher's enjoyment of teaching, efficacy, and commitment to the profession, thereby creating a positive feedback loop that may prevent teacher burnout” (pp. 493- 494). In addition to students' comfort and safety that emotionally positive relationships between teachers and learners may engender, Hargreaves (1998a) believes that they also trigger teachers' willingness to cope with educational change and “... help them set the climate or mood in which the "really important" business of cognitive learning or strategic planning can take place” (p. 559). It has been claimed that in order for positive emotions to be effectual in reaching intended and desired academic outcomes, they should go beyond the classroom to spread all over the school. Bullough Jr.

(2011), assumed that whatever teachers' productivity and students' learnability, schools without emotions, including happiness and hope, are definitely unsuccessful in accomplishing their mission, if not hurtful and detrimental. He put out: "Efforts to create greater effectiveness among teachers, more learning among students, and higher performing schools that ignore the hope and happiness of children and teachers will inevitably fail. Worse, they will be harmful" (p. 17).

2.4. Emotional Practices of an Effective Teacher

It seems important to stress that due to the complexity of the teaching process, researchers in the field are still unable to give a clear cut definition and characteristics of an effective teacher; this fact generated a heated debate among scholars. In the recent past, the essence of teaching was basically referred to as a purely technical and cognitive process "...as if teachers think and act; but never really feel" (Hargreaves, 1998a, p. 559). Yet, a great deal of scholars mostly those who conducted studies on schoolchildren and pre- university learners assume that without teachers' positive emotional characteristics, qualification, experience and knowledge of the subject content efficient students' output cannot to be guaranteed. A significant body of literature reveals that emotionally effective teachers are those who

...recognize their emotions, emotional patterns, and tendencies and know how to generate and use emotions such as joy and enthusiasm to motivate learning in themselves and others. They... recognize their emotional strengths and weaknesses. They know how their emotional expressions affect their interactions with others. Such teachers also recognize and understand the emotions of others. They are able to build strong and supportive relationships through mutual understanding and cooperation and can effectively negotiate solutions to conflict situations (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009, p. 495).

Effective teachers create an emotional environment that minimizes students' distraction, and that which unquestionably reinforces students' self-confidence and esteem (Farr, 2010). Johns (2000, p. 14) believes that effective teachers need "highly tuned and highly differentiated intuition for understanding and interpreting classroom

life and ... a wide repertoire of appropriate models for reacting to specific situations” (Quoted in Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2017, p. 37).

Teachers do not become effective overnight. In other words, teachers’ efficacy and effectiveness are subjected to development. Perrot (1982, cited in Kyriacou, 2007) suggested that teachers undergo three stages that process as a cycle to reach efficacy and effectiveness. They are: 1) cognitive stage in which the teacher develops their awareness about the skill, the various elements of the skill, the purpose of using the skill, and knowing how the skill benefits their teaching; 2) the second stage involves teacher’s practice of a specific skill; 3) the third stage entails feedback on the performed skill. Teachers can get feedback through an observer, audio-visual recording, or data collected from pupils about their work, behaviour or opinions. Notwithstanding the powerful effect of these stages on teachers’ effectiveness, Kyriacou (2007) still believes that teachers’ growth cannot happen without their ability to take advantage from their reflective practices, and their motivation to do so.

Stronge (2007), compared effective teachers to a puzzle that needs all its pieces to take form. He suggested that teachers’ emotional characteristics should include the following: caring, fairness and respect, social interactions with students, promoting enthusiasm and motivating learning, teacher’s attitude toward the teaching profession and reflective practice. These characteristics are summarised as follows:

2.4.1. Caring

Caring is a top priority of teachers, students, supervisors and the like. It includes listening, gentleness, understanding, knowledge of students as individuals, nurturing, warmth and encouragement, and an overall love for children. Listening, for example, is found to foster love and trust between the teachers and their learners; it is practiced by the teachers who pay attention and care about what happens to the students in the classroom and even outside the classroom, including their life in general. The main concern of these committed and devoted teachers is bettering and improving student lives. As for understanding, research shows that students like teachers who listen to them and give them assistance in solving their problems, and who talk about their experiences. In line with listening and understanding, knowledge of the students is

regarded crucial, in that it does not cover only learners' needs and their learning styles, but it goes further to entail student's personality, likes and dislikes, and the factors that affect their behaviour and performance in school. Care can also be displayed by how well the teacher prepares the lesson; According to Kyriacou (2007), students think of a well prepared lesson as an evidence that their teacher cares about their learning, while a poorly prepared lesson as an insult to their sense of worth as learners. In spite of caring potency, Nadelson et al. (2019) believe that teachers' responsibility, including caring, varies according to the community or school culture, atmosphere and attitude.

2.4.2. Fairness and Respect

According to Stronge (2007), fairness and respect are regarded by the learners of all grades as prerequisites of effective teaching. They see that the effective teacher is constantly fair and shows respect to his students regardless of their race, cultural background, and gender. In addition to misbehaviour at individual level without holding the whole class accountable for the inappropriate actions of one student or a group of students, the effective teacher knows and understands the facts before responding to any misconduct, and tells students what they did wrong and what they need to do right.

A considerable number of studies tackled teachers' fairness and respect in relation to gender, and reported the effect of the latter on teachers' practices. Jones and Dindia (2004, cited in Rezai et al., 2022) reported teachers to be more likely to interact with male students, criticise them, and give them negative feedback than they do with female students; and girls' interactions with their teachers, according to Younger et al. (1999), are more often supportive of their learning (cited in Åhslund & Boström, 2018, p. 30). Contrary to these findings, a study conducted by Biraimah (1982, cited in Ifegbesan, 2010) revealed that teachers in Togo underestimate girls' potential, while boys' efforts and abilities are praised. A study conducted by Bağ, Martı, and Bayyurt (2014) in one of the Turkish universities, suggested that EFL teachers' attention is gender-based. In other words, teachers are found to pay more attention to the students of the opposite sex: male teachers pay more attention to female students, and female teachers to male students. As fairness is a must, and is a classroom practice that can be

ameliorated, researchers insisted on the fact that these teachers, be they pre-service or in-service, should be provided with programs that stress on gender equality. In this respect, Kelly (1988, p. 15) puts out "... trained teachers are much more successful than un-trained teachers in reducing sex-bias in their classrooms" (Quoted in Bağ, Martı, and Bayyurt, 2014, p.)

In the United States, Fries and DeMitchell (2007) conducted a study that provided an insight into the teachers- these individuals put on the front line to apply the laws and policies related to students' discipline. The research targeted teachers' perspective on the policy of "zero tolerance" that requires schools to inflict severe punishment and expel from school, for a period of not less than one year, all students considered as potentially dangerous like those caught in possession of knives. Fries and DeMitchell reported that teachers found this policy unfair in that it did not take into account the students' aspects of life and the circumstances and nature of the offense. In addition, they keenly believed that not all the students who carry knives are criminals or potentially dangerous: there are good students who carry knives to cut the fruits that their mothers pack for them. That is why they preferred handling students' behaviours in the classroom without reporting them to the administration. The unfairness of zero tolerance policy does not lie only in not considering and not taking students' circumstances seriously, but this policy is also found to favour certain students over others in the sense that it disproportionately affects black and Hispanic students, and students with disabilities (Fries & DeMitchell, 2007; Mitchell, 2014).

2.4.3. Social Interactions with Students

Educationists claim that interactions between teachers and students should not be limited only to academic matters; they have to go beyond what happens in the classroom. Breeves (2004, p. 9) highlighted the cruciality of the social interactions between teachers and their students, and stated: "...No matter how structured the curriculum or tightly managed the school day, the interactions between students and teachers are to a large extent the result of the individual diligence, professionalism, and commitment of teachers". Low or scarce social interactions result in poor academic achievement, while rich social interactions boost thinking, social

relationships and increases language use (Mohr & Mohr, 2007). Social interactions are also found to be enhanced through small or large group meetings and activities, in that the latter make the learners feel that they comfortably belong to the classroom. Mohr and Mohr (2007) suggested that learners, who come from cultures that treat them as listeners rather than talkers, should be given time to get acclimatized to the new classroom environment where social interaction is fostered. They claimed: “Because U.S. classrooms are often less formal (e.g., teachers sitting on the floor, students working in groups) than their previous educational environments, immigrant students sometimes take a while to adapt to the typical question–answer sequence that is common there” (p. 441).

Studies have reported that humor significantly enhances the effectiveness of interactions. Consistent with this, Tamblyn (2003, p. 11) puts out: “... if one communicates with humour, they will by definition communicate creatively and playfully...will play with information and ideas as if they were toys”. Smiling, as one of the ingredients of social interaction, has been suggested to bring joy to the classroom. Trujillo (2019) believes that smiling is of a paramount importance, especially when it is true, coming from one’s heart; it makes a difference not only for the person who smiles but also the one who receives it. Greeting students and using paralanguage like smiling soothe the learners and make them feel calm, comfortable and safe in the classroom. In this respect, Chauhan (2019) claimed that smiling: 1) Makes emotions agreeable and enhances motivation; 2) Relieve strained situations; 3) Provides happiness and peace; 4) Enhances favourable and constructive reasoning; 5) Gives a sense of friendship and instigates parents to trust the teachers; 6) Reinforces students’ well- being and stimulates their productivity and creativity. Similarly, Aziz et al (2021) stated: “Smiling face of teacher creates a positive vibe among students and they become fearless to express everything’ and ‘There is no fear of insult or harsh words from smiling teacher” (p. 1851). In a study conducted by Vasquez (2018), disclosed that the students had propensity to welcome and feel safe with smiling teachers and those who did not show negative body language. This author also found that teachers who greet their students and ask them how they spent their weekends, and let their students greet each other are highly welcome in the classroom. With

reference to this finding, she contended: "... when teachers showed their human side in the classroom by sharing simple everyday information such as if their pets were sick or if their children had a baseball/soccer game, the students felt a complete sense of trust" (Vasquez, 2018, p. 105). Clever research went far to conclude that greeting, including handshakes and touches at the level of arms and shoulders, increases students' motivation and incites their trust and positive attitudes mainly toward their female teachers (Wilson et al., 2009). Referring to butterfly effect theory that says that the tiniest movement of a butterfly wings may result in a hurricane, Achor (2010) asserted that small positive emotions such as smile have such a power to stimulate enormous ones. He has neurologically explained this assumption:

Luckily, positive emotions are also contagious, which makes them a powerful tool in our quest for high performance in the workplace. Positive emotional contagion starts when people subconsciously mimic the body language, tone of voice, and facial expressions of those around them... once people mimic the physical behaviours tied to these emotions, it causes them to feel the emotion themselves. Smiling, for instance, tricks your brain into thinking you're happy, so it starts producing the neurochemicals that actually do make you happy (p. 206).

With regard to gender, previous research reported female teachers to perform well in building appropriate communicative tasks, while their male counterparts were found to have a better control over their students' disruptive and inappropriate behaviour. Furthermore, Lee et al. (2017) came to the conclusion that female teachers are better than male teachers in the matter of teaching style (cited in Wanakach et al. 2018). However, other studies like the one conducted by Wanakacha et al. (2018) suggested that gender does not have any effect on teachers' core functions.

2.4.4. Promoting Enthusiasm and Motivating Learning

Enthusiasm and motivation, like the aforementioned key elements, have been proven to reinforce the relationship between learners and their teachers, and to enhance learners' outcomes as well. Motivating teachers are those who are serious about their work, who trigger and prompt their students' attentiveness, and who care

about the topic they teach; they are those whose characteristics are greater than being enthusiastic and caring (Wlodkowski & Ginsberg, 2010). These researchers believe that an authentic motivating teacher should have five substantial attributes: 1) expertise that refers to knowing the subject very well and how to make the knowledge beneficial for the learners, and getting prepared to construct this knowledge through an instructional process; 2) empathy that stands for the aptitude that allows teachers conscious of and well informed about their students' perspectives and feelings; 3) enthusiasm that covers teachers' interest and value for the subject with appropriate degrees of emotion and expressiveness; 4) clarity that represents teachers' organised and easy way that makes the learners effortlessly follow and take part in the planned lessons and programs; 5) cultural responsiveness that refers to respect of diversity due to history, socialization, experience, and biology (Wlodkowski & Ginsberg, 2010, pp. 34- 46). In this respect, Dinham (2008, p. 30) contended: "successful teachers have a passion for their subject and an enthusiasm to pass on to students what they know and 'love' about it; they possessed both deep content knowledge and strong pedagogic content knowledge – they knew what to teach and how to teach it". Similarly, Johnson (2017) claimed: "Students' motivation to learn may be enhanced through the teachers' interests in their subject, the level of enthusiasm, and energy they display while teaching...Teachers' beliefs in their abilities to reach unmotivated students can increase students' motivation to learn" (p. 48). According to Frenzel et al. (2007), a wide range of studies, be they cross-sectional or longitudinal, showed that teachers' enthusiasm and supportive feedback boost learners' enjoyment and their academic success, while their punitive behaviours engender students' anger, hopelessness, shame, and anxiety. Brackins (2021) assumes that students' motivation and learning are triggered by empathy that is thought of as an essential element to effective humanistic and learner-centred pedagogy that reduces students' stress and anxiety and makes them feel secure. In spite of the powerful impact that the teachers may have on their learners' motivation, the latter is still reported to be relative and may vary considerably according to a set of factors. As maintained by Gardner (1985), motivation involves four aspects, one of which is attitudes that depend heavily on learners' age, gender, and upbringing.

2.4.5. Teacher's Attitude Toward the Teaching Profession

As teachers' attitudes towards their profession unquestionably mould and determine their cognitive, emotional and behavioural classroom practices (Anderson, 1988), teachers' effectiveness and professionalism are shaped by positive attitudes that they have towards their students as well as their profession. Effective teachers believe that all the students have the willingness to learn no matter how different they are. Additionally, they like sharing their experience with their colleagues, leading team works, assisting struggling teachers, and mentoring novice and less experienced teachers. Effective teachers participate in professional development, conferences and in-service training, and tell their students about their participation in these activities in an inspiring way. Effective teachers help their stakeholders and give them advice when needed. In line with this assumption, Korkmaz and Unsal (2020, p. 4) contended:

Teachers with positive attitudes towards their profession perform better in the teaching-learning process, which in turn motivates them. This increases teachers' participation in academic activities in their schools and enables them to communicate more effectively with colleagues, students, and parents. Professional attitude may be regarded as a significant predictor of an effective teaching process.

Teachers' attitudes towards the teaching profession is believed to be shaped by a set of factors, two of which are the status given to this profession and gender. In addition to teachers' attitudes towards the teaching profession, Teachers' beliefs are important features in conducting teacher education that is meant to help them develop their thinking and practices (Zheng, 2009). They also guide language teachers to use appropriate teaching strategies that go in line with their daily language teaching challenges, and influence their general well-being, which therefore, shape learning environment and their learners' motivation and language achievement and ability (Xu, 2012). Keeping teachers' beliefs in view, Prawat (1992) went as far to claim that teachers can either play a vital role in boosting schools and classrooms, or be major obstacles to change due to their traditional beliefs.

Apropos of gender, it captivated attention of a great deal of scholars. Findings suggested that female teachers are more motivated and have more positive attitudes

than their counterparts; and this has been explained by the fact that teaching is the most suitable profession for women as they are naturally predisposed to devote their lives to children (AtalmiŞ & KÖse, 2019). Though teaching is a frustrating occupation for both genders, female teachers are also found to express more positive attitudes than their counterparts do because they are aware of the fact that teaching is much better than other occupations most of which are expropriated and monopolised by men (Rosenblatt, 2010).

2.4.6. Reflective Practice

As it is “...always purposeful, moving towards a more reflective, effective and satisfactory life” (Johns, 2013, p. 1), reflection seems to be the matter that captured the imagination of a great deal of scholars from different fields of research. After being optional in the recent past, reflection has become a compulsory and highly required practice (Glasswell & Ryan2017). Reflection, which was first introduced to education by John Dewey (1933), initially starts as pointless and meaningless thoughts reworded in one’s mind about an out-of-the ordinary event that has happened (McGregor, 2011). According to Dewey (1933, p. 12), reflective practice includes “...(1) a state of doubt, hesitation, perplexity, mental difficulty, in which thinking originates, and (2) an active searching, hunting, inquiring, to find material that will resolve the doubt, settle and dispose of the perplexity” ,and consists basically in asking a set of questions about “... how and why things are the way they are, what value systems they represent, what alternatives might be available, and what the limitations are of doing things one way as opposed to another” (Richards & Lockhart, 2007, p. 4). Schon (1983, 1987) distinguished two types of reflection: reflection in action that refers to when reflective practitioners think about the action while doing it; reflection on action that refers to when they think about their action after it has been performed. Cartwright (2011) suggested two sorts of reflection: formal reflection and informal reflection. The former is done by means of: a reflective journal or diary; a piece of academic writing for an assignment; a written lesson evaluation; written reviews of progress prior to mentor meetings. The latter is realised through a discussion with a peer, engagement in training activities in university, school or other setting, how you think and feel in given

situations (reflection-in-action) and how you think and feel after the event (reflection-on-action) (Cartwright, 2011). Effective reflective practices usually pass through three stages: Analysing outcomes, where the teacher identifies his/her strengths and weaknesses; Discerning causes, where the teacher identifies the actions that made those strengths and weaknesses happen, and identifies the factors that lead to those actions; and Identifying and implementing solutions, where the teacher sets and determines learning objectives and access learning opportunities, and Change course to alter students' outcomes (Farr, 2010).

For the sake of good personal and emotional performances, effective teachers constantly reflect upon their teaching and classroom practices, keep themselves updated through self- evaluation, and improve their teaching styles that better respond to their learners' needs. They usually strive to find appropriate ways to influence their learners positively and make change in their lives. More importantly, effective teachers invite feedback and accept constructive criticism from others. In line with this perspective, Hurst and her colleagues (2013) contended:

To improve their instructional behaviour, teachers should self-analyze and reflect when evaluating their teaching. They must be open to the comments and ideas offered from observing teachers and be willing to share their ideas and evaluations when observing other teachers... Teachers must be able to converse honestly and address issues such as what are the best ways to teach a child, group of children, or class (p. 394).

In spite of the growing body of literature on the features of an effective teacher, Hobby et al (2004) still believe that there are no agreed-upon attributes and maintain that there is a variety of ways that lead to successful teaching. In this regard, Loughran (2010, p. 162) asserted, "...if there is not one true way of thinking, then our teaching methods need to support alternative ways of thinking and doing in order to develop students' learning for understanding". In addition to the above features of an effective teacher that have been suggested by Strong (2007), other scholars such as Allen (2014); Herman & Mandell (2004) and Leithwood & Riehl (2004) have added another

practice that is as essential as the aforementioned practices. This practice is called ‘Teachers’ Leadership and Mentoring’, and is discussed next:

2.4.7. Teachers’ Leadership and Mentoring

Leadership refers to “providing direction” and “exercising influence” (Leithwood & Riehl, 2004, p. 20). It is deemed a key factor in promoting students’ learning (Leithwood & Riehl, 2004). According to National College for School Leadership (2001), effective headteachers provide a clear vision and sense of direction for the school; they prioritise; they focus the attention of staff on what is important and do not let them get diverted and sidetracked with initiatives that will have little impact on the work of the students; they know what is going on in their classrooms; they have a clear view of the strengths and weaknesses of their staff; they know how to build on the strengths and reduce the weaknesses; they can focus their programme of staff development on the real needs of their staff and school; they gain this view through a systematic programme of monitoring and evaluation; their clarity of thought, sense of purpose and knowledge of what is going on mean that effective headteachers can get the best out of their staff, which is the key to influencing work in the classroom and to raising the standards achieved by students (cited in Day & Sammons, 2014, p. 13). As a matter of fact, Herman & Mandell (2004) suggested characteristics of an effective mentorship fulfilled by teachers who: 1) engage in dialogues with their students; 2) invite and expect their students to become full and increasingly autonomous collaborators in their learning; 3) do not presume to know all or even most of what is best for their students to learn or how to do so, although they are authoritative representatives of their academic community; 4) engage in collaborative inquiries with their students, and carefully reflect on what they believe they already know, what they need to learn, and how and why they will do so; 5) perform self-examination that embraces both traditional academic material and essential “life issues” which may originate beyond the academy, and that make academic learning meaningful for human beings who are attempting to flourish, practically and contemplatively, in the world; 6) enable their students to use their education to acquire the power they need to

succeed in the world beyond the Academy; 7) enable their students to explore the truths, the justice, and beauty everyone seeks for happiness (p. 8).

2.5. Teachers' Emotional Intelligence Preventers

Emotional teaching, like any other process, happens only when teaching conditions are judged to be favourable, otherwise it remains deficient and not up to standard regardless of teachers' professional and emotional competences. Components that may interfere with emotional teachers' practices are multiple, some of which can be cited such as pedagogical deterrents and psychological deterrents. These two features are discussed in the next sub-sections.

2.5.1. Pedagogical Deterrents

2.5.1.1. Poor Classroom Environment

Much has been said and written on poor classroom environment. It has been evidenced that it is one of the major factors that make the teaching/ learning process unsuccessful if not impossible. As classroom environment "...directly influences learning engagement, motivation, and social interaction among classroom members" (Obaki, 2017, p. 1), negative classroom environment has, undoubtedly, an adverse effect on the classroom occupants. Disagreeable classroom environment may result in absenteeism, lower levels of effort, less effectiveness in the classroom, low morale, and lower job satisfaction (Earthman & Lemasters, 2009). Poor classroom environment embraces: 1) poor physical environment that refers to improper environmental classroom conditions that directly affect the occupants' (teachers and learners) health and behaviour, which in turn lead to their unsatisfactory productivity; 2) conflicting behavioural classroom climate which refers to clashing and discordant relationships between teachers and their learners, and learners and their peers.

1) Poor Physical Environment

Deprived teaching and learning conditions are reported to directly affect teachers' and learners' performance and productivity. As a matter of fact, all the scholars who extensively explored the classroom physical environment drew a wide range of

conclusions, one of which is that “The classroom should provide a comfortable and healthy indoor air environment because occupants may be in the classroom for a long time” (Ma et al., 2020, p. 1). Poor physical environment entails a set of inadequacies such as inappropriate lighting, bad ventilation and humidity, noise and inadequate temperature and heating.

- **Inappropriate Lighting**

Researchers who directed their attention to the classroom lighting found that inadequate lighting results in a number of adverse effects on teachers and learners. Winterbottom & Wilkins (2009) found in their study that high /low luminance and a position close to the line of sight generate decrease in visual performance, eyestrain and headaches. According to Wall (2016), a number of investigators focused on the quality of artificial lighting and found that fluorescent lighting may trigger concentration trouble and raise hyperactivity (Morris Jr, 2003; Woolner et al., 2007); and excessive flickering of this type of lighting may generate seizures in students with photosensitive epilepsy (Mitchell, 2008). Shortcomings in lighting give rise to visual fatigue (Tureková et al., 2018) manifested as burning eyes, headaches and conjunctivitis (Moore, 1998, cited in Tureková et al., 2018). Along with the quality of natural and artificial lighting, windows, as a source of lighting, captured imagination of researchers in the field. It has been found that faulty positioning of windows may disturb learning process. In this regard, Wall (2016) indicated that windows located behind the teacher make teacher’s face look darker than the surroundings, which may be a nuisance to visually or hearing impaired students. Furthermore, the outdoor activity may diverge the students’ attention (Visser, 2001, cited in Wall, 2016).

- **Bad ventilation and Humidity**

Teachers and learners in poorly ventilated classrooms are found to perform inefficiently and ineffectively. In this regard, Schneider (2002) claimed: “... occupants of a classroom without good ventilation can’t function normally and can’t learn at their full capacity” (p. 3). A study carried out by Angelon-Gaetz and colleagues (2016) revealed that Exposure to five days of high (>50%) or low (<30%) classroom relative

humidity (RH) was associated with increased risk of both asthma and cold/ allergy symptoms. On the other hand, Wright (1951) and Winslow & Herrington (1949) contended that the effect of RH is detrimental only in rooms with hot temperature (cited in Mincy Jr, 1961). The concentration of airborne odours, be they pleasant or unpleasant, is reported to be strengthened by a high level of RH, and it gets weakened when the level of RH decreases (Mincy Jr, 1961).

Humidity-related health issues usually evolve from leaks, water damage and moisture caused by failures and mismanagement during construction; postponed refurbishment and restoration; or inappropriate use of the building (Uotila et al., 2019). They can also be produced by indoor pollution which comes from outside and emitted by the traffic, or released from building materials and furnishings (Uotila et al., 2022).

- **Noise**

Noise has been defined as “...unwanted sound ...that produces annoyance or communication or task performance interference” (Westman & Walters, 1981, p. 291). It has been and still is a subject of concern for researchers from various fields. In education, however, noise is “...sadly neglected worldwide” (Dockrell & Shield, 2006; Schick et al., 2000, p. 533), though it is regarded as one of the factors that impede the teaching and learning process. Scholars have divided noise into two types: ambient noise and noise caused by human activity (Rantala et al., 2015). The former refers to the noise coming from inside and outside the classroom during the session, including lights, ventilation, air conditioning, water pipes, heating, traffic, airports, railways, building sites. The one caused by human activity refers to the noise resulting from daily school routines like talking and walking. It also comes from teaching and learning activities. Noise is reported to have a negative effect on both teachers and learners, in that it makes teachers annoyed, less patient, less willing to repeat information, and exhausted (Morris Jr, 2003; Tanner, 2000, cited in Wall, 2016), and it “...increases the difficulty of children hearing and understanding the teacher” (Dockrell, et al., 2003).

- **Inadequate Temperature and Heating**

An abundant number of literature confirmed a relationship between classroom temperature and the attainment of the teaching/learning process. Researchers evidenced that “Both higher and lower temperatures than the comfort zone tend to reduce students’ performance and their ability to grasp instructions” (Jowkaret al., 2020, p. 1). To explore the point to which heating affects students’ academic performances, Holmberg and Wyon (1969, cited in Wargocki & Wyon, 2007) conducted a research, where they put learners in classrooms with three artificially increased temperatures: 20 °C, 27 °C and 30 °C. Their findings demonstrated that students’ performances become worse at 30 °C, particularly in the afternoon.

2) Distressing Classroom Behavioural Climate

The classroom behavioural climate (CBC) was and still is one of the main concerns that caused an avalanche of work in the educational field come to the surface long ago. In the past few decades, the concept of classroom behavioural climate made the research field redirect the focus “...from cognitive outcomes in the classroom to the teacher qualities and their effect on student outcomes” (Garcia, 1992, p. 7). Researchers and educationists directed their intensive attention to the classroom behavioural climate, considering that it is the most acute and intense challenge that the teacher has to deal with in the classroom. It has been asserted that the classroom setting is the cornerstone of the academic achievement.

From many other conditions, a tenacious toxic behavioural classroom environment can evolve from violence, which has been defined by Álvarez-García et al. (2010) as a deliberate hostile comportment that can cause harm or damage (cited in Manzano-Sánchez & Valero-Valenzuela, 2019). Violence, as a threatening way of behaving, has been fragmented by Álvarez (2011) into different forms: violence from teacher to student; direct physical violence between students; indirect physical violence from students; verbal violence between students; verbal violence from student to teacher; violence through the new information technology; class disruption and social exclusion (cited in Manzano-Sánchez & Valero-Valenzuela, 2019, p. 2). Literature conveyed a wide range of constituents that cause the classroom dynamics to be

deleterious, one of which is teachers' expectations that govern teachers' behaviour (Good, 1981). By way of explanation, teachers who put slow students farther away from the teacher, pay less attention to them, criticise them more frequently, praise them less often and ask less effort and less work from them, give rise to students unwilling to participate and ask teachers' help, and seeking to please the teacher rather than learning the subject content (cited in Garcia, 1992).

2.5.1.2. Unavailability of Emotion-based Curricula and Syllabi

Emotion-based curricula and syllabi are regarded as a key element or a central axis around which effective teaching practices revolve. Their unavailability makes both the teaching and learning processes difficult to handle. For instance, the existing restraining suspension and expulsion-related regulations, intended to punish students for any wrongdoing, are proven to distort the principal and foremost intent of education that lies in making balanced and productive citizens and "...responsible, contributing members of society that we all want" (Elias et al, 1997, pp.1-2). To educate balanced citizens who can effectively serve their nations, we should supplement cognitive-based syllabuses and curricula with enhancing socio-emotional ones. Despite the noteworthiness and value of SEL (socio-emotional learning), Frey et al. (2019) believe that it is better to stress: 1) the chronic absenteeism that students who are scared of school and those who feel detached from it contribute to; 2) children who spend time out of class due to their stressful and unpleasant relationships with their fellows and adults; 3) the unmet needs of the students who bring demanding mental health requirements to school.

2.5.1.3. Absence or Defective Teacher Training and Education

The biggest problem and deficiency in teacher education and training lies in the incompatibility between the imposed traditional curriculum and the high educational standards that meet the requirements of the new era- the era that requires teachers to: 1) understand how people learn and how to teach effectively, including aspects of pedagogical content knowledge that incorporate language, culture, and community contexts for learning; 2) understand the person, the spirit of every child and find a way

to nurture that spirit; 3) construct and manage classroom activities efficiently, communicate well, use technology, and reflect on their practice to learn from and improve it continually (Darling-Hammond, 2010, p. 223). These standards are suggested to meet “...not only learners’ needs but also of society” (Presadă & Badea, 2017, p. 94). In the midst of these issues, an American high school curriculum expert made the following assertion:

Educators need to be advocates. The majority of our days and lives are spent working in schools... We can talk about class size or the need for books in a way that no one else can. We’re traveling in hard times—budget cuts and top-down decision making take education out of the hands of teachers and [put it] into the pockets of corporate publishers and politicians. In the past 20 years, we have witnessed an erosion of teachers’ rights. We can’t stand idly by while public education is dismantled. (National Council of Teachers of English, 2005, quoted in Richardson, 2010, p. 201).

With reference to the US school system, Richardson (2010) remarked that schools’ fate, including teachers, is decided and controlled by the government. She contended: “Schools and, by inference, teachers are subject to politics by virtue of the fact that they are at the mercy of federal, state, and locally elected and appointed officials who determine the distribution of funds and attention” (p. 202).

While countries are still stuck to the old- fashioned concepts such as teacher centeredness, others try to keep pace with the demanding and ever changing world. Romania, for instance, after the Bologna process, brought changes to its educational system. Curricula designed for teacher education and training are no longer based on teacher centered approach; they are rather grounded on student centered approach. This is the case of a number of countries in the world, including Algeria, whose competency-based curricula/syllabuses developed in the 2000’s, are largely learner-centered.

2.5.1.4. Overcrowded classes

The issue of large classes seems to be much more common in the developing countries as the latter are facing a lot of challenges such as large population, shortage

of or inappropriate infrastructure and insufficient amounts of funding provided for educational purposes. Crammed full classes, being one of the main concerns of educationists and pedagogues, are found to leave teachers less productive with poor classroom practices, and make them “spend so much time planning and coordinating class tasks and not enough time addressing the needs of the students” (Layali Amer & Yuni Sari, 2021, p. 94). They usually put teachers in disagreeable and distressing situations that end in “failure to stimulate learners’ interest, and failure to instill critical thinking and problem solving activities in learners” (Matsepe et al., 2019, p. 91), and hamper student- student interaction as well (Nkemleke & Fube, 2021) . In line with this viewpoint, Gary (1995) opined that oversized classes do not only divert students’ attention and distract them from their lessons, and prevent teachers from doing their job innovatively, but they also make teachers persistently struggle to keep order- the struggle that gives rise to emotional exhaustion that is known as ‘burnout’. Glass and Smith (1979) who analysed 80 separate studies from 1925 to 1978 came to the conclusion that large classes have negative impact on learners’ academic attainment. They claimed:

As class-size increases, achievement decreases. A pupil, who would score at about the 63rd percentile on a national test when taught individually, would score at about the 37th percentile in a class of 40 pupils. The difference in being taught in a class of 20 versus a class of 40 is an advantage of ten percentile ranks...Few resources at the command of educators will reliably produce effects of that magnitude. (Quoted in Zyngier, 2014, p. 4)

Lazear (1992) in his research explained how class size plays a key role in learners’ achievement. He put out: “A student who is disruptive or who takes up teacher time in ways that are not useful to other students affects not only his own learning, but that of other in the class. It is for this reason that class size may have important effects on educational output” (p.39). Similarly, Barrett et al. (2019) point out that large or overcrowded classrooms are conducive to a poor learning quality, while spacious and commodious and well equipped rooms do not only guarantee quality learning but also “...help students to acquire collaboration, teamwork, and other interpersonal skills” (p.

8). Kerma (2019), who conducted a study on large classes in the primary schools of Western Algeria, found that teachers were unable to fulfil or attain successful and high standards teaching and control students' behaviour. In this respect, he reported: "In the classroom, large enrolments can increase student disengagement and feelings of withdrawal, which can erode students' spirit of responsibility and guide to behaviours that both reveal and support lack of commitment" (p. 426). Lazear (1992) assumed that the relation between class size and the students' behavioural and academic output is more significant at lower grade levels than upper grade levels. Consistent with this assumption, Zyngier (2014) opined: "...smaller class sizes in the first four years of school can have an important and lasting impact on student achievement, especially for children from culturally, linguistically and economically disenfranchised communities" (p. 1). Addressing the matter in depth, Marais (2016) claimed that even the most effective and successful learning approaches and methods cannot be put into practice in such classes. In accordance with this stance, Hattie (2005) contended: "Teaching practices that are conducive to successful learning are more likely to occur in smaller rather than larger classes..." (p. 417). To soften the question of large classes, Marais (2016) put forward the implementation of teacher education and training programs that elevate student teachers' skills and self-confidence mainly those who have never been exposed to oversized classes. In addition, in a study he carried out on mathematics crammed full classes, Ojonubah (2015) reported the usefulness and profitability of the implementation of ICT (Information and Communication Technology) to improve learners' academic attainment. It is also noteworthy to mention that small size classes are found to work at a higher level especially when they are "...combined with appropriate teacher pedagogies suited to reduced student numbers" (Zyngier, 2014, p. 1).

2.5.2. Psychological Deterrents

The second type of psychological deterrent is essentially linked to burnout and emotional exhaustion. Despite the welfare and prosperousness it provides, the economically, socially and technologically exploding world we live in is condemned by several experts, mainly psychologists and psychotherapists, as being one of the

main sources of physical and mental health disorders (Rafla et al., 2014; Johnson et al. 2020; Coccia, 2021). Working environments are no longer such enjoyable, comfortable and agreeable places; they are rather distressing, threatening and frustrating. Workplaces, in contrast with the past, are conventionally claimed to engender physical and mental exhaustion that is referred to as 'burnout'.

Much has been written about burnout that is considered as a phenomenon resulting from persistent stress. It has been described as "...a long term exhaustion process which results from an imbalance between investments (demands) and outcomes" (Ladstätter & Garrosa, 2008, p.1). Maslach & Leiter (1997) suggested that the mismatch between individual's nature and the job's nature usually leads to burnout. According to Blazer, (2010, p. 1), burnout is "characterized by feelings of alienation, indifference, and low self-regard, a loss of interest in work, and an inability to perform one's day-to-day job duties". Although Schaufeli (1999, p. 19) pointed out that "...burnout occurs in normal individuals who do not suffer from psychopathology", burnout was found to be the origin of many physical and mental disorders like high blood pressure, chronic fatigue, anxiety, depression, etc (Maslach and Leiter, 1997). Schaufeli & Enzmann (1998) found teachers to be more susceptible to burnout, compared to other professionals. Contrary to the assumption of burnout being a problem of people, advanced and extensive research argued that burnout is the problem of the social environment in which people work (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). The main symptoms of burnout, according to Blazer (2010, p. 3), are: 1) psychological symptoms (feelings of frustration, anger, dissatisfaction and anxiety); 2) physical symptoms (physical exhaustion or a general feeling of being tired and rundown); 3) behavioural symptoms (tardiness, absenteeism, poor job performance, and lack of interest and commitment). Following the principle of causality, one can safely say that burnout does not come into being from nothing. With reference to research findings demonstrating that burnout is the problem of the working environment, Maslach and Leiter (1997, p. 26), sorted out six sources of burnout that are: 1) work overload; 2) lack of control; 3) insufficient reward; 4) unfairness; 5) breakdown of community; and 6) value conflict.

As far as teachers are concerned, the latter are reported to be affected by burnout when their stress and nervous tension conquer or overpower their ability to cope with the unpleasant working conditions (Brunsting et al, 2014). Literature suggests that teachers' burnout has an advert effect on the learners both academically and behaviourally. On this point, Dorman (2003) stated: "Consequences of burnout are teacher behaviour which influences student perceptions and evaluation, and subsequent student behaviours and outcomes" (p. 45). In the same way, Brunsting and his colleagues (2014) stated that teachers' burnout makes troublesome and undisciplined students who are socially and emotionally unbalanced, and goes far to affect their families and school system as a whole.

The degree of teachers' burnout seems to be gender- based and it varies according to school level and teaching experience. On this matter, Antoniou and his colleagues (2013) found that female teachers experience higher degree of professional stress and lower level of accomplishment. As for school level, they reported primary school teachers to be more subjected to stress and emotional exhaustion. Finally, their study also showed that teachers with 11- 15 years of experience undergo high level of stress and burnout than teachers with 1 - 10 years and those with more than 15 years of experience. The issue of teacher burnout captivated attention of a lot of scholars, and so did the strategies for coping with it. Blazer, (2010) points out that burnout is not permanent; it can disappear when working environment gets improved, or when individuals develop the ability to cope with working conditions. In the same line of thought, positive psychology trend believes that in spite of the detrimental repercussions that burnout may have on the teachers, there still is a likelihood of them coping with or even combatting it with positive temperament and mentality such as forgiveness and gratitude. Forgiveness has been found to help to avoid stress related cardiovascular and neuroendocrine reactivity, and gratitude strengthens favourable social relationships (Chan, 2010). As the causes of burnout affirmed by Maslach and Leither (1997) to be situational and not personal, these authors sustained that this emotional exhaustion can be efficaciously dealt with when both individual and workplace are brought to the fore, not just the individual alone. To find a way out and

handle the issue of burnout, Maslach and Leither (2005) suggested a good match between the person and the nature of the job. In this respect they contended:

When there is a good fit or match between you and It, then you will be engaged with your work. You will be happy, energetic, confident, and ready to commit to a productive long-term relationship. But when there is a poor fit and a major mismatch between you and It, then you will be experiencing burnout. You will be unhappy, exhausted, cynical, and ready to quit and leave It for another job (p. 2).

2.6. Teachers' Emotional Education and Development

Emotional education and development are seen as reverberations of humanist philosophies of adult education that focuses attention on the importance of understanding human emotions, feelings and duty rather than conveying traditions and ideas (Boud, 1989). Existing evidence suggests that teachers' emotional development is a fuel for socio- emotional and cognitive skills of the learners. In this respect, Rogers and Freiberg (1994) believe teacher-student relationship to be a key to learning. Teachers should have every confidence in their learners' ability to think and learn for themselves. Hence, teacher's role is to clear and smooth the way for learning by creating an adequate environment that fosters learners to take responsibility for their learning. They also suggested that individuals' different ways of learning depends on their personality and emotions. As a matter of fact, the teacher's multi-faceted role includes: a) creating a positive climate for learning; b) clarifying the purposes of learning; c) making learning resources available; d) balancing intellectual and emotional components of learning; e) and sharing feelings and thoughts with learners; f) and the role of reflection in learning is collaborative, helping learners to make sense of feelings, ideas and processes through dialogue with peers and teachers (cited in Ions, 2016, p. 28-29). Positive teacher- learner relationships can affect all activities in the classroom. They shape learners' positive behaviour and attitudes towards their teachers and the material as well. Most importantly, these positive relationships render teachers more flexible and make students welcome and gladly accept any activity or method of teaching as long as their teachers have their best interest at heart (Mortiboy,

2005). Schonert-Reichl (2017) pointed out that teachers with developed emotional characteristics foster both learning and positive relationships among their students. On the other hand, those who lack emotional features make their learners suffer academically as well as emotionally. The strength and vitality of teachers' emotional development is reflected in its power to make even socially disadvantaged children flourish and feel well (Jensen et al., 2015). A significant body of literature suggests that more emotionally effective teachers are those who follow emotional education programs. Lam and Wong (2017), who carried out an investigation on kindergarten teachers in Hong Kong, came to the conclusion that teachers who followed the intervention programme, based on the conceptual framework of the evidence-based Wisconsin Pyramid Model for Supporting Social Emotional Competence in Infants and Young Children, contributed significantly to the reduction of children's anxiety-withdrawal and anger-aggression. Similarly, Marques et al. (2020) found that emotional education program had a positive outcome on Brazilian public school teachers' self-awareness and self-management. Fried (2011) assumed that teacher training programs cannot be effective unless they are based on a deeper cognizance of the role of emotions in the teaching profession.

As far as Algerian pre-service ENSB teachers are concerned, they receive courses on pedagogy, but they should also attend courses on emotionality, in addition to morals and values. Effective emotional courses afford skillful proceeding on how to emotionally manage large classes with more than fifty pupils in certain areas, with different intelligences and different social, intellectual and cultural backgrounds. In other words, teachers should be taught how to manage their emotions and those of their students, how to be caring, understanding, motivators, facilitators and fair with every single pupil. Value and moral courses, on the other hand, provide teachers with maneuvers on how to be reflective and role players/models and how to teach morals and values to their students to become productive citizens. Mergler (2008) assumed that values education "...involves the explicit consideration, discussion, and/or debating of values such as respect, inclusion, responsibility and perseverance in the classroom and/or the school community" (p. 3). From this literature survey, one may

suggest that teacher training programs in Algeria should include three dimensions: pedagogical, moral and emotional education.

Conclusion

This chapter has dealt with the classroom practices of an emotionally intelligent teacher. It has described the emotional features of the effective teacher which are essential to promote learning and happiness in the classroom. Also the pedagogical and psychological deterrents that may inhibit learning have been discussed such as poor classroom environment and teacher burnout. The conclusion that can be drawn is that, alongside cognitive-based education, emotional education is of great value, even vital if it were to shape balanced individuals that can productively and profitably serve their nations. These individuals require emotionally developed teachers who can handle their classrooms in a manner that best suits the circumstances on the one hand, and learning that is made of emotion-based curricula and syllabi, on the other. To have teachers endowed with emotional classroom practices, i.e. caring, fair, reflective, motivating, enthusiastic, communicative, and those passionate about their profession, there should be tri-dimensional teacher education and training (pedagogical, emotional and moral) that should put at teacher's disposal relevant and up to date approaches and methods. Being emotionally intelligent has been revealed to be beneficial not only to learners but also to teachers as it helps them combat stress or burnout.

In order to consider whether emotional intelligence is an attribute of female or male teachers, it is worth investigating the question of gender in relation to emotional teaching. The next chapter critically examines this issue.

Chapter Three

Chapter Three

Gender- Based Emotional Intelligence

Introduction

Gender-related behaviour, a long-standing and hotly-debated issue, has always been a subject of scrutiny. It has often captured the imagination and urged the inspiration of researchers from different fields. Being a part of human behaviours, emotions have recently gained attention of a multitude of scholars. Several studies (Katyal & Awasthi, 2005; Singh, 2002; Sutarso, 1999) have reported women to be more emotionally intelligent, while their counterparts have been claimed to score higher in Psychometric Intelligence. Neuroscientists, for instance, argue that these discrepancies are purely biological, in that male's and female's behaviours are determined by hormones such as Testosterone, Progesterone, Oxytocin, Estrogen...etc. Psychologists believe that gender unlikeness stands on male's and female's psychology. Sociologists and sociolinguists, on the other hand, assume that men's and women's behaviours are socio-culturally oriented. This chapter will discuss the extent to which men and women differ in terms of emotions and emotional intelligence, and the factors that bring those differences into existence. It includes two sections. Section 3.1. deals with men's and women's emotions and features that discriminate between them, such as self- awareness, motivation, self-regulation, empathy and social skills. Section 3.2. examines the reasons for so called gender- related differences, which may be neurobiological, psychological or social.

3.1. Men's Versus Women's Emotions

Inescapable gender differences make men and women look like they are from two different planets, "Women are from Venus, men are from Mars" (Gray, 1993). In this section, gender emotional discrepancies are discussed in relation to Goleman's (1998) performance- based emotional intelligence theory. Based on their theory, the different factors such as self-awareness, motivation, self-regulation, empathy and social skills are discussed below.

3.1.1. Self-awareness

The many- sided nature of the ‘self’ urged scholars philosophers, poets, psychologists, biologists...etc to explore the meaning and set a panoply of theories about the ‘self’ and its constituents (Freshwater, 2002). In 1972, the two psychologists, Shelly Duval and Robert Wicklund developed ‘self-awareness’ theory. They described it as “the capacity of becoming the object of one’s own attention”, contrary to ‘consciousness’ that is defined as “focusing attention outward toward the environment” (Morin, 2011, p. 807). Self-awareness refers to “having a deep understanding of one’s emotions, strengths, weaknesses, needs, and drives” (Goleman, 1998, pp. 95-96). Self-awareness is also described as:

...the capacity for introspection and the ability to reconcile oneself as an individual separate from the environment and other individuals. As the conscious understanding of one’s thoughts, feelings, actions and interpersonal connections, self-awareness can help him/her gain insight into the factors that influence the external world as well as the internal beliefs, values and morals. (Xu, 2014, p. 1681).

Self-awareness or ‘self-image’ is closely related to how one understands oneself as a human being; and this ‘self-understanding’ is much more affected by the surrounding environment than by one’s identity (Moen, 2018).

Comparing self against standards, researchers could distinguish two types of self-awareness: low self-awareness and high self-awareness. The former happens when the relationship between the self and a given standard is ambiguous and vague to the person; the latter takes place when the relationship between the self and a given standard is lucid, i.e. when similarities and differences between the self and a given standard are unequivocal to the person (Duval & Silvia, 2002).

Self-awareness has been scrutinised and dealt with from different angles, and an avalanche of studies on gender-related self-awareness confirmed a considerable disparity between men and women. Research on alcohol and drug addiction, for instance, reported the feeling of shame, guilt, fear and despair that had been much

more internalised by women than by men (Covington, 2002). Negotiation scholars also observed male's outperformance in negotiations (Kimmel et al., 1980; Bowles & Kray, 2013). In this respect Kimmel et al. (1980, pp. 21-22) contended:

Men and women behaved similarly and showed similar correlations on most measures. But a few interesting differences suggest that in comparison with men, women did not seem so comfortable with the task or so involved with the formal bargaining role: They spoke less...; they showed less interest in the experiment and more self-doubt; and they made fewer references to their companies and the hypothetical commercial world surrounding the negotiation. ...they made less use of positional commitments, threats, and derogatory put-downs. These are standard distributive tactics found in most formal negotiations. Women may have rejected them because the role of formal negotiator was ego alien.

Women are reported to have so much low self- esteem that some highly successful and respected women refer their achievement and success to luck rather than to their intelligence, while their counterparts attribute their success to their ability (Clance & Imes, 1978). According to Frieze et al. (1982), numerous models have been proposed to impart gender-based attributions, three of which are: a) General Externality; b) Self-Derogation; c) Low Expectancy. The first model (General Externality) is explained by the fact that women attribute their success to external factors such as luck and task ease because they "...tend to have less control over their destinies"(Frieze et al., 1982, p. 335). Self-Derogation, on the other hand, suggests that while women's success is attributed to external factors, their failure is referred to the internal ones, such as lack of ability. This internal attribution is found to emanate from low self-esteem and negative information that women have about themselves. The third model (Low expectancy), argues that women have low expectations with regard to their achievements mainly for tasks regarded as "masculine", or those in which they have less experience (Frieze et al., 1982).

One might think that self-awareness covers only the psychological features of the individuals while, in fact, it goes further to comprise their physical appearance. It is believed that the positive body image is so powerful that it induces to a higher extent

enjoyment of life with friends and even with oneself (Cardoso et al., 2010). Research conducted on body self-awareness, more precisely body satisfaction and dissatisfaction, reported significant body dissatisfaction felt by women (McGuinness & Taylor, 2016) inasmuch as they are more influenced by the ideal body shape than men (Cardoso, 2010; McGuinness & Taylor, 2016). In North America, for example, this discrepancy was confirmed in 2003 by the Canadian Mental Health Association that reported 70% of women and 35% of men going on diet (Brennan et al., 2010). It has been suggested that one of the reasons why women feel dissatisfied with their body shape is midlife biological changes due to ageing, pregnancy and menopause (McGuinness & Taylor, 2016). In the same line with this, studies showed that women have an increased beauty self-awareness than men; they have been found to be more concerned with the beauty of smiles, esthetical implications of missing teeth and with scars resulting from physical injuries (Silva et al., 2012). Self-awareness can be improved by means of techniques that are set to reduce anxiety or depression- related symptoms (Visani et al., 2010).

3.1.2. Motivation

Motivation, a shift in individual's behaviour due to internal (innate) or external (environmental) stimuli (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Laming 2004) that “energizes and guides behaviour toward a particular outcome” (Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000, p. xvii) has been defined by Ingle (2014, p. 1) as “inner and outer factors which encourage aspiration and dynamism in people to be continually interested and dedicated to a job, a role or a topic, or to make an effort to reach a goal”. Maslow (1943) pointed out that physiological needs-related motivation is the most important of all; man who lacks food, security, love and esteem, for instance, would undoubtedly express more desire for food than any other thing.

Motivation is believed to be an amalgam of factors. Students' motivation, for instance, comprehends factors, two of which are personal and socio-cultural that depend on personal, family and cultural experiences (Dembo, 2004). The issue of motivation has been profoundly explored by scholars who came out with a vast array of perspectives. Controversy amongst psychologists gave rise to a lot of divergent

approaches to motivation: Mechanistic Approaches, Organismic Approaches, and Cognitive Approaches. Mechanistic Approaches, set by behaviourists and psychoanalysts, regard human being as a mechanism that operates following the surrounding spurs. That is to say, individuals behave according to the give - and- take of internal and external forces, known as stimuli- responses nexus. Organismic Approaches, led by cognitivists, on the other hand, assume that motivation is grounded on affect. In other words, affect fuels and determines human behaviour. Contrary to behaviourists and psychoanalysts who believe that man's behaviour is determined by the environment, cognitivists suggest that humans, being endowed with cognitive and/ or affective skills, interact with their environment, and bring changes to acclimatize to it. Finally, Cognitive Approaches, on the same wavelength with Organismic Approaches, suggest that humans' behaviour is shaped by their decisions, i.e. behaviour is a result of the way humans conceive their environment (Deci, 1976).

Motivation is split into different types according to people's level of motivation and orientation (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 54), two of which are prominently distinguished: intrinsic and extrinsic. "Complexity in understanding intrinsic motivation" (Sansone& Harackiewicz, 2000, p. 444) gave birth to a vast array of definitions. Intrinsic motivation is innate and a "result of the person's interaction with his environment" (Deci, 1975, p. 66); it "refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable" (Ryan and Deci, 2000, p. 55). Similarly, (Sansone& Harackiewicz, 2000, p. 16) pointed out "intrinsic motivation is entailed whenever people behave for the satisfaction inherent in the behaviour itself", i.e. people act for their own satisfaction. According to Hunt (1971), in the course of their life, humans pass through three stages of intrinsic motivation: at birth, 4 months, and 9 months. At the later stage (9 months) children's motivation becomes similar to adults' because around this age children start to look for challenges, and finding these challenges and overcoming them make children feel competent and self-determined (cited in Deci, 1975, p. 65). Keeping challenges in view, Patall et al. (2008), believe that intrinsic motivation is associated with high levels of effort and task performance as well as preference for challenge, (cited in Froiland, et al., 2012, p. 91). Amabile (1983a, cited in Deci & Ryan, 1985b) suggested that creativity is closely related to intrinsic

motivation, i.e. people are found to be more creative when they are intrinsically motivated.

Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, refers to the act of providing a reward when a task is properly performed; "...it comes from outside the individual, and results from the expectation of receiving external rewards such as salary, benefits, incentives, promotions and recognition in exchange for job performance" (Ledford et al., 2013, p. 17). Extrinsic motivation can vary in terms of autonomy. In other words, a student that performs the task just to avoid parental punishment, and a student who performs the task because he/she believes it is important for his/her career, are both extrinsically motivated but their degree of autonomy is not the same: the former's motivation is driven by an external control, and the latter's is driven by a personal choice (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Extrinsic motivation is said to undermine intrinsic motivation (Sansone & Harackiewicz, 2000), in that it makes people less creative (Amabile, 1983a) and feel like slaves rather than masters of their actions (deCharms, 1968). In spite of its negative effect, "...extrinsic motivation is used by educators to make their teaching successful since many tasks to be performed by the students are not agreeable and interesting" (Ryan and Deci, 2000, p. 55).

Keeping gender in view, praise or positive feedback, which is also a source of motivation, is reported to have different interpretations. Several studies such as those conducted by Deci (1975), Deci & Ryan (1985b), and Katz et al. (2006) showed that men regard praise from another person as an indicator of competence that boosts their intrinsic motivation; it is a message that informs them how well they are competent. Women, on the other hand, consider praise as a controlling external intervention that weakens their intrinsic motivation by extinguishing their sense of independence. This discrepancy is based on social orientations that support males' independence, and females' weakness (Deci & Ryan, 1985b).

Incentives are also said to be shaped and determined by the individuals' gender. This discrepancy occurs at an early age of the individuals, and one does not need to be an expert to notice it. Toys, for instance, have different motivational effects on

children: girls are more enhanced by dolls, whereas boys are most likely to be stimulated by balls. In their comprehensive review on individual interest, Renninger (1990; 2000) and Brizendine (2006) pointed to the fact that boys and girls engage differently even with a same object. When they were given a truck, not surprisingly, girls wrapped it in a blanket and rocked it like a doll, however boys used it as it is used in the real world. Consistently with this study, evidence suggested the different ways computers are manipulated by schoolgirls and schoolboys. The former (girls) are found to prefer social uses of computers such as communication, publishing and photo manipulation software, while their counterparts showed their propensity for database software, file manipulation CD-ROMs and the internet (Aubrey & Dahl, 2008).

The dimension of fields and subjects of interest has also been an issue that a great deal of literature approached. Several studies (Brezendine, 2006; Hill et al., 2010; Wajcman 2010; Deikman et al., 2015) assumed that females are less likely to have interest in Scientific, Technology, Engineering, Mathematics (STEM) fields. These are seen as predominantly male domains whose “entering... requires women to sacrifice major aspects of their feminine identity” (Wajcman, 2010: 145). Not only are women less interested in STEM fields, they are also reported to make little progress in leadership of these fields compared to non- STEM fields (Deikman et al., 2015). According to Niemeier & González (2004), a survey conducted by the Association of American Universities, women chaired only 2.7% of engineering departments, 5.9% of math or physical science departments, and 12.7% of life science departments, while they chaired 23.4% of business departments and 31.5% of humanities departments.

Negotiation, as a part of Economics, also witnesses gender disparity. Women are found unwilling to negotiate and are less likely to “encounter more social resistance than men across all types of potential negotiating contexts” (Bowles et al., 2007, p. 85). Surprisingly, research on athleticism, thought of as being a predominately male field, showed the opposite. A study conducted by Chantal et al. (1996) on Bulgarian elite athletes, demonstrated a higher intrinsic motivation in women than men. One of the reasons of this gender gap may be that these women “...wanted a new challenge to keep them healthy, fit, and in shape” (Waddel- Smith, 2010, p. 12). Yu (2006), in line

with this view, contended that most of his participants, especially women, declared that physical activities help to maintain a good body shape or image.

3.1.3 Self-regulation

Complexity of human behaviours urged researchers namely psychologists, neuropsychologists and sociologists to set theories and provide explanations focusing on how individuals regulate and modulate their behaviours to interact appropriately with their environments. As a matter of fact, a vast array of definitions of self-regulation has been generated. Self-regulation “...is not just one more thing that the self does” (Baumeister, 2018, p. 2); it is “... the ways that learners systematically activate and sustain their cognitions, motivations, behaviours, and affects, toward the attainment of their goals” (Schunk & Greene, 2018, p. 1). Self-regulation “is vital for autonomous and adaptive psychological and social functioning” (Hrabok & Kerns, 2010, p. 129). In line with this definition, Berger (2011, p. 3) pointed to the fact that self-regulation “happens when individuals adapt their emotions and actions to the internalised situational requirements and social norms and standards”.

Wagner and Heatherton (2011, p. 45) define self-regulation in terms of daily-life strategies. It is “... holding regulatory strategies in mind and ensuring that these are not derailed by distractions, such as when a restrained eater suddenly finds him- or herself ambushed by appetizing foods”

According to Berger (2011), the initial form of self-regulation takes place in the first months of life, and its development passes through stages. At the first stage, infants possess neurophysiological modulatory mechanisms that protect them from too much arousal or stimulation, and make them able to reduce the level of stimulation by disregarding the source of stimulation (i.e., closing their eyes), engaging in self-soothing activities (e.g., sucking), or both. In the second stage, infants begin to show cycles of wakefulness fitting physical and social definitions of day and night. The next stage, during which the type of self-regulation is called sensori-motor modulation, continues until the age of 9 to 12 months; infants understand and become aware and capable of intentional means-end actions, and start to act in accordance with external

signals and commands. At this stage, infants become more self- directed, using their sensori-motor stock to adjust and regulate their communication with the environment.

Discomfort, either social or emotional, is suggested to be the major source of threat and depletion of self- regulation (Wieber & Gollwitzer, 2016). Wagner and Heatherton (2015) went further to include other threatening factors that work either separately or most of the time in conjunction: 1) Cue Exposure and Impulse Control; 2) Emotional and Social Distress; 3) Lapse-Activated Patterns and Abstinence Violations; 4) Impairments of Self-Monitoring and Self-Awareness ; 5) Influence of Other People; 6) Self-Regulatory Resource Depletion; 7) Alcohol Intoxication. Mroczek et al. (2006) pointed out that self- regulation is basically made of mood regulation that refers to the ability to control and direct one's mood. This assumption implies that another threat to self-regulation is the failure of mood control exertion. Two sorts of individuals could be distinguished: highly neurotic and slightly neurotic. Highly neurotic individuals consider stressors as threats rather than challenges, and are those who experienced and were exposed to a large number of stressful events in their lives. Consequently, when they come across stressful events, they react very negatively (Mroczek et al. 2006).

Defective self- regulation results in personal and societal ills, such as interpersonal violence, self-defeating behaviours, substance abuse, underachievement, obesity, and poor health (Bauer & Baumeister, 2011); it also generates fatal damages such as neurological and cardiovascular that, in turn, may lead to precocious death (Mroczek et al. 2006). Defective self- regulation is found to be a heavy burden that costs society a lot in social and economic terms, while successful self-regulation spreads and fosters righteous and upstanding behaviours. It diminishes selfish wishes that may put common interest at risk, and it extinguishes hostility and violent impulses that ruin and subvert prosocial goals (Bauer & Baumeister, 2011).

Researchers and educationalists revealed the importance of self- regulation in learning, in that “Self-regulated learners engage in self-generated thoughts, actions, and feelings while pursuing academic goals. The most successful learners use appropriate learning strategies and maintain high levels of motivation” (Bembenutty, 2007, p. 586).

Gender differentiation in self-regulation has been asserted by a great number of scholars from different areas of specialisation. Van Deursen et al. (2015) who studied self-regulation in relation to addictive smartphone behaviour, found that men are better in self-regulation than their counterparts who develop more addictive smartphone behaviour. Moreover, women and men are reported not to use their smartphones for the same purposes: women are more likely to use their smartphones to sustain social relationships through conversations and gossips (Jenaro et al., 2007) that are considered as a form of women's aggressiveness intended to mangle someone's reputation (Crick et al. 1996; Ostrov et al. 2006). Though both men and women experience anger, they differ in the way they express it (Birditt & Fingerman, 2003). Women are found to show higher levels of intensity because they know that when they are in trouble regarding their social relationships, there are a lot of things at risk (Antonucci, 2001; Belle, 1991).

In respect to learning, Simmons (2010), who scrutinised gender differences between male and female African American high school students, pointed out that gender discrepancy starts to come to the surface during middle school. SalmerónPérez et al. (2017) carried out research on gender- based self- regulating learning, and found substantial differentiations between the two genders. They came to the conclusion that female students “show a greater degree of control and regulation in the development of their learning, both cognitive and social, linked to their studies” (Salmerón Pérez et al., 2017, p. 357). On the same wavelength, research conducted by Bembenutty (2007) on gender and ethnic differences with regard to self- regulation of learning and academic delay of gratification, revealed that female college students experienced a higher motivation and self-regulation than their male counterparts.

3.1.4 Empathy

Empathy gained attention of a good deal of researchers who put forward a multitude of definitions and explications. The latter swung from cognitive perspective to emotional perspective (Stotland, 1969; Mehrabian & Epstein, 1972; Coke et al., 1978; Hoffman, 1987; Welmoed Niezink, 2008). The word ‘empathy’ was coined by Titchener in 1909. It was a translation of the German word “Einfühlung” (Keen, 2007;

Welmoed Niezink, 2008; Batson, 2009) that was first used by Lipps in 1903 (Batson, 2009). From the psychological point of view, Titchener (1915) defined empathy as an individual's awareness of peoples' emotions or a social- cognitive relationship. In the same vein, Breggin (1997, p. 125) referred to empathy as awareness of "...the consequences of our actions for other people and all life forms". He continued: "It encourages us to feel responsible as human beings for the suffering of others... It prohibits us from wantonly injuring anyone, even our supposed enemies. Empathy makes us yearn for justice for all people. It opens our hearts to victims of violence, prejudice, and injustice". From the clinical point of view, considered as a cognitive process, empathy means to understand exactly what people think of their condition (Dymond, 1949). In line with this definition, Hogan (1969, p. 8) regarded empathy as "the intellectual or imaginative apprehension of another's condition or state of mind without actually experiencing that person's feelings" (Quoted in Caruso & Mayer, 1998, p. 3).

Empathy as an emotional contagion can be triggered by different ways, be they direct or indirect. Keen (2007) believes that witnessing or hearing about another's emotional state and condition, or even reading have the potential to give rise to empathy. Empathy is said not to be always a conscious reaction, as individuals can experience it from birth. Giving strength to this perspective, Keen (2007) asserted: "...the neonates who cry at the sound of other babies' cries are almost certainly unaware of their primitive empathy" (p.04). Constant with this assumption, Diego & Jones (2007) contended that empathy comes into existence from birth as a basic process that develops through time along with individual's cognitive and social experiences. According to these authors, a vast array of theories has been set to demonstrate empathy's development: 1) temperament/newborn arousal and regulation theories focusing on biologically based systems that predispose individual differences in the capacity for emotional and empathic responding; 2) attunement among dyads theories that deal with psychobiological harmony between mothers and babies designed to form the solid basis for empathy in their early interaction model; 3) stage theories that detail consecutive phases for development of empathy. These phases see newborn's distress response to a peer's distress as the first sign of empathy, therefore,

the basis of empathic responding all through the lifetime.; 4) learning and modelling theories, being grounded on learning and modelling principles, consider family ways of encouragement and advancement of empathic responding as the basis of empathic capacities. This implies that parents exhibiting emphatic behaviours contribute to the development of their children's empathy.

These theories support Keen (2007) who suggested that people vary in empathy depending on environment, heritability genetics and family relationships. In this respect, he asserted: "While a well-regulated person may experience empathy that leads to sympathetic concern and altruism in real life, another individual may become distressed by exposure to another's condition. (Keen, 2007, p. 3).

Several theories are put forward to explicate the way we understand and know another's thought and feelings: 1) knowing another person's internal state; 2) adopting the posture or matching the neural responses of an observed other; 3) coming to feel as another person feels; 4) intuiting or projecting oneself into another's situation; 5) imagining how another is thinking and feeling; 6) imagining how one would think and feel in the other's place (Batson, 2009: pp. 8-9). According to this author, while some theories focus on one of these ways or phenomena, others combine various ways. In neurological terms, our understanding of other people is shaped by our brain cells called 'mirror neurons' (Keen, 2007; back et al., 2009; Iacoboni, 2009). From Iacoboni's (2009) point of view, mirror neurons are "...the tiny miracles that get us through the day. They are at the heart of how we navigate through our lives. They bind us with each other, mentally and emotionally" (p. 4).

Mirroring, a system for understanding other's emotional states and conditions, is found to be more powerful between parents and their children, especially mothers. An experiment was carried out in Rome by Iacoboni and a group of Italian neuroscientists and psychologists on maternal empathy particularly mothers' neural responses. This experiment consisted in giving mothers their own and other babies' pictures to look at and imitate their expressions. These babies, expressing joy, distress, and no particular emotion, were six to twelve months old. The results showed a high stimulation of mothers' mirror neurons by the observed babies' facial expressions. More

interestingly, the findings revealed further activation and stimulation of these neurons when mothers looked at their own babies pictures (Iacoboni, 2009). Neuroscientists have reported that the right hemisphere, specifically the right temporal lobe, is involved in empathy. They have also observed frontal or posterior lesions in the right hemisphere (Shamay-Tsoory et al., 2009), as well as a decrease in volume in the right temporal pole, right fusiform gyrus, right caudate, and right subcallosal gyrus (Rankin et al., 2006). These findings have been linked to increased empathy disorder (Rueckert & Naybar, 2008). Chapman (2005) believes that empathy's longevity depends on the quality of interrelation between individuals or between individuals and the objects they use, i.e. it expires or vanishes when the relationship fades. Consistently, Calzadilla-Núñez et al. (2017) pointed out that sudden changes or decline in empathy, called 'erosion of empathy', are strengthened by the presence of suffering. Ms. G., a double amputee patient suffering from diabetes and kidney failure, provides evidence of her husband's abandonment. After her husband deserted her and felt in love with someone else, she gave herself the right to refuse to process her psychological distress at her husband's news (Halpern, 2001).

An abundance of works and evidence from behavioural studies confirmed association between empathy and gender, reporting women to be more empathic than their male counterparts. Empathy gender- related differences have been highlighted to reach the pinnacle of divergence in young adulthood, but decline to converge in old adulthood (Swickert et al., 2016; Daltry et al., 2018). These discrepancies are suggested to be situation- based and do not concern all empathic ability (Rueckert & Naybar, 2008; Alam et al., 2016). Several studies, for instance, reported men to be more helpful to strangers- the fact that may be considered by women as a kind of threat (Eagly & Crowley, 1986; Rueckert et al., 2011). Similarly, men are claimed to score higher than women in terms of forgiveness, but women are reported to be more forgiving in emotional contexts (Alam et al., 2016). Elayyan et al. (2018), in a research on factors affecting empathetic patient care behaviour among medical doctors and nurses, highlighted that female healthcare professionals are more empathetic to patients than men are. These gender differentiations emerge probably due to the gender role perspective which makes allusion to the fact that empathy-based

differences vary according to culture and nationality. In this regard, Kadiangandu et al. (2001), who carried out a study on French and Congolese people in the matter of forgiveness, suggested that gender difference also vary according to nationality. In the research they conducted, they found a significant difference in the French sample as opposed to the Congolese (Alam et al., 2016).

Psychoneuroendocrinologists believe that empathy is purely biological (Zilioli et al., 2014), and refer empathy gender gap to hormones. Testosterone, for instance, is leagued with aggression, antisocial behaviour and social dominance (Van Wingen et al., 2011; Heeger, 2013), and oestrogen with maternal behaviour and relationship (Feldman et al., 2007; Strathearn et al., 2009; Heeger, 2013). In this respect, investigators using “Reading the Eyes in the Mind Task” REMT (Baron-Cohen et al., 2001), a task designed to test individual’s ability to understand another person’s thoughts and emotions based upon the expression of their eyes, confirmed a low performance of men mainly those exposed to relatively high testosterone concentrations early in development (Carré et al., 2015). In line with these findings, Hermans et al. (2006), Van Honk & Schutter (2007) and Zilioli et al. (2014) suggest that women under exogenous testosterone- based treatment show low empathic responses in a test that measures the automatic, unconscious mirroring of another’ s motor actions. Zilioli et al. (2014), on the other hand, assumed that only individuals with a high level of testosterone and a low amount of cortisol experience low levels of empathy. To put it another way, a good concentration of both testosterone and cortisol generates higher levels of empathy.

3.1.5. Social Skills

The last factor which may help discriminate between female and male teachers in terms of Emotional Intelligence is related to social skills. A consistent body of literature has been and is still devoted to the issue of ‘social skills’ that is interchangeably used with ‘interpersonal skill’, ‘interpersonal competence’, ‘social competence’, or ‘communication competence’ (Segrin & Givertz, 2003). Scholars put forward a vast array of definitions, though “there is no clear consensus on what social skill is” (Trower, 1982, p. 407), attempting to bring to light the sum and substance of

the concept. Libet & Lewinsohn (1973, p. 311) defined social skills as “the ability to maximize the rate of positive reinforcement and minimize the strength of punishment from others”. In line with this definition, Elliott and Gresham (1993, p. 287) described the concept as “...socially acceptable learned behaviours that enable a person to interact with others in ways that elicit positive responses and assist in avoiding negative responses”. Social skills, as the name indicates, refer not only to being polite to people and respect their opinions but also to have the skill and dexterity to make oneself understood and respected by others (Csóti, 2001). According to this author, the acquisition of the social skills is not planned except for some instructions to children when asked to say ‘thank you’, ‘please’...etc.

Social interactions and skills, as a complicated and challenging daily task that people deal with, entail a variety of psychological networks such as perception, language, and problem solving that grow throughout childhood and shaped by biological and environmental circumstances; and dysfunction of these networks may be problematic and controversial (Dempsey & Matson, 2009), in the sense that people who lack appropriate and agreed- upon social skills are exposed to a variety of problems (Segrin & Givertz, 2003). Consistently, in his study on children suffering from attention- deficit/ hyperactivity disorder, Rapoport (2009) suggested that children having a good social communicative skill interact very well with their peers, make friends and build good relationships even with adults, but once they interact inappropriately, showing, for instance, a lack of respect and distractibility, they get coerced. On the same wavelength, Attwood (2000), Krasny et al. (2003) and Painter (2006) who carried out an investigation on children and adolescents with Asperger’s Syndrome, a sort of autism, highlighted that these individuals lack fundamental social skills- the reason why they find problems making and keeping friends. Vain and unsuccessful relationships cause children to be “hurt and confused, making them feel bad about themselves. This lowers their self-esteem and dents their confidence, making it even more likely that they will be unsuccessful in their relationships in the future” Csóti (2001, p. 17).

According to Liberman et al. (1989, cited in Segrin &Givertz, 2003), a number of considerations have been reported to generate deficiency in social skills, four of which

are pinpointed: 1) lack of acquisition to interact effectively with people, and non-existence of mentoring; 2) psycho- social problems that blemish one's social skills; 3) environmental stressors that impede and restrain socially skilled behaviour; 4) changes in social conditions such as incarceration, becoming homeless, entry into a nursing home, loss of a job, and moving to a new location.

Social skills deficits inescapably bring into existence a number of unpleasant circumstances affecting people's life at psychological, social and occupational levels (Segrin and Givertz, 2003). In psychological terms, people suffering from social skills deficits are exposed to depression, (Segrin, 2000; Segrin & Givertz, 2003), social anxiety (Leary & Kowalski, 1995), loneliness (Jones et al., 1982; Segrin & Givertz, 2003), and alcoholism (Miller & Eisler, 1977; Segrin & Givertz, 2003). Socially speaking, people with defective social skills are reported to be less popular among their peers (Hartup et al., 1967; Segrin & Givertz, 2003) and less satisfied and successful with their romantic relationships or marriages (Burlinson, 1995; Flora & Segrin, 1999; Segrin & Givertz, 2003) than those with better social skills. Finally, at their occupational level, these people experience academic failure (Hughes & Sullivan, 1988; Segrin & Givertz, 2003), and dismissal from the military because of their inappropriate behaviour (Roff, 1961; Segrin & Givertz, 2003).

Bulk of medical and psychotherapeutic care, including strategies and techniques, is made at the disposal of people presenting social skills deficiency; and the treatment should be recommended according to the identified anomalies and the needs of these people (Segrin & Givertz, 2003; Painter, 2006; Mandal-Blasio et al., 2009). According to Mace (1994, cited in Mandal- Blasio et al., 2009), the treatment should be based either on weakening the reinforcement of the maladaptive response, or strengthening reinforcement for appropriate behaviour that replaces the function of the maladaptive behaviour. Social skills training, on the other hand, is found to interfere with behavioural dysfunctions and enhance social skills as well (Mandal- Blasio et al., 2009).

Social skills training, one of the techniques designed to alleviate and prevent behavioural deficits and disorders, goes as far back as the end of the 1930's. It dates

back to Skinner's (1938) assumption that behaviour is moulded and controlled by reinforcement and punishment (cited Segrin & Givertz, 2003). Current social skills training programmes, are grounded on Wolpe's (1958) and Wolpe & Lazarus (1966)'s behavioural approach that suggests treatment by replacing maladaptive behaviours with new, functional behaviours. Also in Bandura's (1977) social learning theory, which proposed treatment by imitating the performed behaviour, this program entails a set of methods and procedures; the program that uses manifold procedures is seen as the most efficient (Segrin & Givertz, 2003). These methods and procedures can be summarised as follows: 1) Assessment, a procedure that is used at the very start of the therapy. It covers assessing patient's social skill to identify and determine their needs; 2) Direct Instruction and Coaching that refers to directing instructions to the patients about how to use various communication behaviours effectively, and explaining why these behaviours should be performed as such; 3) Modeling that involves the patients observing and imitating others' behaviours. The closer the model is to the patient in terms of age, sex and other characteristics, the more successful is the imitation; 4) Role Playing where the patients are incited to perform necessary and the yearned for behaviours, and then trainers provide them feedback and reinforcements; 5) Homework Assignments, that are not designed for the beginners in the social skills training, expect the patients to perform the targeted behaviours in natural settings. This procedure gives access to meetings during which the patients and trainers discuss and evaluate the performances; it is worth noting that positive reinforcements boost the patients to learn effectively; 6) Follow-Up, a procedure suggesting the importance of a further examination and observation of the patients in order to monitor the success of the aforementioned procedures.

Being no exception, the issue of social skills has also been scrutinised in the matter of gender. Unsurprisingly, a mass of works pointed to social skills- gender relatedness that starts to come to the surface as early as childhood. In a study on Cypriot students in the physical education class, conducted by Christodoulides and colleagues (2012), findings revealed high school girls' tolerance vis-à-vis foreigners in the physical education lesson, in addition to positive social skills, as opposed to their boys counterparts who displayed more behavioural problems and intolerance with regard to

foreigners. In line with these findings, an investigation on social and behavioural skills of children from kindergarten to the end of fifth grade reported boys to score far behind girls in terms of social and behavioural skills (DiPrete & Jennings, 2011). Teachers of English and mathematics in Norwegian schools have also considered girl's social skills as more satisfactory than boy's (Gustavsen, 2017), a factor that explains girls' high academic performance (DiPrete & Jennings, 2011). On the contrary, research carried out by Maleki et al. (2019), on Iranian children social skills at home and in preschool, suggested that from teachers' ratings girls and boys exhibited same behavioural skill apart from 'assertion' where boys outperformed their female counterparts. But at home and from parents' point of view, girls' social skills were better than boys'.

Gender-related social skills are said to be fashioned by contexts within which individuals are engaged. This assumption is evidenced by women who are reported to be both physically and psychologically as violent and aggressive as men in the context of violence (Swan et al., 2008). According to the same authors, women's violence comes as a response to fear or as a self- defence, while men's is driven by control impetus. Similarly, women working in predominantly men fields like business and particularly army are found to adapt their speech to men's, and show aggressiveness. In this respect, one of the female students of Indiana University's Higher Education and Student Affairs program asserted: "some women feel the need to disguise their true identity by wearing a hypothetical mask that hides their true self and helps them navigate their way around and integrate the expected military warrior identity" (McCristall & Baggaley, 2019, p 121); and women who adopt men's image are regarded as "honorary men" (McCristall & Baggaley, 2019).

Women and men have also been claimed to diverge in terms of propensity for loneliness. In other words, the reasons why individuals avoid social interactions are assumed to be gender-based, as explained in the next section.

3.2. Reasons for Gender-related Differences

A substantial body of literature from different areas of specialisation attempts to uncover the constituents responsible for and interacting with each other to form

gender-based behavioural traits. There are three explanations for these possible differences. Neuroscientists assume that human- women or men- behaviours are determined by the brain structure and hormones. Psychologists, on the other hand, maintain that men's and women's behaviours are shaped by their different psychological features. Finally, sociologists see both women and men as prisoners of the norms and stereotypes framed by the cultures and societies in which they may be raised. These reasons are discussed next.

3.2.1. Neuro-biological Reasons

The first reasons are neuro-biological. First, male and female differentiations become apparent as early as the fifth and sixth weeks of the prenatal development (Norman & Litwack, 1997). Female sex is determined by the secretion of progesterone and estrogen hormones, while male sex is governed by the secretion of testosterone hormone. These hormones do not only play a key role in forming physical characteristics of male and female individuals (genitalia, skeleton, height, voice...) but they are also found to decide individuals' behavioural features. In this regard, Tomassi (2017, p. 14) contended: "To be a man today is to be poisoned by testosterone". Brizendine (2006) pointed out that males and females behavioural features start to diverge at age of puberty when submergence of girls' brain by estrogen and boys' brain by testosterone takes place. Therefore, females become more emotional and more communicative and depressive, while males become less communicative and obsessed about scoring in games and aggressive. In relation to gender-related differences, Gray (1993) also suggested:

...men instinctively offer solutions when women talk about problems. When a woman innocently shares upset feelings or explores out loud the problems of her day, a man mistakenly assumes she is looking for some expert advice. He puts on his Mr. Fix-It hat and begins giving advice; this is his way of showing love and of trying to help (p. 11).

Again, the brain circuits are reported to be hormones- driven: more testosterone and vasopressin in males' circuits, and more estrogen and oxytocin in females' circuits. Curiosity made scientists test the reaction of males' and females' brains when they are

given the other sex's hormone. Results revealed that men who were given a high dose of oxytocin (female hormone) became temporarily emotional, sharing other people's emotions. And women who were given a high dose of testosterone became temporarily mentally focussed (Brizendine, 2010).

3.2.2. Psychological Reasons

The second reasons are psychological. While some studies still claim the confusion as to 'which affects which'- hormones that affect human behaviours or the opposite (Ehrhardt, 1987), other studies assumed that the aforementioned biological factors have consequential effects on women and men psychology including their behaviours and attitudes. Gender-based behavioural and attitudinal discrepancies are so ample that the two genders constantly fall in discord and conflicts, and never believed to live in perfect harmony.

Women are more dependent than men on social cues as to judging their emotional state and emotional experiences. While men are more ready to face threat and overcome fears, women are claimed to be more vulnerable to persistent anxiousness (Craske, 2003). Cognitively speaking, mental processes such as memory, perception, attention and language use are found to differ depending on gender. Apropos of language use, women are reported to be better in discriminating speech sounds, make fewer speech errors, use longer sentences with standard grammatical structures and correct pronunciation, and produce more words in a given period than their male counterparts (Baron- Cohen, 2003). Gender differences are noticeable at the first hours after birth. A study conducted on babies' perception highlighted that baby girls look longer at faces, and particularly at people's eyes, while baby boys look at inanimate objects (Baron- Cohen, 2003).

Aggression, as a psychological trait, received a great deal of researchers' attention, and a heated debate among the scholars emerged. An investigation, carried out by Björkqvist et al. (1992) on Finnish male and female pupils from four different age groups 8-, 11-, 15 and 18 years old, revealed that indirect aggression in girls happen after 8 of age. A great deal of studies, intended to explore the correlation between video games' and computers' degree of influence and gender-based psychological

discrepancies, highlighted that boys are more attracted to video games than their girl counterparts, particularly games with aggressive themes (Ross & Taylor, 1989; Goldstein, 1992). Additionally, girls are reported to exhibit signs of stress when using computer software and programs that intrigue and fascinate boys, and vice versa (Cooper et al., 1990).

Another feature that makes women's behaviour differ from men's is communication. Women are found to be more communicative than their counterparts and get satisfied when sharing their feelings with others, contrary to their male counterparts who find their satisfaction in winning a race, solving a problem, or achieving a goal: women are relationship oriented, and men are goal oriented (Gray, 1993). The conception of areas where communication takes place is reported to be gender- governed. Restaurant, for instance, is seen by men as a place where to discuss projects or business goals, while women consider it as a space where to talk about intimate or personal topics (Gray, 1993).

Parenting that captured imagination of scholars, too, has been reported to be gender- dependent, in that mothers and fathers are claimed to use different strategies depending on their children's gender. In this regard, Endendijk et al. (2016) suggested that fathers and mothers use autonomy- supportive strategies (kindness, consideration of others' perspectives, empathy, warmth, affiliation and interpersonal closeness) with girls, and controlling- strategies (power, assertiveness, aggressiveness, negativity and dominance) with boys. The use of controlling- strategies with boys has been explained by the fact that boys exhibit more disruptive behaviours than girls (Hyde, 1984; Archer, 2004; Baillargeon et al., 2007; Loeber et al., 2013; Endendijk et al., 2016).

Although both fathers and mother are found to use controlling- strategies with boys and autonomy supportive- strategies with girls, still other studies scrutinised the language used by parents in terms of negative speech, informing speech, questions, amount of talking, directives and supported speech, to see whether their (parents) language is gender- based. The results obtained by Anderson and Blanchard (1982), Aries (1987) and Leaper et al. (1998) illustrated that mothers are more likely to use higher amounts of verbal interaction and more socioemotional speech or

communication (supportive and negative language) with their children, however fathers have propensity for instrumental speech or communication (directives, informing and questions). Mothers' negative speech may be due to the fact that mothers are primary caretakers who provide more negative comments to their children (Leaper et al., 1998). Additionally, the use of questions has been suggested to be gender- dependent, in that mothers are reported to use more 'yes- no' questions than fathers who are inclined to utilise ' wh-' questions (Engle, 1980; McLaughlin et al., 1983; Leaper et al., 1998). This gender discrepancy shows that fathers are more competitive and mentally encouraging (Engle, 1980; McLaughlin et al., 1983).

Children's age, is also claimed to be a significant factor that determines parents' linguistic features. Studies claimed that the younger the children, the more supportive and negative the parents' language (Leaper et al., 1998). Again, this has been interpreted by Greenfield et al. (1985) that the toddler years are the period where substantial learning takes place.

3.2.3. Social Reasons

The third reasons are social. A solid body of literature in the fields of sociology and social-psychology unquestionably refers gender discrepancies to the way societies and communities operate. Expressed emotions are influenced by display rules, which are the social rules that dictate when, how much, and which emotions should be expressed (Ekman, 1973; Geer & Shields, 1996, cited in Ragins & Winkle, 2011, p. 377). In other words, men's and women's behaviours are governed by what is called 'Social norms'. Their theories are evidenced by the culture and generation-based changeability and dynamic of men's and women's behaviours. Social norms refer to "...behaviour, to actions over which people have control, and are supported by shared expectations about what should/should not be done in different types of social situations" (Bicchieri, 2006, p. 10). Eagly's social role theory (Eagly, 1987; Eagly, Wood, & Deikman, 2000, cited in Lippa, 2005, p. 183) are based on three components: a) Women are more often homemakers and men breadwinners; b) Women tend to work in different occupations than men do; c) Women often have lower status than men do. According to Lippa (2005), these components gave rise to gender stereotypes; for

instance, a homemaker have traits such as warmth, sensitivity and nurturance, while breadwinners' include independence, competitiveness and assertiveness. It has been suggested that social roles vary according to culture or social environment. In other words, a behaviour can be allowed in a society and deterred in another (Bicchieri 2006). Additionally, social norms are dynamic, i.e. they can change over time. For instance, since 2018 Saudi women are no longer deprived of their right to drive cars; and in Egypt and Algeria women are given the right to ask for divorce since 2000 and 2005 respectively. Bicchieri (2006) pointed out to the likelihood of the social norms to be transgressed whenever the conflicts between the norms and individual interests emerge. Biologically speaking, it is axiomatic that men are inclined to be aggressive, but "masculinity norms", shaped by social surroundings and life conditions, have a greater part to make boys and men aggressive and even violent (Heilman& Barker, 2018).

The conventional belief that men are more powerful than women refers to the fact that they possess more leverage and bravado (Kanter, 1977; Eagly & Wood, 1982; Conway et al., 1996). Power, discerned from other related notions, has been defined by (Kanter, 1977) as "the ability to get things done, to mobilize resources, to get and use whatever it is that a person needs for the goals he or she is attempting to meet". According to Henley (1977), "power differences are reflected in patterns of communication" (Cited in Dovidio et al., 1988, p. 580). This can be explained by the "dominance" approach (Cameron, 1992b) that suggests that daily verbal communications reflect men's dominance and women's subordination. These gender-based linguistic discrepancies are characterised by men's conversational interruptions and aggression (Zimmerman & West, 1975; Schick, 1988), and women's weakness and uncertainty through the use of tag questions, declaratives with rising intonation (Lakoff, 1975). A significant body of literature (Rogers & Jones, 1975; Zimmerman & West, 1975; Greif, 1980) suggests that interruptions display rudeness and a lack of respect for the speaker. It is also felt that they restrict the rights of speakers as well as allow interrupters to control the topic of conversation and to exert control and dominance over their conversational partner. Additionally, people who constantly interrupt are frequently viewed as authoritarian and domineering (Rogers & Jones,

1975, cited in Marche, 1993, p. 389). But interruptions are not always considered negative. According to Holmes (1995), "... simultaneous speech which technically 'interrupts' the other speaker, may function positively to encourage and support them" (p. 54).

Men's and women's behaviours are found to differ in many ways. Asking for help, for instance, makes women feel comfortable, while it makes men feel like they lose their independence (Tannen, 1990). Conversations, too, are not perceived the same way by men as by women. While men consider conversations as a means to display power, women regard them as a way to show solidarity (Hudson, 1996). In this respect, Tannen (1990, pp. 24-25) contended:

For men, conversations are negotiations for closeness in which people try to achieve and maintain the upper hand if they can, and protect themselves from others' attempts to put them down and push them around. Life, then, is a contest, a struggle to preserve independence and avoid failure. For women, conversations are negotiations for closeness in which people try to seek and give confirmation and support, and to reach consensus. They try to protect themselves from others' attempts to push them away. Life is, then, a community, a struggle to preserve intimacy and avoid isolation.

(Quoted in Hudson, 1996, p. 141)

The deeply rooted stereotype of women being inferior to men is so inculcated in the females that they consider themselves weak. Women, in societies that encourage social bias and discrimination against them, are found to be disinclined to join male-dominated workforce (Arroyo et al., 2018). In the same vein, Hill et al. (2010) claimed that girls, proved skillful in subjects like math, are more likely to be unconfident of their success in Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) fields, and unenthusiastic about a STEM career. Likewise, Chun et al. (2009) confirmed women's unwillingness to become members of the Owner, Architecture, Engineering and Construction (OAEC) industry due to discrimination and obliviousness to their gender no matter how skilled they are. Discrimination against women in the workforce goes far to make a wage gap between men and women (Hill et al., 2010). These authors, who conducted research on influence of bias on women's progress in

scientific and engineering fields, contended: “bias not only affects individuals’ attitudes toward others but may also influence girls’ and women’s likelihood of cultivating their own interest in math and science” (p. xvi). Wajcman (2010) believes that “The taken-for-granted association of men and machines is the result of the historical and cultural construction of gender” (p. 144). But this culture-based assumption is not universal. In Malaysia, for instance, females are reported to be massively present in computer science (Lagesen, 2008).

While men are reported to have a sense of authority and competitiveness, women are found to be collaborative even when applying or exerting their authority or power. Holmes & Stubbe (2014) cite the example of Clara, an overall manager of the section and the senior of the meeting, who firmly, but politely, declined the members’ suggestion to allow people to print off material from the computer screen, thanking them for their initiative. Similarly, Holmes (1995, p. 211) had earlier pointed out that

Women’s contributions to discussion are often expressed in ways which encourage others to participate. The devices which characterise women’s talk invite others to join in. Women tend to use more qualified statements and participatory linguistic devices such as facilitative questions, supportive elicitations and pragmatic particles such as you know, than men do. And when they disagree they generally do so politely- in other words, they use a qualified disagreeing utterance rather than a bald contradiction.

Holmes continues: “Showing consideration for the feelings of others in a work context may be regarded as superfluous or unnecessary and a waste of time by men, but most women regard verbal politeness as very important” (p. 214). As opposed to female managers, male managers are prone to discursive interruptions, aggressive and competitive conversations (Schick, 1988). Similarly, Clisbee (2005) suggested that men and women have different leadership style. In that, males are more hierarchical and their leadership is top-down, hierarchical and task-oriented, while females are more collegial, which makes their leadership collaborative, caring and less hierarchical. One of the reasons for these discrepancies is how women and men perceive the notion of power; “Women defined power as shared with others or as

collaborative, whereas men tended to think of power in terms of dominance, control and authority over others (Brunner, 2000, p. 148, quoted in Clisbee, 2005, p. 49).

As it has been mentioned above, gender-related discrepancies exist worldwide, but they are not the same. In other words, they differ depending on the social norms of a given society. The aforementioned gender discrimination concerns societies, some of which are Western. On the other hand, some African societies such as New Guinea, where Mead (1935, cited in Burr, 1998, p. 39) carried out research on three tribes, Arapesh, Mun-dug-u-mor and Tchambuli, operate differently. She found that in Arapesh society, gentleness was valued and the children were taken care of by both males and females. In Mun-dug-u-mor society, women and men alike were found to be equally vigorous, independent and assertive. Finally, in Tchambuli society, women were self- assertive and managing, whereas men wore ornaments and were interested in gossip. Research disclosed that social roles are shaped by individuals' function rather than their gender (Lippa, 2005). In their study, Eagly and Steffen (1984, cited in Lippa, 2005, p. 184) asked American college students to judge personality traits of men and women who stayed at home as parents and those of men and women who worked full time. The students attributed gentleness and kindness to both male and female homemakers, and assertiveness and competitiveness to male and female full time workers.

According to Lippa (2005, pp 158-172), gender roles are shaped by a set of factors, such as toy preferences, parents, teachers, peers, learning, imitation and mass media. They are summarised as follows:

- **Toy Preferences**

Toy preferences emerge in the early childhood of boys and girls. Boys prefer toy trucks, trains, tool sets, erector sets, guns and swords, while girls prefer dolls, dress-up props, jewellery, tea sets and playhouses. The discrepancies do not concern only toys choice but also play styles. Boys are found to engage in rough-and-tumble play more than their counterparts do. As it has been mentioned above, the rationales behind this difference, according to biological theories, are hormones and brain structures. Another reason may be explained by the fact that boys and girls are encouraged and

rewarded when they play with ‘sex appropriate’ toys, and dismayed when they play with ‘sex inappropriate’ toys.

- **Parental Treatment and the Social Learning of Gender**

A great deal of literature (Lippa, 2005) suggests that parents’ treatment has a significant impact on their children behaviours. While parents encouraged girl-typical play in girls and boy-typical play in boys, they showed little or no difference towards their boys versus girls in terms of warmth, restrictiveness, or encouragement of achievement (Lytton & Romney, 1991). Other studies showed that baby boys are handled more roughly than baby girls (Lewis & Weinraub, 1979), and parents, particularly fathers, roughhouse with their sons and stimulate them physically more than they do with their daughters (Jacklin et al., 1984; Shields & Sparing, 1993). Mothers are found to verbally stimulate and verbally respond more to their daughters than to their sons (Leaper et al., 1995), and fathers use more verbal strategies when talking to their daughters (Farver & Wimbarti, 1995). Additionally, parents are reported to tolerate anger more in boys and fear more in girls (Birnbaum & Croll, 1984), and teach their sons more than daughters to overcome emotional expressions as in “Big boys don’t cry” (Block, 1978).

- **Teacher Influences**

There is controversy among scholars over teachers’ influence on children’s behaviours. Findings suggest that boys do not feel their best (rough-and-tumble) selves. They are usually asked by their female teachers to reduce their tone and behave in a submissive, tidy, disciplined and verbally interactive way. Others show that classrooms are inclined to favour boys over girls; boys are given more importance and are enhanced to participate and fulfil achievement (Hendrick & Stange, 1991; Sadker & Sadker, 1986). In preschool and early elementary school settings, teachers are found to interact more with girls (Carpenter & Huston-Stein, 1980; Serbin et al., 1973) for one reason is that girls are disciplined, orderly and do their tasks.

- **Peer Influences**

Parents and teachers do not seem to have a powerful influence on children as children do on their peers. In her study on teachers' and peers' influence on 3- and 4-year-old children behaviour, Fagot (1985) found that boys foster masculine behaviours in other boys and daunted feminine behaviours such as playing with girls or with girls' toys. On the other hand, girls did not care whether other girls behave in masculine or feminine ways. More importantly, the study suggested that boys were more responsive to other boys' pressure, but disregarded their teachers and girls. In her earlier study, Fagot (1977) noticed girls to be tolerant of other girls who got involved in masculine activities, while boys controlled other boys' activities.

- **Learning Gender after Early Childhood**

Research on older children disclosed that parents restrict school-aged girls more than school-aged boys (Huston, 1983; Newson & Newson, 1986). This may be explained by the fact that girls are deemed more vulnerable to violence and sexual assault than boys. Research also suggested that through physical activities (herding sheep, mowing the lawn, delivering newspapers) allotted to boys and the repetitive domestic activities (cleaning, preparing food, caring for younger siblings) allocated to girls, parents unintentionally provide boys with '*independence training*', and girls with '*dependence training*' (Ruble et al., 1993).

- **Modelling Gender**

Children unquestionably imitate their parents. They do not necessarily imitate their same sex parents (Barkley et al., 1977; Maccoby, 1998; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974; Smith & Daglish, 1977), but they usually tend to copy their most dominant or attractive parent (Hetherington, 1967). Children are also likely to imitate people that they believe to be powerful, warm, and of high status (Bandura, 1977); and boys are even reported to imitate socially powerful opposite sex-models (Bussey & Bandura, 1984).

Keeping modelling in view, Stevenson and Black (1988) researched plausible effects of fathers' absence on boys' behaviours. They found preschool children less

inclined towards sex-typed toy preferences, whereas older boys were more masculine and more aggressive. The researchers also suggested that the effects of father absence depended on contextual factors such as the reasons for the fathers' absence (e.g., death, divorce, desertion, military service), socioeconomic status, and presence of other male figures at home. Additionally, it has been assumed that the effect of father presence and absence may be based on the characteristics of the present or absent father. One of the recent studies revealed that father absence resulted in children behavioural issues, while another study disclosed that absence of antisocial father made children feel comfortable (Jaffee et al., 2003).

- **Learning Gender from the Mass Media**

In addition to the factors above, mass media seem to be a factor that should not be belittled. A multitude of works defines mass media, particularly TV, as a powerful tool capable of moulding children's behaviour. Research on gender-stereotyped content of TV shows, commercials, and cartoons showed that the two genders are represented diversely. TV shows have three to four times more male than female characters (Signorielli, 1993), represented in various occupations and often as heroes and problem solvers. Women, on the other hand, perform only few roles, and they are usually presented as housewives, secretaries, nurses, and witches.

Despite the progress made by TV programs over the past twenty years, gender bias still persists across various cultures. In commercials, for instance, authority figures were found to be more male than female, whereas product users were more female than male. Moreover, men were assigned professional roles like interviewers, while women were presented in dependent and domestic roles. It is worth mentioning that the degree of gender stereotyping varies according to cultures. TV commercials from traditional cultures like Hong Kong and Indonesia were found to display more gender stereotyping than those from less traditional cultures, such as the United States and Denmark.

TV cartoons made no exception. Studies conducted on cartoons showed that gender stereotypes are ordinary. In that, males are characterised as more creative, clever, brave, aggressive, leaders and saviours. However, females were presented as sensitive,

emotional, warm, mature, romantic and less competent than male characters. Although there have been reforms since 1980, presenting women as more independent, assertive, intelligent, and competent than they were before 1980, some gender stereotypes still exist.

Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the possible relationship between gender and emotional intelligence, and reviewed some relevant studies, mainly conducted in the United States. Goleman's theory on gender could elucidate some significant discrepancies between males and females in different domains. Men and women are found to differ in their self-awareness, motivation, self-regulation, empathy and social skills. Women are found to have generally low self- esteem, and usually believe that their success is luck-bound. But they are highly self- aware about their beauty and body shape that is susceptible to biological shifts caused by hormonal modifications, pregnancy and menopause. Men and women seem to be triggered by different motivators and have different preferences. At an early age, little boys are found to be attracted by toys such as balls, tracks...etc, while little girls are captivated by dolls. As time passes by, these individuals get fascinated by divergent fields of interest: men become more intrigued by scientific fields, whereas their counterparts show more interest in social communications. Self- regulation is also reported to be gender- dependent, in that females are suggested to experience a higher self- regulation of learning. Empathy, on the other hand, whose lasting power and durability depends heavily on the quality of relationships between people, is found to be stronger in women, and varies according to culture and nationality. Finally, social skills seem to be highly well performed by women than by men who usually flaunt intolerance and ethical deficiency.

Finally, and with respect to male and female emotional intelligence, the reviewed studies report that it is shaped by a set of factors such as biological, psychological and social factors. From a biological point of view, gender- based behavioural discrepancies seem to be shaped by the secretions of hormones: testosterone as a male hormone, and progesterone and estrogen as female hormones. From a psychological standpoint, women are more sociable and communicative than men who are more

aggressive and less communicative. From a social viewpoint, men and women's behavioural features are determined by the social norms of a given society. Thus, these features vary according to the individual's culture and environment. According to the reviewed studies, women's behaviour is characterised by politeness and submission, while men's is characterised by aggression and power. These features are likely to affect teacher classroom practices and their use of emotional intelligence.

The following part (Part Two) is entitled "Empirical Study". It includes three chapters. Chapter Four is devoted to the research design and procedure of the present study. Chapter Five deals with the analysis and presentation of the results and Chapter Six includes the discussion and interpretation of the research findin

Chapter Four

Chapter Four

Research Design and Procedure

Introduction

As stated in the introduction to this study, this aim of this research work is threefold: 1) to investigate middle school teachers of English's awareness of emotional intelligence as a way to improve their teaching and pupils' learning; 2) to examine the classroom practices of the emotionally intelligent teacher 3) to explore whether or not gender affects the emotional classroom practices of these middle school teachers of English. This chapter is devoted to the research methodology. It includes four sections. Section 4.1. deals with population sampling; section 4.2. with the description of the data collection instruments; section 4.3. with the procedure of data collection and section 4.4. with the procedure of data analysis.

It seems important, at this point of the study, to recall the three research questions formulated in the introduction of this thesis:

RQ1: To what extent are middle school teachers of English aware of emotional intelligence as a way to improve their teaching?

RQ2: To what extent are middle school teachers of English emotionally intelligent in their classroom practices?

RQ3: To what extent do their emotional practices differ relative to gender?

a. Population sampling

The population targeted in our investigation is middle school teachers of English. In the Chlef Wilaya of Algeria, four inspectors and 470 teachers of English are working over 152 middle schools. Six (06) teachers were selected from three (03) middle schools, 218 pupils and four (04) inspectors. All these people were invited to take part in this study. Male and female teachers were selected to see whether or not gender affects their emotional classroom practices. We could retain only these three middle schools for the study because they were the only middle schools in Chlef Centre that

have a male teacher, knowing that the social distancing caused by COVID-19 restricted our access to other schools. All teachers selected received a questionnaire to complete; also one male teacher and one female teacher from each of the three middle schools were observed. The pupils also received a questionnaire

We opted for random sampling for this investigation since it is 1) an objective method of sampling; 2) an economical method from money, energy point of view; 3) a convenient approach of sampling in the field of research; 4) It permits the application of statistical devices and treatments of data. The error due sampling can be estimated; 5) It maintains the accuracy in the analysis of results; 6) It is a practical method of sampling (Singh, 2006, p. 84). Therefore, this type of sampling is “free from subjective factor or personal error or bias and prejudices or imagination of the investigator, and where the individuals of a sample are independently drawn from the population” (Singh, 2006, p. 84). For ethical concerns, the aims and nature of the research were clarified and all the participants in this study were kept anonymous, because “any kind of potential for abuse may render the respondents become uncooperative, which then threatens the reliability and validity of subsequent research” (Gray, 2004, p. 278).

4.2. Data Collection Instruments

This study is descriptive and exploratory. The approach is pragmatic (Creswell, 2014) and the method is a mixed methods design, that is both quantitative and qualitative. This was selected among other methods because, according to Hesse-Biber (2010): a) It is the method that fits best triangulation; b) It makes the researchers have a good insight into the research problem and obtain clear results; c) It helps in the development of a research project by creating a synergistic effect; d) It answers and clarifies by initiating a new study all the questions and contradictions that may be raised; e) It helps to produce detailed findings that enable future research venture.

As far as the research instruments are concerned, three tools have been used for data collection: 1) questionnaires addressed to middle school pupils, teachers and inspectors of English; 2) Observation of teachers by means of emotional intelligence checklist designed by Allen (2014); 3) official inspectors’ reports based on Marshall’s

(2009) teacher evaluation rubrics that we obtained from the Academy of Chlef. Given the impossibility and impracticality of studying the whole population, sampling seemed fit as it is vital to all statistical methodology of behavioural and social research (Singh, 2006).

4. 2.1. Description of the Questionnaires

The questionnaire, one of the most favoured research tool, has been used because it is considered to be the most adjustable and uniquely advantageous for gathering both qualitative and quantitative information (Singh, 2006). Moreover, using questionnaire is a way to get a significant amount of information in a short time span, and questionnaires are likely to meet the objectives of our research. As the ideal length of the questionnaire is restricted to four to six pages (Gillham, 2000), and since long questionnaires are reluctantly and unenthusiastically received by most people (Gray, 2004), the length of all the questionnaires addressed to our participants, be they pupils, teachers or inspectors, did not exceed four pages.

4.2.1.1. Teachers' Questionnaire

The teachers' questionnaire consists of four sections: A, B, C, D (see Appendix C). Section A contains one question:

Q. Gender: Male or Female

This question is designed to answer the third research question:

RQ3: To what extent do their emotional practices differ relative to gender?

Given that this research question concerns one of the factors that determine teachers' emotional practices, teachers in this research are invited to give information about their gender.

Section B is made of four (04) open- ended questions where the respondents were given considerable space to get as complete answers as possible. These questions have been adapted from Allen (2014). The questions are as follows:

Q1. Why have you chosen teaching as a career?

Q2. What is the best thing about the job?

Q3. What does the classroom represent to you?

Q4. To what extent does the physical environment of the classroom affect your behaviour?

These questions are meant to examine whether teachers' motivational orientations and willingness have an impact on their emotional classroom practices. Therefore, this section is intended to answer the second research question which states:

RQ2: To what extent are middle school teachers of English emotionally intelligent in their classroom practices?

Being counted as major components that shape teachers' behaviour and performance in the classroom, teachers' motivational orientation and willingness are also aimed by the researcher. Teachers' intrinsic motivation that is also called 'autonomous motivation' (Vojáčková, 2020) is viewed as crucial both in the teaching and learning processes. It is a type of motivation that lasts for a long period of time; and it does not need to be boosted by external stimulus or impetus as it is generated by internal motives and desire (Vojáčková, 2020). If the teachers are intrinsically motivated, "...it is their own will (desire) to do the activities that motivate them and this often supports learning and their own professional growth, as well" Vojáčková, 2020, p. 32).

Section C entails three questions, one closed- ended (Q1) and two open- ended questions (Q2 and Q3):

Q1-Do you attend the weekly seminars and conferences organized by your institutions?

Q2-What do these seminars and conferences provide you with?

Q3-If given the opportunity, what changes would you bring to your professional development?

In the open-ended questions (Q2 and Q3), teachers are given a significant space to write full responses. This section is intended to examine whether the weekly seminars and workshops they attend are meant to, or help them to develop their emotional

intelligence directly or indirectly. Therefore, it is designed to answer research question 1 as follows:

RQ1: To what extent are middle school teachers of English aware of emotional intelligence as a way to improve their teaching?

Section D is the longest as it encompasses ten questions, two of which are open-ended questions. This section is designed to probe into the emotional classroom practices performed by middle school teachers of English, and answer the second and third research questions as follows:

RQ2: To what extent are middle school teachers of English emotionally intelligent in their classroom practices?

RQ3: To what extent do their emotional practices differ relative to gender?

As the above research questions are intrinsically related to each other, emotional classroom practices will be analysed according to gender. This means that teachers' emotional classroom practices and gender-based emotional classroom practices will be analysed at the same time.

The questions in section D (see Appendix C) were adapted from Allen (2014), but the researcher added a five point scale- always, often, sometimes, rarely, never- to questions two (02) and three (03) as follows: 1) What atmosphere do you think you create by being in the classroom? Do you produce energy, enthusiasm, uncertainty or doubt?; 2) How often do you use humour in the classroom? Always, often, sometimes, rarely, never; 3) How often do you scan the room to spot those struggling or going off-task? Always, often, sometimes, rarely, never; 4) Do you consider that your comments have an impact on all your students, including those within listening distance (those you address indirectly)?; 5) Do you make comments about a good work to push towards improvements rather than celebrating the success?; 6) Do you praise the person or just the work?; 7) What methods of praise do you use to encourage students?; 8) What methods of correction do you use when dealing with inappropriate behaviour?; 9) What form does your detention take? Is it viewed as a time of

punishment or a time of reflection and rebuilding?; 10) When talking with a student, do you see them as they are or as what they can become?

The above questions fit into the notion of ‘classroom climate’ that captivated attention and imagination of scholars long ago.

At the end of the questionnaire the teachers were given space to speak their mind by means of some comment about their classroom practices and the factors that may hinder their emotional development. Thus, this part was designed to explore the degree to which teachers’ beliefs mould and determine their emotional development. Teachers’ beliefs are accounted for in this research, because teachers’ beliefs and attitudes about what constitutes effective teaching may interact with their educational decisions and classroom practices (Arnell, 2014).

4.2.1.2. Pupils’ Questionnaire

Teachers’ performance-related questionnaires are mainly based on teachers’ opinions about their emotional classroom practices, because of the respondents’ natural propensity to give positive response and their desire to affirm positive presented items (El-Fiki, 2012). Also, because “sometimes the respondents fill in their responses very indifferently, without bothering about their correctness and sometimes they deliberately give wrong information” (Singh, 2006, p. 199). This questionnaire was addressed to the pupils so as to avoid biases and give as much credibility and reliability as possible to our research. Additionally, as the pupils are at their first years of English learning, which means that they are at basic level of English language proficiency, I translated the questionnaire into Arabic (see Appendix E). Pupils’ questionnaire comprises two sections, A and B. Section B is split into B₁ and B₂ (see Appendix D). Section A consists of two items: the first item was designed to collect as much significant amount of information on teacher practices as possible in order to obtain well-grounded responses. The second item was meant to answer the third research question on teacher emotional practices relative to gender:

RQ3: To what extent do their emotional practices differ relative to gender?

As for section B, it is intended to answer the second and third research questions as follows:

RQ2: To what extent are middle school teachers of English emotionally intelligent in their classroom practices?

RQ3: To what extent do their emotional practices differ relative to gender?

Section B includes in total fourteen (14) questions. B₁ entails three questions, one of which is an open-ended question. They are: 1) When upset, does your teacher use appropriate or inappropriate language?; 2) When you get with your teacher in the classroom, do you feel safe or threatened (anxious, under pressure, afraid...etc)?; 3) What does he/she do to make you feel safe or threatened?. B₂ consists of eleven questions. They are: 1) Does your teacher use motivating words like “excellent, very good...”?; 2) How often does your teacher ask you to do the activities individually, in pairs, and in group?; 3) When you ask your teacher for clarifications, does he/she welcome your request?; 4) Are these clarifications made in a simple input or an input that is beyond your ability?; 5) Does your teacher listen to and understand your concerns and problems that you have inside the classroom?; 6) Does your teacher listen to and understand your concerns and problems that you have outside the classroom?; 7) What kind of relationship has your teacher built with you? Good and close relationship or Distant relationship?; 8) To help you understand quickly and easily, does your teacher use different voice tones and body language such as facial expression, hands...etc?; 9) If yes, how often does he/ she use them? Always, often, sometimes, rarely?; 10) Does your teacher treat all the students the same way?; 11) Does your teacher smile and tell funny things like jokes?

The third question in B₁ that is an open-ended question, whose aim was to collect both quantitative and qualitative data, categories were provided to describe teachers' behaviours were categorized according to specific features. The behaviours that make the pupils feel safe were classified according to the personal (emotional) features of effective teachers set by Stronge (2007, pp. 23-31) as follows: (1) caring; (2) fairness and respect; (3) social interactions with students; (4) promoting enthusiasm and motivating learning; (5) teaching attitudes towards the teaching profession and (6)

reflective practice (see Chapter two). As for those that make the pupils feel threatened, they were classified by the researcher according to the nature of the teachers' behaviours cited by the pupils. These features are: 1) Frustration; 2) Rudeness and Anger; 3) Insult and Humiliation; 4) Inequity; 5) Excessive Self-esteem.

Although teachers' support is based on different dimensions: emotional, informational, appraisal, and instrumental (Federici & Skaalvik, 2014; Wong et al. 2018), the emotional dimension seems to get the lion's share due to its momentousness and weight.

4.2.1.3. Inspectors' Questionnaire

The questionnaire addressed to the school inspectors is made of five (05) items originally included in Allan's (2014) emotional checklist that we used to describe teachers and their teaching routines (see Appendix F). The items are: 1) Classroom Routines; 2) Leadership; 3) Mentoring; 4) Coaching; 5) Vision-target. These items were taken from the observation checklist because they are found to require a longer and more careful observation. Therefore, they were handed in a form of a questionnaire to four inspectors, two of whom have more than 20 years of experience in inspection. This questionnaire is meant to answer the third research question:

RQ3: To what extent do their emotional practices differ relative to gender?

The five items in the questionnaire addressed to inspectors cover practices related to the rules and strategies that the teacher set to trigger their students' achievement and fuel them with expedients and techniques "...to critically analyse the world around them in order to develop into critical independent thinkers" (Franklin & Harrington, 2019, p. 1). According to Moreno Rubio (2009), Wong and Wong (2005) effective teachers handle their classrooms with course of actions and routines, while ineffective ones teach and train their classrooms with threats and punishments.

4. 2.2. Description of the Observation Checklist

To improve the reliability of data and reduce sources of error researchers use triangulation (Gray, 2004) and usually add a tool for the data collection. Therefore, in addition to the questionnaires addressed to middle school teachers of English, middle

school pupils and middle school inspector of English, observation was used to triangulate the results. The researcher opted for this approach because it “...provides an opportunity to get beyond people’s opinions and self-interpretations of their attitudes and behaviours towards an evaluation of their actions in practice” (Gray, 2004, p. 238). It is also strong on face validity; and can provide rich contextual information, enable first-hand data to be collected, reveal mundane routines and activities, and can offer an opportunity for documenting those aspects of life worlds that are verbal, non-verbal and physical (Clark et al., 2009, cited in Cohen et al., 2018, p. 542). Another advantage of the observation method, according to (Morrison, 1993, p. 80, cited in Cohen et al., 2018, p. 542), is that it helps the researcher to collect data on: 1) the physical setting (e.g. the physical environment and its organization); 2) the human setting (e.g. the organization of people, the characteristics and make-up of the groups or individuals being observed, for instance, gender, class); 3) the interactional setting (e.g. interactions that are taking place, formal, informal, planned, unplanned, verbal, non-verbal etc.); 4) the programme setting (e.g. resources and their organization, pedagogic styles, curricula and their organization). Structured observation was used following Gray (2004) and Cohen et al., (2018) as the study is mainly quantitative and puts stress on the frequency of the actions performed by the participants. For ethical considerations, we used overt observation after Gray (2004) because, like any other tool used for collecting data, observation “...requires the informed consent of participants, the right not to be observed, permission from the school and the parents, and perhaps clearance concerning the researcher’s reliability and safety to work with young people in schools” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 558).

In our observation method we used a checklist that we adapted from Allen, 2014 (see Appendix G). It was modified by the researcher, and divided into two sections: A) Physical environment of the classroom; and B) Teachers’ practices. The former section that consisted of three (03) items: 1) Light; 2) Heating; 3) Ventilation, was separated from the rest of the checklist in order to shed light on the English middle school teachers’ working conditions.

Physical environment of the classroom has been a subject of concern to a large number of scholars. Thereby, this is classified among the major ingredients that determine the success or failure of the teaching/ learning process.

Section B is designed to see whether emotional classroom practices of middle teachers of English are affected by their gender. It is made of fifteen (15) items, and each item consists of a set of questions (see Appendix H). The items are : 1) Welcome and introduction; 2) Layout-clean/ tidy/organised; 3) Emotional atmosphere; 4) Safety; 5) Care; 6) Relevance; 7) Encouragement/ Praise; 8) Positivity; 9) Emotional intelligence development; 10) Empathy; 11) Tone; 12) Body language; 13) Conversation/relationship building; 14) Direction; 15) Peripheral vision and hearing. This section is meant to answer the third research question that follows:

RQ3: To what extent do their emotional practices differ relative to gender?

As the emotional aspect of teaching is multidimensional, and in addition to the personal features of the teachers suggested by Stronge (2007), the amalgamation of the above items is meant to make an effective and emotionally intelligent teacher. An example would be ‘Body language’ that is reported to play a pivotal role in English teaching. Body language, including teacher's high spiritual status, humorous speech, vivid expressions, and visual gestures reinforces the effect of verbal education, and construct friendly and cooperative relationships between teachers and students (Liu, 2019). Consistent with this view, Cao and Chen (2017, p.1070) argued that gestures create “...a positive outcome to both speakers and listeners. Studies showed that gestures not only facilitate L2 learners in second language listening comprehension, but also have a crucial impact on the L2 word learning. Also, gestures are used as effective teaching strategies in L2 teaching and classroom management”. More importantly, body language is also found to boost learners’ interest, hence the reason for learning (Tai, 2014). As discussed earlier in the literature review, empathy, as another emotional dimension, is regarded as getting access to people’s mind. It embraces three components: 1) The ability to understand other people’s intentions and goals; 2) The ability to understand other people’s beliefs and thoughts; 3) The ability to understand other people’s feelings (Swan & Riley, 2015).

4.2.3. Description of the Inspectors' Reports

In addition to the questionnaires where the participants may have the tendency to afford positive responses (El- Fiki, 2012), and where “Sometimes the respondents fill in their responses very indifferently, without bothering about their correctness and sometimes they deliberately give wrong information” (Singh, 2006, p. 199), and in addition to the observation checklist that may contain subjectivity of the researcher, document analysis has been selected to give more credibility and reliability to our research because documents are not subject to researcher’s intervention (Bowen, 2009), and considered as a primary source when they are the first proof or evidence of a fact (Singh, 2006).

For the sake of authenticity, accuracy and relevance of material, we used original and official reports on teachers’ evaluation written by middle school inspectors of English obtained from the Academy of Chlef. These reports were used to answer the third research question:

RQ3: To what extent do their emotional practices differ relative to gender?

Nowadays, challenges are getting greater and more intense, and teachers are being held responsible for the achievement of every single child (Marshall, 2009). The selected inspectors who wrote the reports on the teachers have more than twenty years of experience in inspection. These reports, or teachers’ evaluation grids, were adapted from Marshall’s (2009) teacher evaluation rubrics that include six domains: A) Planning and Preparation for Learning; B) Classroom Management; C) Delivery of Instruction; D) Monitoring, Assessment, and Follow-Up; E) Family and Community Outreach; and F) Professional Responsibilities (see Appendix J). They are divided into five parts (see Appendix I): 1) information related to the teachers such as name, date of birth, marital status, nationality, rank, experience, and qualifications; 2) evaluation of the context and environment in which teaching takes place, including duration of the session, number of enrolled pupils and number of attenders, classroom condition, nature of the activity, daily book, lesson plan, progression (syllabus, file and lesson progression), teaching materials, log book (keeping and control), students’

copybook (keeping and control), and school work evaluation (written tests, continuous assessment, frequency, exam papers keeping, pupils marks).; 3) ‘film of the lesson’ which describes the way the lessons and activities are planned and presented by the teacher, including receptive skills (reading and listening) and productive skills (speaking and writing); 4) comment and advice that concern evaluation of the teacher practices such as mastery of the language and content, command of pedagogical skills, and relationship with the pupils; 5) conclusion that inspectors draw on teachers’ classroom practices.

It is worth mentioning that the first, second and fifth parts of the reports are written either in Arabic or French, as they are addressed to the stakeholders- schools and academy principals; the remaining parts that concern only inspectors are written in English.

As this research is intended to explore teachers’ emotional intelligence, teachers’ emotional classroom practices are mentioned in the third, fourth and fifth parts of the inspectors’ reports. The teachers’ emotional classroom practices evaluated by the inspectors are: 1) Classroom Management; 2) Peer Work; 3) Relationship with Students; 4) Students’ Encouragement and Motivation; 5) Classroom Scanning and Monitoring; 6) Communication. In order to see the extent to which gender affects teachers’ emotional practices, we divided the 50 reports by 2: 25 reports on male teachers, and 25 reports on female teachers.

4. 3. Procedures of Data Collection

4. 3. 1. Administering the Teachers’ Questionnaire

The questionnaire was handed to six (06) teachers, that is, 03 females and 03 males, by the researcher during the observational sessions that took place in their respective middle schools. As it has been mentioned above, for the sake of confidentiality, teachers names were kept anonymous. The teachers were given one week to hand the questionnaires back to the researcher, and in order to obtain as much reliable and consistent results as possible, we gave the teachers some time to read the questions and ask for clarification if need be.

4. 3.2. Administering the Inspectors' Questionnaire

Since technology is proving to contribute quite effectively in the field of research, and as online questionnaires become one of the most accepted ways to carry out a scientific investigation (Gray, 2004), the author of this research sent the questionnaire as a Word document attached to inspectors' email addresses. As the inspectors' answers were on their observations, the data were collected seven to fifteen days later. E mails were assumed to be faster than other modes of research. Schaefer and Dillman (1998, cited in Schonlau et al., 2002, p. 28) stated that responses via emails took an average of 9.16 days to be handed back by the respondents, while those sent by post took an average of 14.39 days.

4. 3. 3. Administering the Pupils' Questionnaires

The questionnaire was administered to 218 pupils by the researcher during the English class. The pupils responded to the questionnaire in presence of their teachers, and were given thirty (30) to forty (40) minutes. Before handing the questionnaire, the researcher introduced herself to the pupils. She then explained the objective of the questionnaire to the pupils, making them feel comfortable and assured that their answers would be kept anonymous and confidential, and that their teachers would not see them. Also, she requested them to answer the questions honestly. For the sake of consistency, reliability and credibility, and for fear of influencing pupils' responses in section B₂ related to teachers' practices, the questionnaire was divided into two parts: the first part contained sections A and B₁, and the second part contained section B₂; sections A and B₁ were administered together but section B₂ was handed out separately. At the very beginning, the researcher handed only sections A and B₁ with a small number on the corner, 1 up to 20, according to the number of the students in the classroom. Then she asked the pupils to answer the questions keeping that number in mind. Twenty (20) minutes later, and after having collected sections A and B₁, she handed them section B₂ with the same number (from 1 to 20) as in sections A and B₁. That is to say, each pupil was given B₂ with a number that corresponds to that mentioned on sections A and B₁. Ten (10) to twenty (20) minutes later, i.e., the time

given to the pupils to answer section B₂, the researcher matched sections A and B₁ of each questionnaire with section B₂ (see Appendix D).

4. 3.4. Observing the Classes

Observation took place in three middle schools in the city of Chlef. These middle schools have somehow different characteristics that will be described below. For ethical considerations, the names of schools will not be mentioned in the description; they will be labelled as school 1, school 2 and school 3 in order of our observation sessions. That is, school 1 will be used for the middle school we visited first, school 2 for the second, and school 3 for the third.

a) Description of the schools

School 1

This school was built in 2012. It embodies 701 pupils and 03 (one male and two female) teachers of English, with an average of 233 pupils for each teacher. In this school, the indoor facilities such as snack or coffee bar are inexistent except for the rest room and the staff room. This school is terrestrially well located, which makes it perfectly exposed to the sun. The classrooms, with the average size of about 40 pupils, are maintained and naturally ventilated to a certain extent, and have a quite sufficient natural and electrical lighting. The walls of the classrooms are painted in light yellow, but not decorated. The tables are fit for use to a certain degree. Finally, doors close properly.

School 2

This school is made of two parts: the old part is prefabricated and was built in 1981, a year after the earthquake that shook the city of Chlef in October 1980; and the second part was built in 2015. The school as a whole comprises 1179 pupils and 05 (one male and four female) teachers of English with an average number of 235 pupils for each teacher. In this school, the indoor facilities such as snack or coffee bar are non-existent apart from the staff room and the rest room. The old part of the school is poorly ventilated, and poorly maintained with dirty and under-equipped classrooms painted in purple and covered in graffiti. The light is insufficient, be it natural or

electrical. In these classes, containing an average size of 40 pupils, most of the light bulbs do not work. The tables are very old and dirty, and most classroom doors do not lock properly. The new part of the school has generally clean classrooms with clean but undecorated walls painted in light yellow. The classrooms are sunny and naturally well ventilated. The tables set in rows are somehow in a fairly good condition and, finally, the light bulbs work and the doors close properly.

School 3

This is an old school built in 1979. It embraces 710 pupils with 04 (one male and three female) teachers of English, and an average of 177 pupils for each teacher. The school is surrounded by trees and buildings, which makes natural lighting insufficient, if not absent. The indoor facilities such as snack or coffee bar are also inexistent except for the rest room and the staff room. The classrooms, with an average size of 40 pupils, are under- equipped, poorly maintained with poor natural ventilation, and most of the time dirty. Most of the light bulbs are broken. The walls of some classes are painted in grey and covered with graffiti, and walls of other classes are painted in light yellow. They are clean but without decoration. The tables set in rows and are very old and full of drawings and graffiti. Some classes have too old and broken chairs that sometimes pupils do not find where to sit down and attend classes in a standing position. Finally, door locks and handles of these classes are broken or missing.

b) Observation Procedure

Teachers' observation session started the first week of March 2019, after we obtained an official authorisation from the Academy of Chlef signed on February 20th, 2019 (see Appendix M). To obtain this authorisation, the researcher submitted an official request to the Academy on December 04th, 2018 (see Appendix K). As previously mentioned, the researcher first targeted three male and three female English teachers from three middle schools in the city of Chlef: Cherif Djebbour, Benali Khaldi, and Salah Kiouar, with the intention of expanding her study to more schools. These middle schools were selected, for they are the only middle schools that have a male teacher each. Because of time constraints, and as eight (08) sessions of

observation were devoted to every single teacher, it was not possible to observe all three schools. Consequently, only two were observed (school 1 and school 2). After four sessions of observation in the school 3, we were obliged to stop it because of the final exams that started to take place by the second week of May 2019. The rest of the sessions were intended for the same period of the following school year. Then, due to COVID-19 pandemic, all the classes were stopped from March 2020 till November 2020. This fact significantly impeded the progress of the observation sessions. The strict sanitary measures, such as social distancing, forced the decision-makers to reduce the number of pupils to 20 or 18 per class in some schools, and the time allotted to subject courses from one (01) hour to forty-five (45) minutes. As a result, we started new observation sessions from March 2021 to May 2021 and devoted eight (08) sessions to each teacher. These strict sanitary measures also prevented us from moving to other distant schools that have male and female teachers. As it has been stated above, the teachers were informed of the observation, and before starting observing them, we checked if the light was working. The observation sessions that lasted for forty five (45) minutes each, covered first year, second year, third year and fourth year classes with a variety of lessons such as the past simple tense; the quantifiers; the time markers; the comparative and superlative forms; silent letters; English vowels; the present perfect tense; English prefixes: dis-, in-, un-, ir-, il-, im-; and the imperative.

4.3.5. Collecting Data from Inspectors' Reports

As it has already been mentioned, inspectors' reports were used to conduct a comprehensive examination of the emotional classroom practices of teachers, as the limited number of six teachers with whom we were able to work was deemed insufficient for the current research. These reports are the adapted version of Marshall's (2009) teacher evaluation rubrics that entails six domains: Planning and Preparation for Learning, Classroom Management, Delivery of Instruction, Monitoring, Assessment, and Follow-Up, Family and Community Outreach, and Professional Responsibilities. Inspectors' reports are divided into five parts (see Appendix I): 1) information related to the teachers such as name, date of birth, marital status, nationality, rank, experience, and qualifications; 2) evaluation of the context

and environment in which teaching takes place; 3) ‘film of the lesson’ which describes the way the lessons and activities are planned and presented by the teacher; 4) comment and advice that concern evaluation of the teacher practices; 5) conclusion that inspectors draw on the teachers’ classroom practices. As this research is intended to explore teachers’ emotional intelligence, the researcher stresses teachers’ emotional classroom practices that are mentioned in the third, fourth and fifth parts of the inspectors’ reports. Teachers’ emotional classroom practices evaluated by the inspectors are: 1) Classroom Management; 2) Peer Work; 3) Relationship with Students; 4) Students’ Encouragement and Motivation; 5) Classroom Scanning and Monitoring; 6) Communication. In order to see the extent to which gender affects teachers’ emotional practices, the researcher divided inspectors’ reports, whose total number was 50, into two: 25 reports on male teachers, and 25 reports on female teachers.

4. 4. Procedures of Data Analysis

For a reliable analysis of the collected data, we used two methods that seemed to best fit a mixed methods design. For the quantitative data, we used statistical analysis and presentation of results based on tabulation, pie and bar charts. Unlike teachers’ questionnaire data which were analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively, pupils’ questionnaire, emotional intelligence classroom checklist and inspectors’ questionnaire have been quantitatively analysed and presented in a tabular form to answer the research questions that follow:

RQ2: To what extent are middle school teachers of English emotionally intelligent in their classroom practices?

RQ3: To what extent do their emotional practices differ relative to gender?

4.4.1. Procedure of Analysis of Teachers’ Questionnaire Data

Teachers’ questionnaire consists of four sections: A, B, C and D. As mentioned above, teachers’ questionnaire is analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively. Sections A and D and the first question of section C are analysed through a tabular form and pie chart respectively. Though questions (7) ‘What methods of praise do you

use to encourage students?’ and (8) ‘What methods of correction do you use when dealing with inappropriate behaviour?’ in section D are open-ended questions that require a qualitative analysis, we analysed them quantitatively by means of quantitative content analysis. We classified teachers’ answers according to their nature, then analysed them quantitatively (see below the inspectors’ report data analysis). Our aim from this analysis is not only to have an insight on the methods of praise and correction the teachers use, but also evaluate how much and how often these methods are used. To gauge the extent to which the teachers use humour in the classroom and scan the room to spot struggling or going off-task, as asked respectively in questions (2) and (3) in section D, we used the ordinal scale which includes always, often, sometimes, rarely and never. While analysing teachers’ response to questions (6) ‘Do you praise: a) the person, b) just the work?’ and (10) ‘When talking with students, do you see them: a) as they are or b) as what they can become?’, we added a third value to variables, that is “both” when teachers answers to both (a) and (b).

Section B, the last two questions of section C, and teachers comments were analysed qualitatively. These parts of the teachers’ questionnaire could be analysed qualitatively because the number of the participants that is six (06) in total responded to one of the requirements of the qualitative method that “...often works with small samples of people...” (Gray, 2004, p.323), and that affords better data when it comprises less than 20 participants (Crouch & McKenzie, 2006, cited in Renwick, 2019). In this case, the variables varied in kind not in amount (Christensen, 2001, cited in Marczyk, et al., 2005, p.49).

4.4.2. Procedure of Analysis of Pupils’ Questionnaire Data

Pupils’ questionnaire is made of two parts: part A and part B which in turn is split into B₁ and B₂. In order to analyse the two items in part (A) of the pupils’ questionnaire, the researcher used numeral scales and percentages. As this study was conducted during the social distancing that was imposed by the Covid- 19 pandemic, the pupils in item one were classified according to the years of study that they were in, from year 1 to year 4. This classification was believed to be a crucial element for a good interpretation of the findings. In question (2) in B₁ the pupils were given two

options, i.e., they were asked to say whether they feel safe or threatened (see Appendix: D). However a number of them said that sometimes they feel safe and sometimes threatened. These pupils' response urged us to add a third value that represents both feelings. The addition of such value also concerns questions (6), (7), (8), (9) in B₂. Question (3) in B₂ 'What does your teacher do to make you feel safe or threatened?' that is qualitative in nature was analysed quantitatively. The pupils' answers about their teachers' classroom practices were divided into two: positive practices and negative practices. We classified the teachers' positive practices according to the personal features of an effective teacher that were set by Stronge (2007) in earlier chapters of this thesis. We also classified the negative practices according to the nature of the pupils' responses. In the analysis of question (5) in B₂ 'How often does your teacher ask you to do the activities individually, in pairs, and in group?' we used three separate tables that represent the three types of activities used by the participants in class, that is individual work, pair work and group work. To analyse open-ended question (3) addressed in the pupils' questionnaire, we used quantitative content analysis (see below the inspectors' report data analysis).

4.4.3. Procedure of Analysis of Observation Checklist Data

We used the Emotional Intelligence Classroom Checklist adapted from Allen's (2014) during the classroom observation sessions in order to obtain data in relation to the physical and emotional aspects of the classrooms. As described earlier (section 4.1.2.), we divided the classroom checklist into two sections: Section A was devoted to observation of the physical environment of the classrooms, and section B focused on teachers' emotional classroom practices. Physical classroom features in section A are split into sub-features that vary in number (from one to three features), and emotional classroom practices in section B are divided into sub-practices that also vary in number (from one to five practices) (see Appendix H). To calculate the frequency of each practice observed during the eight observation sessions, we measured the central tendency of sub-practices by means of 'mode'. In other words, the frequency that received the highest number in our data set was considered as the mode, thus the value of a practice performed by every single teacher. In cases of 'bimodal' sets, where two

frequencies receive the highest number, both frequencies were taken into account. That is to say, when the same teacher was found to perform a practice with two equally rated frequencies, both frequencies were calculated. We resorted to the mode as a measure of the central tendency of the teachers' practices because it is easy to understand and calculate and it is not affected by extreme values (Hayes, 2022).

As the classroom observation checklist is designed to answer the third research question on gender-related emotional intelligence, we focused attention on gender-based emotional classroom practices. With respect to gender, the percentage of each practice was calculated according to the gender group. Then, in order to obtain accurate findings related to gender-based discrepancies, the data were analysed based on the obtained average scores of all teachers' classroom practices through calculating the total of variables divided by the number of teachers' classroom practices. Here, we had recourse to the 'mean' as the statistical measure because it is considered as the best way of measurement when "...a reliable and accurate measure of central tendency is needed..." (Singh, 2006, p. 292).

4.4.4. Procedure of Analysis of Inspectors' Questionnaire Data

As mentioned earlier, the questionnaire addressed to the inspectors is the sequel of Allen's (2014) emotional intelligence classroom checklist. We addressed this part to the inspectors because it tackles five teachers' practices 'Classroom Routines, Leadership, Mentoring, Coaching, Vision-target' that are found to require longer time of observation and a greater focus. Again, these practices were divided into sub-practices that vary from one to two practices. This part was analysed in the same way as the first and the second parts of the emotional classroom checklist that represent the physical environment of the classrooms and the teachers' practices we observed. The data were analysed based on the obtained average scores of the teachers' classroom practices through calculating the total of variables divided by the number of teachers' classroom practices. For the sake of more reliable findings, we also had recourse to the mean as the statistical measure of the collected data.

4.4.5. Procedure of Analysis of Inspectors' Reports Data

The total number of inspectors' reports is 50. We content analysed the 50 reports. But we could not do the interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA) of the data because the latter requires a minimum of 3 and a maximum of 6 participants (reports), for a single study, as stated by Smith et al. (2009). Thus, we used quantitative content analysis approach where textual data in the inspectors' reports were converted to numeric data (Rose, 2015). We started coding units according to our research question and the concepts to be identified in our analysis. Then we put the coding units into categories- the coding has been done by one single person who was the researcher of this dissertation. We, finally, analysed the data quantitatively. We opted for this approach as it is a "...flexible research approach that can be applied to a wide variety of text sources." (Rose, al., 2015, p. 7).

4.4.6. Dealing with the Missing Data

As any other researchers, we encountered missing data during our analysis. Missing data occurred because either the participants did not know the answers or they skipped the items accidentally or purposefully (Grace-Martin, 2021). To handle this issue, we applied the listwise deletion approach that suggests analysing only the cases with complete data (Bell, 2009; Grace-Martin, 2021). We had recourse to this approach because it is the default in the majority of statistical applications, and it is extremely straightforward to operate (Grace-Martin, 2021).

Conclusion

This chapter on research design and procedure has described the procedures of data collection and data analysis. It includes a full description of the three research tools, and of their administration to the participants, that is a first questionnaire addressed to 06 middle school teachers of English, a second questionnaire addressed to 218 pupils of these teachers, and a third questionnaire addressed to 4 middle school inspectors of English. Also a description of the observation sessions that took place in three middle schools of the city of Chlef, and 50 official inspectors' reports that we obtained from Chlef academy. Concerning the procedures of data analysis, and for the purpose of

reaching as reliable and accurate findings as possible, a set of techniques, approaches and statistical measurements were implemented. In the following chapter, entitled “Presentation and analysis of the results”, we report, present and analyse the findings in detail, making use of statistical representations like tabulation with graphical tools like pie and bar charts.

Chapter Five

Chapter Five

Presentation and Analysis of the Results

Introduction

This chapter aims to present and analyse the results of the present study. It includes five main sections. Section 5.1. deals with the analysis of the teachers' questionnaire responses while section 5.2 deals with the pupils' questionnaire responses; section 5.3 is devoted to the analysis of the observation data while section 5.4 refers to the analysis of the inspectors' questionnaire responses; finally, section 5.5. deals with the analysis of the inspectors' report data.

As explained in the General Introduction, the present study does not intend to test any hypothesis as it is fundamentally exploratory in nature and seeks to answer the three research questions below:

RQ1: To what extent are middle school teachers of English aware of emotional intelligence as a way to improve their teaching?

RQ2: To what extent are middle school teachers of English emotionally intelligent in their classroom practices?

RQ3: To what extent do their emotional practices differ relative to gender?

5.1. Analysis of Teachers' Questionnaire Responses

5.1.1. Section A: Responses to questions on teachers' gender

As stated in the previous chapter, this section includes information on teacher gender. It is designed to answer the third research question

Table01: Teachers' distribution in terms of their gender

Male Teachers		Female Teachers	
Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
03	50%	03	50%

The above table shows gender distribution of the sample made of 50.00% of male teachers, and 50.00% of female teachers.

5.1.2. Section B: Responses to four open questions

This section contains four qualitative questions. The latter were designed to see whether or not teachers' motivational orientations and willingness have an impact on their emotional intelligence.

- **Analysis of Teachers' Responses to question (1)**

Question 01: Why have you chosen teaching as a career?

Teachers afforded an array of responses through which they expressed their positive attitudes towards teaching and showed that they have willingly chosen teaching as a career. Teachers' verbatim responses are stated below.

- **Teachers' Positive Attitudes about Teaching**

“I have chosen teaching as a career because it is a noble profession through which we can shape the lives of young people.”

“Because I consider learning is very important for the next generation.”

“Because I love teaching culture and knowledge, and sharing talents.”

“Because it is a noble vocation rather than a means of making a living.”

“Because it is a neat and proper work.”

“Since I was a good pupil, I liked to be a teacher.”

- **Analysis of Teachers’ Responses to question (2)**

Question 02: What is the best thing about the job?

Teachers provided various opinions about their job, most of which lay stress on dealing with children, as some of the answers demonstrate:

“The best thing about the job is dealing with the kids because I love them since my childhood.”

“Dealing with kids and providing them with new knowledge.”

“The best thing is the innocence of the kids and their ability to be good citizens.”

“The best thing is to work with learners (persons).”

“Teaching enables me to share knowledge, culture, values and experiences.”

“Teaching is the job of prophets, peace and prayer be upon them.”

- **Analysis of Teachers’ Responses to question (3)**

Question 03: What does the classroom represent to you?

The analysis of this question reveals the convergence of the teachers’ opinions about the classroom. The answers reflect the teachers’ positive attitudes towards the classroom, and describe the classroom as an agreeable and comfortable place where knowledge can be shared and exchanged. Respondents went further to claim the classroom to be a place where they feel like home. Some teachers’ own words are illustrated as follows:

- **Teachers’ Positive Views about the Classroom**

“The place which enables me to share knowledge with my pupils.”

“The class is the atmosphere that helps the learners to learn.”

“As my second home- society.”

“It is my personal favourite and best world.”

“It is my life and my personal world. It is my scene and I am the principal actor.”

“It represents the home of having or learning and studying new items and new things.”

- **Analysis of Teachers’ Responses to question (4)**

Question 04: To what extent does the physical environment of the classroom affect your behaviour?

The obtained answers reflect a diverging view about how the physical environment affects teachers’ behaviour in the classroom. Some teachers expressed their discontentment, frustration and discouragement to do well when something goes wrong in the classroom like lack of electricity. Others, on the other hand, insisted on their resistance or resilience to difficulties, or ‘impermeability’ no matter how difficult the environment is. Their answers are stated as follows:

- **Teachers’ Diverging Perspective on the Way Classroom Affects their Behaviour**

1. “I would be so unsatisfied because we can’t work in such conditions when there is something missing like light.”

2. “It disables the teacher to behave well”.

3. “For me, I don’t care about the problems in the classroom. I just try to make the pupils neglect problems in order to be better learners.”

4. “I allow myself to be affected only positively by the environment of the classroom.”

5. “I allow the environment to affect me only positively because I am old hat in teaching.”

5.1.3. Section C: Responses to questions on awareness of EI

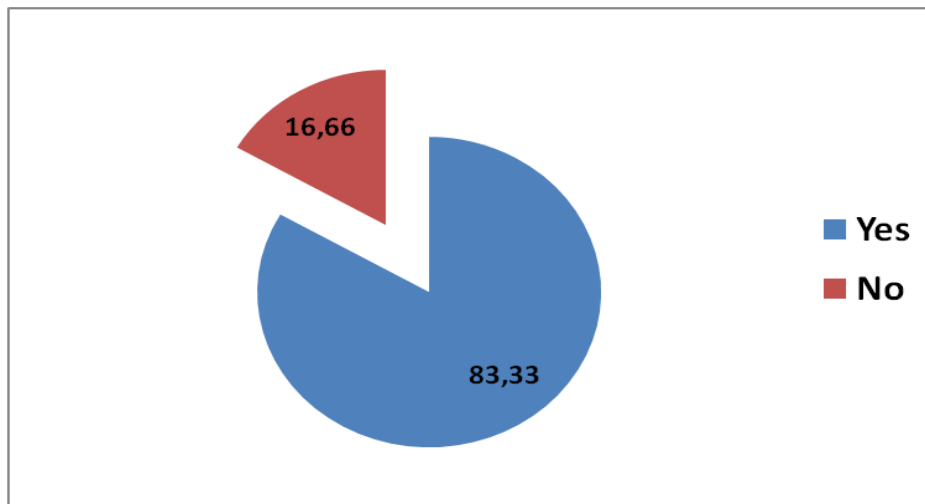
This section embraces three (03) questions; the first one is meant to collect quantitative data. These questions are designed to see whether or not middle school

teachers of English are aware of the emotional side of the teaching/learning process, and the extent to which the weekly seminars they attend with the school inspectors assist and boost them to develop their emotional side.

- **Analysis of Teachers' Responses to question (1)**

Question 01: Do you attend the weekly seminars and conferences organized by your institutions?

Figure 01: Conferences and Workshops Teachers' Attendance



The analysis of the responses, summarized in the above pie, shows a out of six male and female teachers, 83.33% attend weekly seminars, conferences and workshops organized by their institution, and only 16.66% miss these professional meetings.

- **Analysis of Teachers' Responses to question (2)**

Question 02: What do these seminars and conferences provide you with?

The collected data reveal that all the participants are in favour of the weekly seminars and conferences that the teachers attend. It seems that these seminars have a dual function, in that they focus on both the technical and emotional side of the teaching/ learning process. Some teachers' responses are cited as follows.

1. "We can get profit from these seminars because they help us to do well with the work."
2. "They are in close relationship with psycho-pedagogy and practical tips of teaching."
3. "They provide us with new methods and techniques which show us how to deal with the learners in the class."
4. "The seminars provide me with many techniques and the way to deal with the lessons and pupils."
5. "New tips and techniques in the field of pedagogy and psycho-pedagogy."

- **Analysis of Teachers' Responses to question (3)**

Question 03: If given the opportunity, what changes would you bring to your professional development?

Teachers' answers show that in spite of their positive attitudes towards the seminars and conferences they attend, they still wish the latter could bring something new to their professional development. However, it is important to mention that most of the responses related to the changes that teachers would like to bring to their development, reveal their lack of awareness and significance of emotional intelligence, and its important role in teaching/learning, as some of their responses below show:

1. "I would change the methodology of teaching English and encourage teachers to be more eclectic."
2. "Changing the syllabus because it isn't adequate with the learners' level."
3. "I wish for more freedom in teaching. Teachers should be free to teach."
4. "We should have 20 or 22 pupils in class in order to improve the pupils level."
5. "I'll bring what is important and change what is boring."
6. "I would learn more about didactics and psycho-pedagogy because it is important to know how to deal with the learners."

5.1.4. Section D: Responses to questions on teachers’ emotional practices

This section entails ten (10) questions regarding teachers’ emotional practices in the classroom. These questions were intended to collect data so as to answer the second and third research questions.

- **Analysis of Teachers’ Responses to question (1)**

Question 01: What atmosphere do you think you create by being in the classroom? Do you produce a) energy, b) enthusiasm, c) uncertainty, or d) doubt?

Table 02: The atmosphere created by the teachers in the classroom

The atmosphere created by the teachers										
Energy (03)		Enthusiasm (01)		Enthusiasm and Energy (02)		Uncertainty (0)		Doubt (0)		
M (0)	F (03)	M (01)	F (00)	M (02)	F (00)	M (00)	F(00)	M (00)	F(00)	
00.00%	100%	33.33%	00.00%	66.66%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	
Total		16.66%		33.33%		00.00%		00.00%		

The above table indicates that the atmosphere created by the teachers is rather positive in that half (50%) of the respondents claimed to be energetic, and 16.66% stated to be enthusiastic in the classroom. 33.33% of the teachers contended that they are energetic and enthusiastic at the same time. Taking gender into account, all the female teachers (100%) are found to diffuse energy among their pupils, while their male counterparts spread out either enthusiasm (33.33%) or enthusiasm and energy (66.66%) but none of the male teachers (00.00%) is found to be purely energetic.

- **Analysis of Teachers’ Responses to question (2)**

Question 02: How often do you use humour in the classroom?

Out of 06 (100%) respondents, 05 (83.33%) answered the question as follows:

Table 03: Frequency of the use of humour by the teachers in the classroom

Teachers’ practice	Frequency									
	Always		Often		Sometimes		Rarely		Never	
Humour	M (01)	F (01)	M (01)	F (02)	M (00)	F (00)	M (00)	F (00)	M (00)	F (00)
	50.00%	33.33%	50.00%	66.66%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Total	40.00%		60.00%		00.00%		00.00%		00.00%	

The findings point out to the fact that both male and female teachers use humour in their teaching but in different degrees; it is often used by 60% of the teachers, while 40% claim that they always use it. Regarding teachers’ gender, humour seems to be more often used by male teachers than their female counterparts with 50% and 33.33% respectively.

- **Analysis of Teachers’ Responses to question (3)**

Question 03: How often do you scan the room to spot those struggling or going off-task?

Out of 06 (100%) respondents, 05 (83.33%) answered the question as follows:

Table 04: Frequency of the classroom scanning by the teachers.

Teachers' practice	Frequency									
	Always		Often		Sometimes		Rarely		Never	
Classroom Scanning	M (01)	F (00)	M (00)	F (02)	M (01)	F (01)	M (00)	F (00)	M (00)	F (00)
	50.00%	00.00%	00.00%	66.66%	50.00%	33.33%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%	00.00%
Total	20.00%		40.00%		40.00%		00.00%		00.00%	

As seen in table 04 above, male and female teachers who always scan the room to spot struggling or going off-task students represent only 20%. Those who often and those who sometimes scan the room represent 40% of the respondents. 50% of male teachers stated that they always scan the classroom, while none (00%) of the female teachers was found to scan it at this degree of frequency. On the other hand, 66.66% of the females affirmed to often scan the classroom. 50% of male teachers sometimes scan the classroom, while only 33.33% of their female counterparts sometimes do.

- **Analysis of Teachers' Responses to question (4)**

Question 04: Do you consider that your comments have an impact on all your students, including those within listening distance (those you address indirectly)?

Out of 06 (100%) respondents, 05 (83.33%) answered the question as follows:

Table 05: Impact of the teachers' comments on the pupils.

Impact of the Teachers' comments	Yes		No	
	M (02)	F (02)	M (01)	F (00)
	66.66%	100%	33.33%	00.00%
Total	80.00%		20.00%	

The findings reveal that most (80%) of the teachers estimate that their comments have an impact on their learners, while only 20% of them asserted that their comments do not. 100% of the female teachers against 66.66% of male teachers believe that their comments have an influence on the pupils. 33.33% of male teachers claimed that their comments have no influence on their pupils, while none (00%) of their female counterparts affirmed that their comments are uninformative.

- **Analysis of Teachers' Responses to question (5)**

Question 05: Do you make comments about good work: a) to push towards improvements, or b) to celebrate the success?

Out of 06 (100%) respondents, 05 (83.33%) answered the question as follows:

Table 06: Comments about good work that the teachers make.

Comments about good work	Yes		No	
	M (03)	F (02)	M (00)	F (00)
	100%	100%	00.00%	00.00%
Total	100%		00.00%	

The results reveal that the all the teachers (100%) make comments about good work to boost their learners to do better. In the matter of gender, both male and female teachers have scored high (100%) in relation to comments about good work.

- **Analysis of Teachers' Responses to question (6)**

Question 06: Do you praise a) the person, b) just the work?

Table 07: Type of praise that the teachers use.

Type of praise	The person		The work		Both the work and the person	
	M (01)	F (03)	M (00)	F (00)	M (02)	F (00)
	33.33%	100%	00.00%	00.00%	66.66%	00.00%
Total	66.66%		00.00%		33.33%	

As illustrated above, more than half (66.66%) of the respondents praise the person rather than the work. On the other hand, 33.33% of the teachers stated that they opt for praising both the work and the person. It is worth noting that all the female teachers (100%) against only 33.33% of their male counterparts claimed to praise the person. However, the rest of male teachers (66.66%) are found to praise both the person and the work.

- **Analysis of Teachers' Responses to question (7)**

Question 07: What methods of praise do you use to encourage students?

Teachers' responses were split by the researcher into two methods of praise according to the nature of their responses, as shown in the following table:

Table 08: Methods of praise that the teachers use to encourage their pupils.

Method of praise	Using motivating words and compliments (excellent, very good, well done, thank you...)		Giving rewards (extra points, books, sweets, stickers...)	
	M (3)	F (2)	M (0)	F (1)
	100%	66.66%	00.00%	33.33%
Total	83.33%		16.66%	

The findings show that the six teachers that represent 100% of the population sample use an array of praise to encourage their pupils. It could be split into two methods: 1) using motivating words and compliments; 2) giving rewards. The former method appears to be used the most, in that 83.33% of the responses stated that they use motivating words such as excellent, very good, well done, thank you...etc. On the other hand, only 16.66 % of the respondents are reported to give rewards to their learners. Referring to gender, all male teachers (100%) are found to use only motivating words and compliments. With respect to female teachers, 66.66% use only motivating words and compliments, whereas 33.33% of them use rewards.

- **Analysis of Teachers’ Responses to question (8)**

Question 08: What methods of correction do you use when dealing with inappropriate behaviour?

Here again, teachers’ answers were divided into two methods of correction according to the nature of their answers as indicated below:

Table 09: Methods of correction that the teachers use when dealing with inappropriate behaviour.

Methods of correction	Pieces of advice and nice words		Both pieces of advice and punishment	
	M (02)	F (03)	M (01)	F (00)
	66.66%	100%	33.33%	00.00%
Total	83.33%		16.66%	

The table 09 above discloses that the teachers have different ways or techniques of correction that can be split into two methods of correction: 1) pieces of advice and nice words; 2) punishment. It appears that these methods are not used at the same rate. As a matter of fact, most of the teachers (83.33%) give advice and use nice words when dealing with inappropriate behaviour, while 16.66% give advice and use nice words, but also use punishment. In relation to gender, 100% of female teachers seem to have a tendency to give pieces of advice and use nice words to correct their students' misconduct. On the other hand, 66.66% of male teachers give pieces of advice and use nice words, and 33.33% use both methods.

- **Analysis of Teachers' Responses to question (9)**

Question 09: What form does your detention take? Is it viewed a) as a time of punishment, b) as a time of reflection and rebuilding?

Out of 06 (100%) respondents, 05 (83.33%) answered the question.

Table 10: Form of detention used by the teachers.

Form of detention	A time of punishment		A time of reflection and rebuilding	
	M (00)	F (00)	M (02)	F (03)
	00.00%	00.00%	100%	100%
Total	00.00%		100%	

The above findings indicate that none of the teachers (00%) regards the form of detention as a time of punishment, when all (100%) of them reckon it is a time of reflection and rebuilding. It is worth mentioning that the form of detention is equally considered as a time of reflection and rebuilding by female teachers and their male counterparts with 100% each.

- **Analysis of Teachers' Responses to question (10)**

Question 10: When talking with students, do you see them a) as they are or b) as what they can become?

Out of 06 (100%) respondents, 05 (83.33%) answered the question.

Table 11: The way teachers see their pupils.

The way teachers see their pupils	As they are (01)		As they can become (03)		Both as they are and as they can become (03)	
	M (0)	F (1)	M (1)	F (2)	M (2)	F (0)
	00.00%	33.33%	33.33%	66.66%	66.66%	00.00%
Total	16.66%		50.00%		33.33%	

The above table shows that half (50.00%) of the participants see their learners as they can become, while only 16.66% see their learners as they are. On the other hand, 33.33% of the teachers claimed that they see their pupils both as they are and as they can become. With regard to gender, 66.66% of female teachers see their pupils as they can become, while the same percentage of their male counterparts (66.66%) see their pupils both as they are and as they become. In addition, none (00.00%) of the male teachers against 33.33% of their female counterparts are found to see their learners as they are.

5.1.5. Analysis of Teachers' Further Comments in the Teachers' Questionnaire

Teachers provided a wide range of comments, all of which are related to the unpleasant and difficult circumstances affecting the way they behave in the classroom. Some answers, however, demonstrate that regardless of these conditions, teachers still feel comfortable with their job since they do it for love and by choice. Additionally, they consider teaching as a golden opportunity that makes them learn, share and disseminate knowledge. It is noteworthy that the dreadfulness and nastiness of the teaching conditions they reported are due to a set of reasons, such as: 1) the unsuitable teaching method that impedes the learning process; 2) the syllabus that is beyond the learners' intellectual capabilities; 3) the coursebook that is confusing and often unsuitable because it does not respond to the learners' needs; 4) lack of freedom that hampers teachers from doing their job the way they think fits best their objectives; 4) arbitrary and zealous behaviour of certain officials; 5) long-lasting unfavourable teaching conditions that make certain teachers feel bored and tired, therefore angry. Excerpts of some verbatim teachers' comments are cited below.

1. "Teaching is a good job. I have taught for many years. It is hard to teach more than 20 years. Now, I feel tired and I get angry when my pupils do not do their homework. I sometimes punish them in order to do their tasks and study to be good learners."
2. "Teaching is a hard and tiring job. We should always find the suitable method to do or give lessons in order to get the pupils understand the lesson. Teachers must be respectful and not tolerant with the pupils."

3. “Teaching in middle school these last ten years becomes hard because the programme goes beyond the learners’ level. Even the book ‘The course book’ is not well organised. It contains some lessons that don’t fit the learners’ needs and doesn’t have a relation with the learning objectives.”
4. “Teaching is really a tiring work but I like it because of its benefits that influence our attitudes as teachers. Dealing with beginners is so exciting and delightful”.
5. “I believe that all the teachers of English can do their best if they are let on their own. Teaching is an art and science. Therefore they need to be free. The freer we are, the better we do. Teachers need freedom to feel at ease and work well.”
6. “I recognise that teachers should take pupils’ behaviour into account because through their behaviour you can know the extent to which they are motivated. The problem this year is the arbitrariness of our headmistress namely in relation to timetables.”

5.2. Analysis of Pupils’ Questionnaire Responses

This section is meant to answer the second and third research questions. It presents the results of the pupils’ questionnaire analysis. The data were collected to obtain pupils’ views on their teachers’ emotional practices. The questionnaire was administered to the pupils in Arabic. The responses of the respondents were also provided in Arabic, and translated into English by myself, the author of this research. Numeral scales and percentages are used for the analysis of the pupils’ answers to each question. As described in chapter 4, pupils’ questionnaire is divided into two parts: (A) and (B) which is in turn split into (B₁) and (B₂). The first part (A) of this section includes two items, as indicated below:

Section A

- **Biographic Background of the Pupils**

The table below summarizes the biographic information of the participants (pupils).

Our corpus includes 218 respondents:

Table 12: pupils' distribution in terms of school year of study

Pupils' middle school year of study	First year (27)	Second year (79)	Third year (82)	Fourth year (30)
		12.38%	36.23%	37.61%

- **Teachers' Gender**

The following table demonstrates the teachers' distribution in terms of gender according to the pupils' answer. 50.45% of the respondents claimed being taught by male teachers; 49.54% said that their teachers are females.

Table 13: Teachers distribution in terms of gender according to the pupils

Male teachers	Female teachers
50.45%	49.54%

The second part (**B**) of this section that includes (**B₁** and **B₂**) reports pupils' responses. Numeral scales and percentages are used for the analysis of the pupils' answers to each question.

Section B: B₁

- **Analysis of Pupils' Responses to question (1)**

Question One: When upset, does your teacher use: a) appropriate, b) inappropriate language?

The participants 218 (100%) answered the question as follows:

Table 14: Type of language used by the teachers when upset.

Type of Language	Appropriate Language (182)		Inappropriate Language (36)	
	Male Teachers (86)	Female Teachers (96)	Male Teachers (24)	Female Teachers (12)
	47.25%	52.74%	66.66%	33.33%
Total	83.48%		16.51%	

The answers reported by 83.48% of pupils suggest that teachers use appropriate language, while 16.51% claim their teachers to use inappropriate one when they are upset. 52.74% of the pupils claimed that their female teachers use appropriate language, while 47.25% stated that male teachers use appropriate language. As for the inappropriate language, the above table indicates that 66.66% of the pupils claimed their male teachers to use inappropriate language in the classroom when upset, while 33.33% reported their female teachers to use it.

- **Analysis of Pupils' Responses to question (2)**

Question 2: When you get with your teacher in the classroom, do you feel: a) safe, b) threatened (anxious, under pressure, afraid...etc)?

The participants 218 (100%) provided the following answers:

Table 15: Pupils' feelings when they get with their teachers in the classroom

Feeling	Safe (183)		Threatened (9)		Sometimes safe sometimes Threatened (26)	
	M (90)	F (93)	M (09)	F (00)	M (11)	F (15)
	49.18%	50.81%	100%	00.00%	42.30%	57.70%
Total	83.94%		04.12%		11.92%	

The table above shows that the largest part (83.94%) of the pupils feel safe with their teachers, while 04.12% of them stated that they feel threatened. On the other hand, another group of the pupils that represents 11.92% declared that they sometimes feel safe and sometimes threatened. With regard to gender, the pupils who feel safe 50.81% reported that they feel safe with their female teachers, and 49.18% with their male teachers. Those who feel sometimes safe and sometimes threatened, 57.70% feel so with their female teachers, and 42.30% with their male teachers. It is important to mention that none (00.00%) of the pupils feel thoroughly threatened by the presence of their female teachers in the classroom.

- **Analysis of Pupils' Responses to question (3)**

Question 03: What does your teacher do to make you feel safe or threatened?

This question asks pupils' about their teachers' behaviour in class. As the pupils were given the opportunity to provide freeform answer, a great number of their responses were rated in different categories.

Table 16 below is about teachers' practices that make pupils feel safe in the classroom.

Positive Teachers behaviours	Caring (124)		Fairness and Respect (197)		Social Interaction with Students (145)		Promoting Enthusiasm and Motivating Learning (31)		Reflective Practice (34)		Teachers' Attitudes toward the Teaching Profession (00)	
	M (61)	F (63)	M (83)	F (114)	M (92)	F (53)	M (13)	F (18)	M (19)	F (15)	M (0)	F (0)
	49.20%	50.80%	42.13%	57.87%	63.45%	36.55%	41.94%	58.06%	55.88%	44.12%	00.00%	00.00%
Total	23.35%		37.09%		27.30		05.83%		06.40%		00.00%	

Table 16: Teachers' behaviours that make pupils feel safe, as defined by Stronge 2007 (see pp. 65-74)

The 218 Pupils responded to the question on what teacher's behaviour makes them feel safe, as defined by Stronge (2007). Results in table 16 indicate that 37.09% of the pupils who feel safe find their teachers fair and respectful, 27.30% claimed their teachers to be good at social interaction with their learners, and 23.35% contended that their teachers are caring. On the other hand, only 06.40% described their teachers as reflective in their practices; and finally, only 5.83% of the pupils stated that their teachers promote enthusiasm and motivate their learning. No pupil provided any answer about the teachers' attitudes towards their profession. Apropos of the gender-based differences, male teachers are found to score higher in social interaction than their female counterparts with 63.45% and 36.55% respectively. Male teachers were also reported by 55.88% to be reflective, while 44.12% attributed this feature to their female teachers. 58.06% of the pupils said that their female teachers are enthusiastic and motivating; 57.87% claimed that their female teachers are fair and respectful. It is noteworthy that caring is almost equally attributed by 50.80% and 49.20% of the pupils to female and male teachers respectively.

Table 17 below gives an account of the 97 responses by the pupils to the question on their teachers' behaviours that makes them feel threatened. The five categories represent teachers' behaviours as described by the pupils themselves in their responses, that is, frustration, rudeness and anger, insult, humiliation, inequity and excessive self-esteem.

Negative teachers' behaviours	Frustration (49)		Rudeness and Anger (38)		Insult and Humiliation (06)		Inequity (03)		Excessive Self-esteem (01)	
	M (32)	F (17)	M (26)	F (12)	M (01)	F (05)	M (01)	F (02)	M (01)	F (00)
	65.30%	34.69%	68.42%	31.57%	16.66%	83.33%	33.33%	66.66%	100%	00.00%
Total	50.51%		39.17%		06.18%		03.09%		01.03%	

Table 17: Teachers' behaviours that make pupils feel threatened

Table 17 shows the responses of the learners who feel threatened in the classroom. Half of them (50.51%) feel frustrated, 39.17% stated their teachers are rude and angry in the classroom, 06.18% said that the teachers insult and humiliate them; 03.09% responses indicate that their teachers treat pupils unequally, and finally, 1.03% of the pupils reported their teachers' excessive self-esteem. In relation to the gender variable, pupils who feel frustrated by their teachers, 65.30% of pupils reported to feel frustrated by their male teachers and 34.69% by their female teachers. As for the pupils who find their teachers rude and angry, 68.42% of them attributed 'Rudeness and anger' to male teachers, while 31.57% only to female teachers. Pupils' answers show that 'Humiliation and insult' is more practiced by female teachers than male counterparts with 83.33% and 16.66% respectively. Inequity also seems to be more performed by female than male teachers with 66.66% and 33.33% respectively. Finally, 100% of the pupils' responses indicate that male teachers have an 'excessive self-esteem'.

- ***Responses of the pupils who feel safe:***

Table 18: Teachers' positive behaviours that make the learners feel safe

Pupils' answers revealing teachers' caring
<ul style="list-style-type: none">➤ She supports us when we are in trouble.➤ She cares about us.➤ She is indulgent.➤ She treats us like her/ his children.➤ She makes me feel secure.➤ She entertains us so we don't get bored with the studies.➤ She loves us.➤ She cares about our results.➤ She makes me feel that she is like a mother to me.

- She makes us forget that she is a teacher; she is like a friend.
- She makes me feel at home.
- She protects me from harm.
- She builds an exceptional relationship with us.
- She never humiliates me.
- She always asks me about my health.
- She does not treat us like pupils but like her younger sisters and brothers.
- She does not shout at us.
- She is affectionate.
- I feel comfortable during her session.
- She soothes me when I get sick.
- She gives us pieces of advice.
- She helps her pupils outside the session.

Pupils' answers indicating their teachers' fairness and respect.

- She explains the lessons very well.
- She is modest.
- She does not hit us without due cause.
- She speaks to us in a pleasing way.
- She speaks politely.
- She talks gracefully.
- She teaches us very well.
- When I do not understand, she explains the lesson again.
- When she gets into the classroom, she greets us.
- When we make mistakes, she corrects us.

- She does not discriminate, she treats us fairly.
- She does not expel us from the class.
- She does not humiliate us when we make mistakes.
- She explains in Arabic when we do not understand.
- When she gets into the classroom angry, she does not take her anger out on us.

Pupils' answers suggesting their teachers' social interaction.

- She smiles to us.
- She enters in class with a smiling face.
- She is cheerful and always smiling.
- He talks about religious topics.
- She laughs with us.
- She tells jokes.
- She tells jokes most of the time, playing games or sharing their experiences.
- She talks to us.
- She tells us stories.
- He tells us that he likes sports and English.
- When explaining the lessons, he gives us proverbs useful to us.
- He tells us funny stories and those about the prophets.
- He talks about his life experience.

Pupils' answers suggesting their teachers' enthusiasm and motivation.

- She motivates us to study
- She tells us that life without studies is worthless.
- She gives us extra points.

- She motivates us, asking us not to be ashamed of ourselves.

Pupils' answers showing their teachers' reflective practices.

- His way of teaching is very methodic.
- He starts the lesson with humour, then he gets into the lesson progressively.
- He asks me to leave the room so he listens to my problems and tries to solve them.
- During the lesson, she gives us the opportunity to consult each other.
- She explains the lesson slowly.
- When I do not understand the question, she repeats it again and again until I get it.

• *Responses of the pupils who feel threatened*

Table 19: Teachers' negative behaviours that make the learners feel threatened

Pupils' answers indicating their teachers' rudeness and anger

- When he hears someone talking, he hits them on their head.
- She hits us.
- She shouts at us.
- He hits girls rudely.
- He hits girls on their backs.
- When she gets angry she uses rude language.

Pupils' answers showing their teachers' insults and humiliation.

- He calls us donkey and the like.
- He expels us from the class.

- She hits us and insults us.

Pupils' answers revealing their teachers' inequity

- She gives us a zero.
- He teaches us lessons without explanation.

Pupils' answers showing their teachers' excessive self- esteem.

- He always talks about himself and pretends being of a mystery.

Pupils' answers revealing frustration

- I get frustrated when I do not know the answer
- When she gets angry, I cannot ask her for clarification.
- She asks us to keep silence even when talking quietly.
- When she gets angry, I get scared and say to myself "If I do something wrong, I'll pay for it".
- Her handwriting is illegible.
- She explains the lesson only in English.
- She does not allow us to go to the rest room.
- His exams are complicated and challenging.
- He does not involve us in the correction of the exercises.
- He threatens us excessively.
- I am afraid for my future because of his way of teaching.

Section B: B₂

- **Analysis of Pupils' Responses to question (1)**

Question 01: Does your teachers use motivating words?

Out of 218 (100%) participants, 211 (96.78%) answered as follows (see table 20 below):

Table 20: Pupils' answers about the use of motivating words by their teachers.

Use of motivating words	Yes (189)		No (22)	
	M (90)	F (99)	M (16)	F (06)
	47.61%	52.38%	72.72%	27.27%
Total	89.57%		10.42%	

The above results demonstrate that the largest number (89.57%) of the pupils declared that their teachers use motivating words in the classroom, whereas 10.42% only suggested the non- use of these words by their teachers. Keeping gender in view, 52.38% of the pupils claimed that motivating words are used by female teachers, while 47.61% said that they are used by male teachers.

- **Analysis of Pupils' Responses to question (2)**

Question 02: How often does your teacher ask you to do the activities individually, in pairs, and in group?

Out of 218 (100%) pupils, 205 (94.03%) afforded the following responses (see table 21 below):

Activity	Frequency									
	Always (120)		Often (28)		Sometimes (37)		Rarely (12)		Never (08)	
Individual Work	M (68)	F (52)	M (10)	F (18)	M (15)	F (22)	M (05)	F (07)	M (06)	F (02)
	56.66%	43.33%	35.51%	64.28%	40.54%	59.45%	41.66%	58.33%	75.00%	25.00%
Total	58.53%		13.65%		18.04%		05.85%		03.90%	

Table 21: Frequency of individual work given by the teachers

The results show that more than half of the pupils (58.53%) claimed that teachers always opt for individual work whereas 18.04% of the respondents said that individual activities are sometimes given by the teachers. 13.65% contended that the tasks in the classroom are often individual. And, finally, only 03.90% asserted that they never tackle tasks individually. As for teachers' gender, male teachers are found to score higher than female teachers in giving the learners individual work with 56.66% and 43.33% respectively.

Out of 218 (100%) pupils, only 182 (83.48%) responded as follows (see table 22 below):

Table 22: Frequency of pair work given by the teachers

Activity	Frequency									
	Always (10)		Often (40)		Sometimes (71)		Rarely (30)		Never (31)	
Pair Work	M (04)	F (06)	M (22)	F (18)	M (38)	F (33)	M (15)	F (15)	M (18)	F (13)
	40.00%	60.00%	55.00%	45.00%	53.52%	46.47%	50.00%	50.00%	58.06%	41.93%
	05.49%		21.97%		39.01%		16.48%		17.03%	
Total	05.49%		21.97%		39.01%		16.48%		17.03%	

Table 22 above indicates that 39.01% of the respondents contended that pair tasks are sometimes designed by the teachers; 21.97% of them claimed that their teachers often give them pair work. One can also notice that a fairly high number of pupils (17.03%) said that their teachers never assign pair tasks in the classroom. Apropos of gender differentiation, 60.00% of pupils claimed that their teachers always ask them to work in pairs, and that their female teachers always give them pair work, while 40.00% of them said that their male teachers assign this type of activity.

Out of 218 (100%) pupils, only 188 (86.26%) answered as follows (see table 23 below):

Table 23: Frequency of group work given by the teachers.

Activity	Frequency									
Group Work	Always (06)		Often (23)		Sometimes (39)		Rarely (49)		Never (71)	
	M (1)	F (05)	M (14)	F (09)	M (17)	F (22)	M (25)	F (24)	M (41)	F (30)
	16.66%	83.33%	60.86%	39.13%	43.58%	56.41%	51.02%	48.97%	57.74%	42.25%
Total	03.19%		12.23%		20.74%		26.06%		37.76%	

The above results disclose that 37.76% of the participants reported that group tasks are never assigned by the teachers, while 26.06% said that their teachers rarely arrange for group work. 20.74% of the pupils contended that activities in group are sometimes assigned to them, when only 03.19% claimed that their teachers always give them group work. It is worth mentioning that, according to the pupils who stated that their teachers always give them group work, female teachers design group tasks much more frequently than their male counterparts with 83.33% and 16.66% respectively. As for those who claimed that their teachers never design group work, 57.74 % and 42.25% of the pupils stated that male teachers and their female counterparts, respectively, never assign group work.

- **Analysis of pupils’ responses to question (3)**

Question 03: When you ask your teacher for clarifications, does he/she welcome your request?

Out of 218 (100%), 217 (99.54%) answered the question as follows (table 24)

Table 24: Teachers' approval about students' requests for clarification.

Teachers' approval about the students' requests	Yes (204)		No (12)		Sometimes (01)	
	M (99)	F (105)	M (10)	F (02)	M (01)	F (00)
	48.52%	51.47%	83.33%	16.66%	100%	00.00%
Total	94.00%		05.52%		00.46%	

The findings indicate that the great majority of the pupils (94.00%) confirm that their requests for clarification are well received by their teachers, while 05.52% claim that their requests are rejected by their teachers. 00.46% reported that their teachers do not always approve their requests. As far as gender is concerned, female teachers seem to be a little more welcoming as to pupils' requests for clarification in the sense that 51.47% of the pupils reported their female teachers to approve their requests, while 48.52% find male teachers to approve them.

- **Analysis of pupils' responses to question (4)**

Question 04: Are these clarifications made in: a) a comprehensible input, b) an input that is beyond your ability?

Out of 218 (100%), 216 (99.08%) provided the following answers (Table 25):

Table 25: Comprehensibility of the Teachers' Input.

Quality of the input	Comprehensible input (174)		Unintelligible input (39)		Input not always comprehensible (03)	
	M (93)	F (81)	M (14)	F (25)	M (02)	F (01)
	53.44%	37.50%	35.89%	64.10%	66.66%	33.33%
Total	80.55%		18.05%		1.38%	

The results obtained illustrate that the great majority of the learners (80.55%) find that the input supplied by their teachers is comprehensible, while only 18.05% find it unintelligible. On the other hand, 01.38% of the pupils claim to find the input sometimes unintelligible. Here again, male teachers are found to surpass their female counterparts in yielding a comprehensible input, with 53.44% and 37.50% respectively.

- **Analysis of pupils' responses to question (5)**

Question 05: Does your teacher listen and understand your concerns and problems that occur inside the classroom?

Out of 218 (100%) of the pupils, 213 (97.70%) supplied answers that follow (see table 26):

Table 26: Teachers' listening and understanding of the pupils' problems happening inside the classroom.

Listening and understanding pupils' problems happening inside the classroom	Yes (158)		No (52)		Not always (03)	
	M (78)	F (80)	M (27)	F (25)	M (01)	F (02)
	49.36%	50.63%	51.92%	48.07%	33.33%	66.66%
Total	74.17%		24.41%		01.40%	

The above table reveals that most of the students (74.17%) feel that their teachers understand their problems that occur inside the classroom. In spite of these positive results, a fairly high number of learners (24.41%) find their teachers insensitive to the problems that happen inside the classroom. The results also indicate that listening to pupils' problems happening inside the classroom is a practice that is almost equally performed by male and female teachers 49.39% vs 50.63%, 51.92% vs 48.07% respectively.

- **Analysis of pupils' responses to question (6)**

Question 06: Does your teacher listen to and understand your concerns and problems that occur outside the classroom?

Out of 218 (100%) of the pupils, 214 (98.16%) answered as follows (see table 27):

Table 27: Teachers' listening and understanding of the pupils' problems happening outside the classroom.

Listening and understanding pupils' problems happening outside the classroom	Yes (79)		No (134)		Not always (01)	
	M (39)	F (40)	M (69)	F (65)	M	F (01)
	49.36%	50.63%	51.49%	48.50%	00.00%	100%
Total	36.91%		62.61%		00.46%	

Unlike the previous results, the above table indicates that more than half of the participants (62.61%) report their teachers to be careless with the problems that take place outside the classroom. In respect of gender differentiation, listening and understanding pupils' problems happening outside the classroom seems to be a practice performed almost at the same rate by male and female teachers, in that 49.36% of the pupils reported their male teachers to be aware of the problems that occur outside the classroom; and 50.63% claimed the female teachers to be concerned with what occurs outside the classroom.

- **Analysis of pupils' responses to question (7)**

Question 7: What kind of relationship has your teacher built with you?

Out of 218 (100%) of the participants, 217 (99.94%) yielded the following responses (see table 28):

Table 28: Kind of relationship that teachers build with their pupils.

Kind of relationship teachers build with their pupils	Close relationship (193)		Distant relationship (24)	
	M (96)	F (97)	M (14)	F (10)
	49.74%	50.25%	58.33%	41.66%
Total	88.94%		11.05%	

The obtained results show that a large number of learners (88.94%) feel the teachers to be close to them, while 11.05% find them distant. As for gender discrepancies, male and female teachers are found to build relationship of almost the same degree of closeness in that 50.25% of the pupils contended that female teachers are close to them, while 49.74% of the pupils claimed their male teachers to build close relationship with their pupils. The results also show that male teachers build a little more distant relationship with their pupils compared to their female counterparts with 58.33% and 41.66% respectively.

- **Analysis of pupils' responses to question (8)**

Question 8: To help you understand quickly and easily, does your teacher use different voice tones and body language such as facial expression, hands...etc?

Table 29: The use of voice tones and body language by the teachers.

The use of Voice tones and body language by the teachers	Yes (202)		No (16)	
	M (98)	F (104)	M (12)	F (04)
	48.51%	51.48%	75.00%	25.00%
Total	92.66%		07.33%	

The pupils' responses in table 29 above indicate that nearly all the teachers (92.66%) use different voice tones and body language to make the learning process smooth and effortless. Female teachers are found to perform slightly better compared to their male counterparts with 51.48% and 48.51% respectively.

- **Analysis of pupils' responses to question (9)**

Question 9: If yes, how often does he/ she use them?

Out of 218 (100%) of the pupils, 210 (96.33%) provided the following responses (see table 30):

Table 30: Frequency of voice tone and body language used by the teachers.

Voice tone/ body language	Frequency							
	Always (141)		Often (38)		Sometimes (21)		Rarely (10)	
	M (72)	F (69)	M (15)	F (23)	M (09)	F (12)	M (10)	F (00)
	51.06%	48.93%	39.47%	60.52%	42.85%	57.14%	100%	00.00%
Total	67.14%		18.09%		10.00%		04.76%	

The results reported above show that more than half of the pupils (67.14%) assumed that their teachers always use different voice tones and body language in their teaching; 18.09% claimed that their teachers often use them. Only 04.76% of the respondents claimed that their teachers rarely use this set of procedure. The results also indicate that different voice tones and body language are slightly more frequently used by male teachers than their female counterparts.

- **Analysis of pupils’ responses to question (10)**

Question 10: Does your teacher treat all the students the same way?

Out of 218 (100%) of the pupils, 216 (99.08%) answered the question as follows (table 31):

Table 31: Teachers’ fairness from the pupils’ perspective.

Teachers’ fairness	Yes (180)		No (36)	
	M (93)	F (87)	M (17)	F (19)
	51.66%	48.33%	47.22%	52.77%
Total	83.33%		16.66%	

The above results show that fairness is a feature of most of the teachers, whether male or female, as 83.33% of the pupils claimed to be treated equally by their teachers, while 16.66% reported their teachers to be unfair. In addition, there seems to be a small difference between male teachers who scored a slightly higher than their female counterparts with 51.66% and 48.33% respectively.

- **Analysis of pupils’ responses to question (11)**

Question 11: Does your teacher smile and tell you funny things like jokes?

Out of 218 (100%) of the pupils, 217 (99.54%) answered this question (see table 32)

Table 32: Teachers' social communication (smiles and jokes) with their pupils.

Teachers' social communication (smile and jokes)	Yes (184)		No (33)	
	M (102)	F (82)	M (07)	F (26)
	55.43%	44.56%	21.21%	78.78%
Total	84.79%		15.20%	

Table 32 above reveals that most of the teachers are communicative. A majority of pupils' responses (84.79%) indicate that teachers communicate socially with their learners through, for instance, smiles or jokes, while 15.20% find their teachers socially non-communicative. But it was somewhat unexpected to find here female teachers to be less communicative with their pupils than their male counterparts with 44.56% and 55.43% respectively.

5.3. Analysis of the Classroom Observation Checklist Responses

As indicated in chapter 4 of this study, this checklist was adapted from Allen (2014). We divided it into two sections A and B: A) Agreeability of Physical environment of the classroom; B) Gender-based emotional teachers' classroom practices. We used this list to observe the several teachers over several sessions.

5.3.1. Section A of the Checklist

This section was separated from the rest of the checklist in order to shed light on the teachers' working conditions and to see whether they are agreeable or not. We observed the physical environment of six classrooms, paying particular attention to heating, lighting and ventilation. Each time we observed a teaching session, we assessed those aspects of the classroom on a frequency scale that includes the values 'always', 'sometimes', 'occasionally' and 'never' (as shown in table 33 below).

Table33: Physical Environment of the Classroom according to the Researcher’s Observation.

Frequency Physical Environment of the Classroom	Always	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
Heating	66.66% (04)	33.33% (02)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)
Lighting	50.00% (03)	16.66% (01)	00.00% (00)	33.33% (02)
Ventilation	83.33% (05)	16.66% (01)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)
Mean	66.66%	22.21%	00.00%	11.11%

The results show that the mean of teachers’ working conditions that are always agreeable represents 66.66%; those that are sometimes agreeable represent 22.21%; and finally, teachers’ conditions that are never agreeable represent 11.11%. When we evaluated the teaching conditions, we found that ventilation accounted for 83.33%, indicating that most teachers consistently teach in well-ventilated classrooms. Also, adequate heating represents 66.66%, which implies that more than half of the teachers always teach in well-heated classrooms, but good lighting represents only 50.00%.

5.3.2. Section B of the Checklist

Section B is intended to explore the extent to which gender affects teachers’ emotional classroom practices. This section relates to the third questions that was formulated in general introduction:

RQ3: To what extent do their emotional practices differ relative to gender?

Table 34 below displays the results of the researcher who observed 15 features of the teachers teaching in their classrooms. The aim was to identify their emotional practices in terms of type and frequency.

- **Gender- based Teachers’ Emotional Classroom Practices**

Table 34: Gender- based Teachers’ emotional Classroom Practices according to the researcher’s observation of 15 features.

Frequency Teachers’ Emotional Classroom Practices	Always		Sometimes		Occasionally		Never	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
1.Welcome and introduction	66.66% (02)	66.66% (02)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	33.33% (01)	33.33% (01)
2.Layout-clean/ tidy/organised	100% (03)	100% (03)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)
3.Emotional atmosphere	100% (03)	100% (03)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)
4.Safety	33.33% (01)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	66.66% (02)	100% (03)
5.Care	33.33% (01)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	100% (03)	100% (03)

Chapter Five: Presentation and Analysis of the Results

6.Relevance	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	100% (03)	100% (03)
7.Encouragement/ Praise	100% (03)	100% (03)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)
8.Positivity	100% (03)	66.66% (02)	00.00% (00)	33.33% (01)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)
9.Emotional intelligence development	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	33.33% (01)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	66.66% (02)	100% (03)
10.Empathy	100% (03)	66.66% (02)	00.00% (00)	33.33% (01)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)
11.Tone	100% (03)	100% (03)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)
12.Body language	100% (03)	100% (03)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)
13.Conversation/ relationship building	100% (03)	66.66% (02)	00.00% (00)	33.33% (01)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)
14.Direction	100% (03)	100% (03)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)
15.Peripheral vision and hearing	100% (03)	100% (03)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)
Mean	75.55%	64.44%	02.22%	06.66%	00.00%	00.00%	24.44%	28.88%

The above table indicates that male teachers are generally more emotionally intelligent than female teachers. For instance, the items ‘Safety’, ‘Care’, ‘Empathy’, ‘Conversation/ relationship building’, ‘positivity’ and ‘Emotional intelligence development’ are found to be more frequently performed by male teachers in comparison with their female counterparts with 33.33% vs 00.00%, 33.33% vs 00.00%, 100% vs 66.66% , 100% vs 66.66%, 100% vs 66.66% and 33.33% vs 00.00% respectively. ‘Emotional atmosphere’ and ‘Tone’ seem to be successfully carried out by both male and female teachers. On the other hand, they are both found to be emotionally unskilful in terms of ‘Relevance’. Furthermore, some items like ‘Layout-clean /tidy /organised’, ‘Encouragement/ praise’, ‘Tone’, ‘Body language’, ‘Direction’ and ‘ peripheral vision and hearing’ are seemingly equally performed by both male and female teachers, with 100% vs 100%, and ‘Welcome and introduction’ with 66.66% vs 66.66%. Female teachers are not found to outperform their male counterparts on any of the 15 items observed.

5.4. Analysis of the Inspectors’ Questionnaire Responses

As stated in chapter four, a questionnaire was addressed to middle school inspectors of English. It is adapted from Allan’s (2014) emotional intelligence checklist. This questionnaire is a sequel to the classroom observation checklist on teachers’ emotional practices, and was designed to answer the third research question as follows:

RQ3: To what extent do their emotional practices differ relative to gender?

The questionnaire includes five items that the inspectors has to evaluate on a four-point scale (always, sometimes, occasionally and never). These are: 1- Classroom Routines; 2- Leadership; 3- Mentoring; 4- Coaching and 5- Vision- target.

- Gender- based Teachers’ Emotional Classroom Practices

Table 35: Gender- based teachers’ emotional classroom Practices from inspectors’ perspective.

Frequency	Always		Sometimes		Occasionally		Never	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Classroom Routines	25.00% (01)	50.00% (02)	50.00% (02)	50.00% (02)	25.00% (01)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)
Leadership	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	75.00% (03)	100% (04)	25.00% (01)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)
Mentoring	00.00% (00)	25.00% (01)	25.00% (01)	50.00% (02)	75.00% (03)	25.00% (01)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)
Coaching	25.00% (01)	25.00% (01)	50.00% (02)	50.00% (02)	25.00% (01)	25.00% (01)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)
Vision-target	25.00% (01)	50.00% (02)	50.00% (02)	50.00% (02)	25.00% (01)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)	00.00% (00)
Mean	15.00%	30.00%	50.00%	60.00%	35.00%	10.00%	00.00%	00.00%

As displayed in table 35, the calculated mean shows that female teachers outperform their male counterparts in almost all practices. 30% of female teachers always perform the five classroom practices, while only 15% of their male counterparts always execute them. Moreover, female teachers are found to score higher than male teachers in ‘classroom routines’, ‘monitoring’ and ‘vision- target’ with 50%, 25% and 50% respectively.

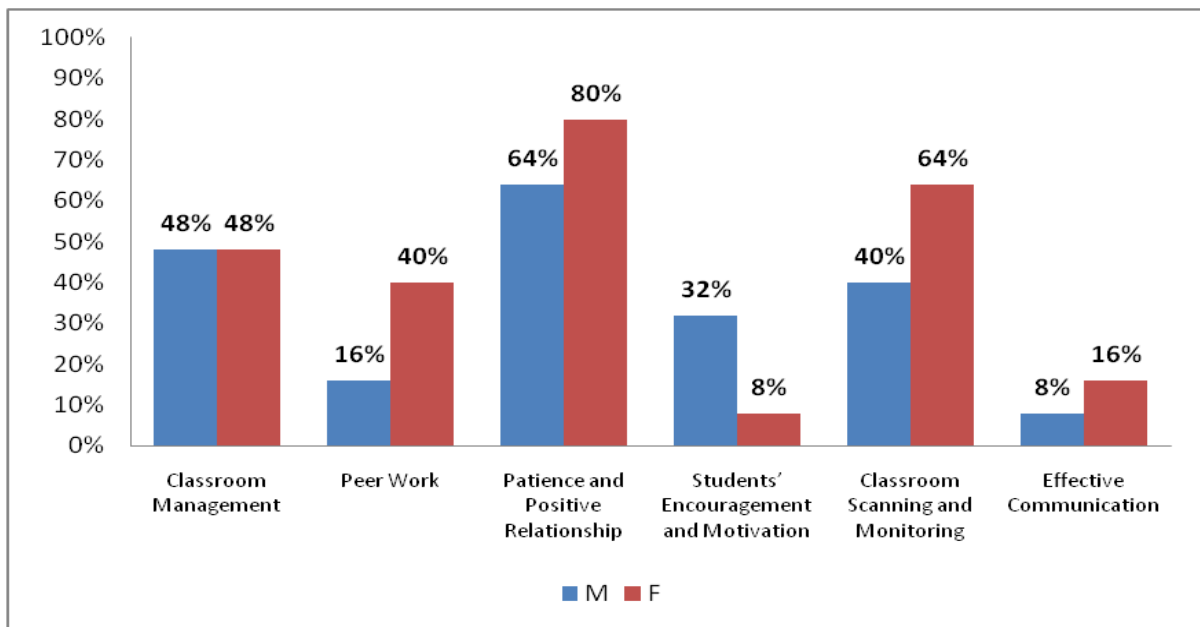
5.5. Analysis of Inspectors' Reports

In this study, inspectors' reports that are an adapted version of Marshall's (2009) teacher evaluation rubrics were used to investigate the discrepancies, if any, between male and female teachers in relation to their emotional classroom practices, and to answer the third research question: To what extent do their emotional practices differ relative to gender?

Each report contains 6 rubrics that the inspector had to complete when evaluating the teachers' emotional performances, including: 1) Classroom Management; 2) Peer Work; 3) Patience and Positive Relationship with Students; 4) Students' Encouragement and Motivation; 5) Classroom Scanning and Monitoring; and 6) Effective Communication.

- **Teachers' Emotional Classroom Practices**

Figure 2: Inspectors' reports evaluating six features of teachers' performance according to gender.



The findings indicate that female teachers score a little higher than their male counterparts in most emotional classroom practices namely 'Peer Work', 'Patience and Positive Relationship', 'Classroom Scanning and Monitoring' and 'Effective

Communication' with 40% ,80% ,64% and 16% , respectively. Male teachers seem to score high only in 'Students Encouragement and Motivation' with 32%, while both genders scored equally in 'Classroom Management' with 48%.

Conclusion

This chapter has given an account of the research findings resulting from the data analysis of the questionnaires- addressed to middle school teachers of English, inspectors and pupils, the observation checklist, and the inspectors' reports. The analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data has shed light on features that are judged to be important for the understanding of emotional intelligence of middle school teachers of English. The results indicate that the seminars and workshops that teachers attend seem to take into account the emotional side of the teaching/ learning process. It was also found that the teachers enjoy their job that they are doing by choice, and are rather good at a number of important emotional practices. Gender, on the other hand, is reported to have an impact on teachers' emotional classroom practices to a certain extent and male and female teachers do not have the same strategies for handling their classrooms. However, the study shows contradictory findings in relation to specific items such as 'relationship built with the pupils', 'classroom scanning', 'fairness' and 'student motivation'. The inspectors' reports show that female teachers do better in the 'relationship built with the pupils' item, while pupils' views indicate that both male and female teachers have good relationship with their pupils. On the other hand, the emotional intelligence classroom checklist suggests that male teachers outperform their female counterparts in building good relationship with their pupils. As for classroom scanning, the results obtained from the analysis of teachers' questionnaire discloses the outperformance of male teachers, though in the inspectors' reports, the score was in favour of female teachers. Pupils' responses, too, reveal a slight contradiction in relation to fairness. Finally, 'student motivation' is found in inspectors' reports to be a practice that is well performed by male teachers, whereas pupils' responses show that female teachers motivate them slightly better than male teachers. These contradictory results may imply that these items may require further examination in the future. The following chapter is a

discussion and interpretation of the research findings; it aims to triangulate the results in order to answer the three research questions on teachers' emotional intelligence, taking into account teachers' gender. It also attempts to interpret the findings in the light of the literature reviewed in Part one of this thesis.

Chapter Six

Chapter Six

Discussion and Interpretation of Research Findings

Introduction

This final chapter aims to discuss and interpret the findings of the study. It will weave together previous literature on the topic, the theoretical underpinnings and the study findings. To recall, this investigation attempts to answer the three research questions set up in the Introduction to this study, that are:

RQ1: To what extent are middle school teachers of English aware of emotional intelligence as a way to improve their teaching?

RQ2: To what extent are middle school teachers of English emotionally intelligent in their classroom practices?

RQ3: To what extent do their emotional practices differ relative to gender?

The chapter includes three main sections: section 6.1 seeks to answer the first research question on teachers' awareness of emotional intelligence as reflected by the study results. Section 6.2. examines the use of emotional practices in the classroom based on the findings of the study. Section 6.3. discusses the issue of gender-related emotional practices in the classroom in the light of the results obtained.

The analysis of the participants' data has revealed three important aspects that are worth examining closer. Firstly, teachers' motivation to teach and their high degree of job satisfaction. Secondly, the type of emotional practices that teachers use in their classrooms. Thirdly, the issue of gender that seems to differentiate between male and female teachers with regard to some emotionally intelligent practices.

The next section 6.1. discusses the findings in relation to teachers' awareness of emotional intelligence as a way to improve teaching, and thus seeks to answer the first research question of this study.

a. Awareness of Emotional Intelligence as a Way to improve Teaching

• Motivation and Job Satisfaction

In the present study, all teachers, whether male or female, reported that they are highly motivated, and all expressed favourable and appreciative attitudes towards teaching. They are all doing their job by choice. Job satisfaction can indeed be an important source of motivation. Focusing on the significance of teachers' job satisfaction, Pazim et al. (2021) corroborated:

This job satisfaction if achieved will increase the commitment of teachers in performing their duties. However, if job satisfaction is not achieved, then avoidance and neglect of responsibilities will occur. This job satisfaction is important in producing the work productivity of special education teachers at the best level (p. 5329).

Job satisfaction may be the outcome of the attitudes that workers have towards their job. In this respect, and Robbins, Judge & Campbell (2013) pointed: "If workers believe...that supervisors, auditors and bosses are all in conspiracy to make employees work harder for the same or less money, it makes sense to try to understand how these attitudes formed, their relationship to actual job behaviour and how they might be changed" (p. 71). A massive body of literature suggests that these attitudes are not constant nor are they permanent; they may waver depending on an amalgam of factors, such as: 1) The subject subculture; 2) The bureaucratic norms of the schools; 3) The characteristics of schools and the teacher's work, including shortage of materials and supplies, the absence of explicitly stated educational objectives, and the multiplicity of tasks that a teacher must fulfil or sometimes teach subjects in which they are not trained; 4) Classroom environment; 5) The reference group of colleagues, pupils and their parents; 6) Inappropriate professional training (cited in Veenman, 1984, pp. 146-147).

The irrelevance of job satisfaction to gender reported in our work supports the results of other studies, such as Skaalvik & Skaalvik's (2015) that the source of job satisfaction is the same for all Norwegian teachers; Similarly, Klecker (1997) who carried out a study on teachers in Ohio elementary public schools found that both male

and female elementary school teachers are pleased and comfortable with their carrier as teachers. In line with these assumptions, Mabekoje (2009), and Menon & Athanasoula-Reppa (2011) reported insignificant correlation between gender and job satisfaction. Throughout the history of research, literature showed contradictory conclusions. Batool et al. (2018), reported male teachers to be satisfied with their supervisors and working conditions compared to their female counterparts. On the other hand, in experiments undertaken by Watson et al. (1991, cited in Iqbal & Akhtar, 2012), and Mahmood et al. (2011) female teachers were found to exhibit a greater degree of job satisfaction than male teachers.

With respect to carrier choice, conversely to our findings, Ramachandran and colleagues (2005), who undertook an investigation on elementary school teachers in India, reported that “...some teachers chose the career on the rebound when they could not pursue their preferred career choice” (p. 24). They also found in their study that teachers’ career choice is gender-based. Females chose teaching under the influence of their husbands and parents who considered teaching as a profession of respectability, security and less work, while males chose teaching as a temporary profession that helps them to prepare for civil service examinations, including entry into the police force, secretarial services, revenue services, etc.

According to the participants’ responses, the source of their satisfaction is working with their pupils. They feel that their classroom is like their second home and their own world where they learn and share knowledge. This finding is also consistent with that of Ramachandran et al. (2005) who claimed that teachers’ satisfaction at work is due to their ability to help their pupils to learn the lessons, master the skills and get good results. In this regard, Iqbal & Akhtar (2012) also pointed out: “Satisfied teachers (are) always ready to extend extra effort in working with students and parents to provide positive results” (p. 51). Therefore middle school teachers’ motivation seems to be an emotional fuel that guarantees individuals’ optimal productivity. It is a driving force which leads employees to act and do something (Carvalho et al. 2020). Teachers’ motivation can promote and even guarantee the implementation of educational reforms

(Neves de Jesus and Lens 2005). Although this issue of educational reforms will not be discussed in this study, it is worth bearing it in mind for further examination.

Finally, with regard to the emotional development of the middle school teachers under study and the role of the weekly seminars and workshops they attend under the supervision of their school inspectors of English, they report to be satisfied with these meetings which train them to deal with the learners, and specially with the emotional facet of the teaching/learning process, besides the technical side of teaching. Previous research findings suggest that the emotional dimension of teaching/learning is gaining more importance day after day and that it is the most substantial feature that decides learners' success by virtue of "putting a great deal of energy into creating a positive emotional climate; recognizing and working with the feelings of yourself and of your learners; using listening skills with groups as well as with individuals; dealing with learners' expectations; and having a developed self-awareness" (Mortiboys, 2005, p. 8). Goleman (2001) also asserted that emotional intelligence cannot reach the optimum unless its development stands on two pillars: the designed techniques and their implementation. In this regard, Tannenbaum and Yukl (1992, p. 401) suggested that workers who are exposed only to training "have tended to consider all training the same, without regard to the purpose of the training or the type of learning involved" (quoted in Goleman, 2001, p. 218). It has been noted that most of the predicaments that teachers daily face in schools are emotional-related. On this basis, Veenman (1984) who addressed problems faced by beginning teachers found that out of eight issues, five are emotional-based. They are: classroom discipline, motivating students, dealing with individual differences, relationships with parents, and dealing with problems of individual students. Conversely, lack of emotional intelligence has been suggested to be conducive to undesirable consequences. In this vein Maslach (1976) highlighted:

Ideally, the helpers retain objectivity and distance from the situation without losing their concern for the person they are working with. Instead, our research indicates they are often unable to cope with the continual emotional stress and burnout occurs. They lose all concern,

all emotional feeling for the persons they work with and come to treat them in detached or even dehumanized way (p. 16).

However, the pupils reported in their questionnaires that some teachers fail to promote enthusiasm and reflection, and to motivate learners, and do not express their attitudes towards the teaching profession. This attitude may result from their unfavourable working conditions that tend to lower their motivation and reflection. According to motivation theories, teachers' salary and the number of learners in class are among the factors that motivate the teachers (Börü, 2018). It frequently occurs that a high salary and fewer students in the classroom increases teachers' motivation. Research suggests that teachers' beliefs about their social status shape their attitudes towards their profession. In this regard, Kinyota and Kavenuke (2019) contended that secondary school teacher trainees and experienced teachers in Tanzania revealed negative attitudes towards their profession because of the low rank granted to the teaching profession. Some teachers express a sense of ambivalence about their career choices. Moses et al. (2017) reported that these teachers, classified as 'undecided', despite viewing teaching as a noble profession, revealed their negative attitudes towards the profession due to its poor image and perceived inability to lead a fulfilling life compared to other professions.

Contrary to the above findings, the pupils we questioned stated that the teachers do not express any attitudes about their profession, either positively or negatively. Teachers seem to consider their profession as a personal issue that they believe cannot be pupils' subject of interest, or that it is unlikely to affect their learners. Mitchell (1998) and Stronge (2007) found that teachers often ignore or are unaware that expressing their love for work and displaying positive attitudes towards teaching has a considerably positive impact on the learners. Additionally, emotionally intelligent teachers do not complain about their conditions to students. To put it in a nutshell, positive attitudes towards the teaching profession are judged imperative that experts in the field consider them as intrinsic to successful teaching and learning processes. Advocating this belief, Kinyota and Kavenuke (2019) put out "...having quality teaching goes hand in hand with teachers' positive attitude towards teaching

profession and the teaching subjects (p. 49). On the same wavelength, Masharah Husain et al. (2017) stated that teachers' attitudes and beliefs contribute to producing competent teachers in any field.

- **Professional Training**

Although the seminars and workshops organised by middle school inspectors deal, to some degree, with the emotional aspect of the teaching/learning process, most of teachers' responses emphasize the professional side such as reviewing the syllabus, reducing the number of students in the classroom and giving freedom to the teachers to be eclectic, when asked about the changes they would bring to their profession. These findings may suggest that there is still more to be done in matters of teacher education and the acquisition of emotionally intelligence practices.

The idea of teachers' education and training being defective or unsatisfying has been explained by the fact that they are not "...designed to get to the root of the matter and develop the core issue" (Lynn, 2000, p. 1). The main reason for this incompatibility is that teachers do not have the opportunity to decide about their own development, nor do they have a voice to express their needs and those of their students. In the developed countries, newly implemented teacher education and training plans of action embrace competence-based curriculum and assessment, encapsulating a good combination of theory and practice (Presadă & Badea, 2017). According to Durlak (2015, cited in Cefai et al., 2018), teacher the education and training programs judged to be of high quality and greatly beneficial to schools are those that include a personal-relational approach in parallel with informational sessions or manuals. Advocating this kind of program, Cefai et al. (2018) claimed: "Teacher education and mentoring not only help to ensure teacher commitment and quality implementation but also contribute to teachers' own social and emotional competence" (p. 63).

In spite of the extended areas that teacher education and training programs may entail, scholars believe that they still remain insufficient as long as they lack a momentous element based on values. Value-based teacher education is deadly advocated; it is found beneficial to the whole community as it helps to develop and

reinforce values and morals. It helps teacher educators and student teachers reflect on their performances, communicate with each other and develop values in their students and pupils (Lunenberg et al., 2007). In this regard, these authors, among many others, asserted:

...reflection on the moral aspects of teaching should be incorporated into the training given to all teacher educators, as well as teachers. In our view, a practical and shared moral language is needed to help both teacher educators and teachers reflect on their work...Such a language would offer them the opportunity to better communicate with each other, and to charge their teaching with greater meaning. Moreover, a language of this kind could help them to differentiate between different values, which would make their reflections and discussion on the role of values in (teacher) education more specific (Lunenberg et al., 2007, p. 178).

The next section 6.2. discusses the findings in relation to teachers' emotional practices in the language classroom and thus seeks to answer the second research question of this study.

6. 2. Emotional Practices in the Language Classroom

- **Physical and Emotional Environment of the Classroom**

The physical environment of the classroom was found to be generally beneficial to the teachers. A large number of teachers described their teaching conditions as good or agreeable, despite many difficulties they face at work, and they pointed to in their responses. This is probably because they use emotionally intelligent practices in the classroom like care, humour, fairness, nice and motivating words, (as described in Tables 8,9,14,16,20,28,29,31 and 32). Besides, they are ready to listen to their pupils' problems inside the classroom (see table 36). Thus, the emotional practices used by these teachers were found to be positive. Our findings corroborate Wood's (2009); he argued in his study that all elementary teachers, be they males or females, have a strong desire to work with children. Indeed, a positive learning environment empowers students to "...engage in learning and prosocial behaviours" (New South Wales Centre for Education Statistics and Evaluation 2020, p. 5).

Likewise, when we observed the English classes over a number of weeks, paying attention to the physical environment of the classroom, we found that two-thirds of the teachers observed work in agreeable conditions, and the rest work in uncomfortable physical environment. Though ventilation was adequate as compared to other facilities like lighting and heating, one could consider it as rather defective since it is natural-based, knowing that natural-based ventilation inefficaciously controls pollutant concentrations (Uotila et al., 2022). Some teachers and learners seemed to be in a sort of discomfort because of inadequate conditions (tables, chairs, heating, lighting, etc). It is undeniable that the classroom physical environment has a momentous and powerful impact on the quality of teaching and learning. Literature (reviewed in Chapter two of this work), points out that classroom physical environment, including lighting, ventilation and heating have a direct impact on teachers' and learners' behaviours; scholars stated that the more satisfied the teachers and the learners in the physical environment of the classroom (good ventilation, good lighting, etc), the better their performance (Davies et. al., 2013; Granito & Santana, 2016; Cheryan et al. 2014; Stewart et al. 1997; Eitland & Allen, 2019; Schneider, 2002; Uotila et al.2022; Bakó-Biró, et al., 2011; Sutherland et al. 2022).

Emotional Classroom environment, on the other hand, is the atmosphere that is meant to "...best facilitate pupil learning, is one that is described as being purposeful, task-oriented, relaxed, warm, supportive and has a sense of order" (Kyriacou, 2007, p. 68). It is the setting that is intended to "...make a difference, to change lives, to provide the tools, supports, and inspiration that would lead young people to achieve full and productive lives" (Merrell & Gueldner, 2010, p. 2), and where the learners "are educated and prepared for success, not only in school but at home, in the community, in the workforce, and in life" (Lord Black, 2022, p. 3) in order for them to get in a fit state to face "...life's opportunities, responsibilities, and challenges" (Lord Black, 2022, p. 3). In line with these assumptions, Ben-Avie and his colleagues (2003) who focused on mathematics and science education maintained:

If we are to help students move from a state of unreadiness to a state of readiness to conjecture, reason, and defend mathematical ideas, we must have in-depth knowledge of who the students are and what their experiences are in other classrooms and settings. In helping to promote the students' transition, math and science teachers cannot rely only on knowledge of their own academic disciplines. They also need knowledge of youth development (p. 1).

Social and emotional teaching/learning has been claimed to have a set of benefits; it "...typically improves the classroom and school climate, reduces student disruptive behaviours and internalizing problems, increases students' learning-to-learn and group relationship skills, and, in general, returns a great deal of instructional time to teachers" (Elias et al., 2021, pp. 96- 97). Teaching/learning that is based on social and emotional competence (SEC) has also been reported to give the teachers the power to handle more effectively and successfully the classrooms even during quarrel inciting circumstances (Jennings & Greenber, 2009). Social and emotional teaching/learning is thought of as a key factor of students' academic success even in subject matters that are based on pure reason. Zeuli and Ben-Avie (2003) who dealt with how teachers of mathematics communicate socially and emotionally with their learners contended: "Every time a teacher helps a student truly learn a concept in this multifaceted way, the learning not only enhances the student's appreciation of the subject matter but also strengthens the student's ability to function successfully as a creative, thoughtful, and communicative member of society" (p. 37). On the same wavelength, Ensign (2003) affirmed: "In order to teach mathematics and science well, teachers need to focus on high-quality content while also tending to students' social and emotional development" (p. 104).

The classroom climate, suffering from a lack of teachers' emotions, results in disruptive students' behaviour. Classroom behavioural environment is the key factor that determines the success or the failure of the learners. In accordance with this perspective, Haydn (2014) affirmed: "...the working atmosphere in the classroom, and standards of pupil behaviour are major influences on how well pupils are likely to achieve" (p. 32). Classroom behavioural climate is deemed stressful, particularly when

the relationship between the teacher and the learners, and between the learners and their friends becomes disruptive, therefore a potential obstacle to the teaching/learning process that certainly leaves “...permanent traces” (Güzeldere Aydin & Ocak Karabay, 2020, p. 10). Behaviour-related challenges encompass an array of naughtiness, identified by Sørli & Ogden (2015, p. 202) as serious conduct problems, norm- and rule-breaking behaviour, and less serious indicators of disruptive behaviour. Lamentable behavioural atmosphere is moulded by disruptive behaviours that “...hamper the students’ possibilities to concentrate on learning, disrupt teaching and learning situations, threaten the psychological or physical safety of the students or disrupt the physical environment of the classroom” (Levin & Nolan, 2010, cited in Hoffmann et al., 2021).

As for the emotional environment of the classroom created by middle school teachers of English, our observations of the classes have enabled us to note that teachers succeeded in some emotional practices and failed in others.

As far as item 1 is concerned, ‘welcome and introduction’, we observed that this was averagely performed by the teachers. This item focuses on whether the teachers are welcoming and positive; whether they greet their students by name; whether they smile to their students; and whether the introduction is set at a level that will interest the students (see Appendix H, Section B). What we observed is that greeting students by name was the practice that none of the teachers performed. This may be explained by the fact that these teachers are working under great time pressure which prevents them from devoting much time calling each individual pupil by his/her name, thereby not expressing much emotional intelligence when starting their classes. When teachers are under fewer time constraints, these emotional practices can be easier to use, as underscored by Pelletier et al., (2002, cited in Neig et al. (2019) who reported that teachers under fewer time constraints are more self-determined and able to administer instructions that offer students a greater freedom to learn.

We also observed item 6 of the checklist (see Appendix H, section B). This item is about ‘Relevance’. It deals with whether the lesson is relevant to the situations that the pupils are facing or will face in later parts of their lives, and whether the lesson is

linked to emotional development as well as academic and practical aspects of learning. What teachers were doing in their lessons seemed irrelevant to what situations the pupils would face in class, or in the future.

Concerning item 3 on the ‘Emotional Atmosphere’ of the classroom, this item focused on the atmosphere created by the teacher, if friendly, work-like or professional; on the atmosphere in which the learning can take place; on how pupils’ wrong responses are dealt with in a constructive or non-constructive way; and finally on whether conversations and comments that are encouraging are recognized and commented. We noticed that the atmosphere in the class we observed was rather friendly, and teachers seemed to encourage learning. Besides, the teachers were not using any belittling or sarcastic language when addressing the learners. Also, for item 11, ‘Tone’, which focuses on whether tone of voice is used to control the mood, learning and atmosphere within the class to maintain a positive outcome; whether the teacher changes the tone in an effective way for the message being delivered; and whether the tone is used to affect speed, we noticed that the tone of the teachers’ voice was well-controlled, not too high, not too low, and rather positive and empathetic.

Item 9 is about ‘Emotional intelligence development’ that asks whether an emotional as well as social (E/S) development target is set for the lesson along with an academic one; whether the students are aware of the E/S targets that have been set for them through the lesson or term; whether the E/S aspects are referred to through the lesson; and whether situations that arise during the lesson are dealt with using E/S learning objectives (see Appendix H, Section B). Here, we observed that the teachers set no emotional or social development target through the lesson. The reason may be due to the fact that these targets are not clearly defined in the syllabus or in the teacher’s guidelines. As expressed earlier, the Algerian curriculum of English implemented in the classrooms does not explicitly aim to target the learners’ emotional intelligence development, although this may be done implicitly or unconsciously by the teachers.

However, some teachers’ negative comments on their unfavourable working conditions are worth mentioning here. The physical environment appears to make

some of them feel bored and tired and sometimes take their anger out on their pupils. As an adequate physical classroom is a sine qua non condition for teachers' emotionality, our teachers' failure to be as emotionally intelligent as expected can be justified by the inappropriate physical environment they are working in.

In terms of lighting quality, which is a crucial element in teaching and learning, Heschong Mahone Group Inc (2003, cited in Lin et al., 2020) reported that teachers' inability to control glare or visual distraction by means of curtains and blinds has a negative effect on the learners' performance. In the same vein, Veitch & McColl, (2001, cited in Lin et al., 2020) suggested that low lighting makes the brain wave patterns show fewer delta waves, which triggers sleepiness. Heschong (1999), who carried out a comprehensive study on elementary school students, found that learners in classrooms with the least daylight performed ineffectively compared to the learners in classrooms with the most daylight (cited in Konstantzos et al., 2020). Moreover, it is believed that teaching and learning in poorly ventilated classrooms are ineffective. Poor indoor air quality (IAQ) is said to cause a number of health issues namely irritated eyes, nose and throat, upper respiratory infections, nausea, dizziness, headaches and fatigue or sleepiness. These issues are classified as 'sick building syndrome' (EPA, 2000, cited in Schneider, 2002). Poor ventilation is typically the cause of humid classrooms, according to suggestions. As a matter of fact, Halstead (1974, cited in Souleman et al., 2014) assumed that humidity is one of the factors that engender physiological and psychological problems that require much efforts, and stimulate fatigue, slow performance and mistakes and errors. A growing body of literature demonstrates a correlation between humidity and respiratory issues among the teachers, and suggests that the higher the exposure to relative humidity (RH), the higher the risk of respiratory disorders. Poor ventilation owing to human respiration is also reported to cause carbon dioxide (Schneider, 2002) that adversely affects students' performance on concentration tests, and multiplies students' health problems (Myhrvold, 1996, cited in Schneider, 2002). Excessive heating reduces the quality of the pedagogical tasks of the teachers and their learners. In this regard, Wargocki et al., (2019) contended: "...pupils cannot concentrate or are distracted when temperatures in classrooms are too high and that this has negative consequences for an effective

learning process. Raised classroom temperatures may also have negative consequences for the work of teachers...” (p. 2). In the same line with this view, Barrett et al. (2015, cited in Wall, 2016) reported that among the analysed environmental factors that enhance students’ academic fulfilment, is temperature. Experiments revealed that students placed at a high temperature performed poorly (see chapter two). In addition to the poor performances, Holmberg and Wyon noticed change in the learners’ behaviour, where girls felt restless, though they carried on with their work, while boys became undisciplined and concentrated much less. Keeping temperature in view, Hänninen et al. (2017), who studied Albanian schools during the cold season, assumed that lack of heating systems and low outdoor temperature result in an uncomfortable indoor temperature which urges teachers to close the windows in attempts to preserve an adequate thermal environment. However, the high number of the occupants that usually elevates CO₂ concentration level gives rise to health issues. Consistent with this assumption, Ma et al. (2020) pointed out: “In primary school classrooms that still use natural ventilation in winter, a poor indoor thermal environment is usually accompanied by poor indoor air quality due to closed classroom doors and windows and thermal insulation” (p. 2). They also suggested that CO₂ concentration is riskier in naturally ventilated classrooms, where the occupants cannot gauge the indoor air quality. Comparative studies that have been conducted on age-related sensitivity to indoor temperature demonstrated that children prefer a few degree cooler classes because of their higher metabolic rate and activity levels all school day long (Sutherland, 2022).

Along with the mismatch between the physical environment the teachers under study work in and the teaching standards, the feeling of burden appears to be the aftermath of diverse issues, such as teachers’ dissatisfaction and discontent with the coursebook content, the syllabus that does not meet the learners’ needs, and the teaching methods imposed on them. It is often the case that some textbooks and syllabuses are unsuitable for constructing autonomous learners. This sometimes makes “some teachers have a relatively free hand in designing the syllabuses” (Nunan, 1988, p. 7) and teach following what is judged to go in accordance with their learners’ requisites. The issue of the curriculum and syllabus design is not new and it is one of

the concerns of the educational community all over the world. The suggested curricula and syllabuses often do not work in conformity with the requirements of this new world that is witnessing a multidimensional change, including social, economical, cultural, and, more importantly, the technological digital world. The centralised educational system is thought of being the origin of this deficiency. This system tends to marginalise the teachers, and to think that they cannot have an effective voice in curriculum and syllabus design. It seems possible that in such situations, teachers have no other way than to implement some emotional classroom practices that they feel are relevant to, and useful for their learners.

A body of literature shows that the curricula and syllabi, whose main objective is ‘information processing’, are based on the ‘technical rationality’ approach that overlooks the emotional side of the teachers (Presadă & Badea, 2017). Curricula and syllabi purely based on cognitive and academic success are found to fail mainly in building community members good at self-management, and effective communicators, decision makers and stress managers. In this respect, Merrell & Gueldner (2010) argued: “ Children...in our current society face unprecedented challenges and are in great need of learning social, emotional, cognitive, and behavioural skills that can help buffer and insulate them from the difficulties that are so prevalent and can lead to terribly negative outcomes if left unchecked” (p. 2). Frey and colleagues (2019) made it necessary to implement social and emotional learning in schools so as to lower the rate of learners’ unlawful acts, and make the chances of success larger. They stated:

Advocates counter that the ability to keep students in school is not just a valid measure of school success- it's an effective means of increasing it. In order to reduce suspensions and expulsions, schools must help students develop the social and emotional skills that will allow them to engage positively with one another, with their teachers, and with their learning. (pp. 2-3)

Ahmed et al. (2020, p. 664) state that enhancing students' socio-emotional aptitude requires: 1) self-awareness (identifying and recognizing emotions, self-efficacy); 2) self-management (impulse control and stress management, help seeking); 3) social awareness (empathy, respect for others); 4) relationship management (communication,

relationship building); 5) responsible decision making (problem solving, personal, social, and ethical responsibility). The implementation of socio- emotional curricular are claimed to up lift the students' skills not only at the socio- emotional level but also at the academic level. In line with this assumption, Elias and his colleagues (1997) contended: "when schools attend systematically to students' social and emotional skills, the academic achievement of children increases, the incidence of problem behaviours decreases, and the quality of the relationships surrounding each child improves" (p. 1). According to Merrell and Gueldner (2010, p. 25), in order for implementation of socio- emotional learning (SEL) curriculum not to be disorderly or chaotic there must be three elements: 1) Readiness (School principal commits to SEL, Steering committee is formed with school and community stakeholders); 2) Planning (Steering committee outlines vision for SEL, Needs assessment conducted Data are used to create an action plan, Review and select programs/strategies); 3) Implementation (Train school personnel to implement SEL, Implement SEL, School personnel adapt and make adjustments, Evaluate to determine changes that must be made to accommodate student needs). Findings showed that socio- emotional education should start at primary school, as individual's character and identity at this age are easy to mould (Cefai et al., 2018). The literature also shows that a syllabus that boosts learners' autonomy, not only does it make the learners more motivated and enthusiastic about learning, but it also makes them operate and perform properly and productively in their society (Ramírez Espinosa, 2016). Curriculum/ syllabus that is found to fit socio- emotional learning is the one that takes into account and entails both learner's needs and their aims "as social being and as individual" (Brumfit, 1984, p. 14), and that "communicates that the instructor cares about students and believes each student can succeed" (Palmer et al., 2014, p. 6). In a similar vein, Fink (2003) classified significant learning into six dimensions, two of which are Human Dimension and Caring (Palmer, et al., 2014; Hattingh et al., 2018) that unquestionably require emotional- based curriculum/ syllabus. An emotional- based curriculum/ syllabus should be free of teacher centeredness and of what is considered by Dewey (1933) as a "tyranny of technique" (Cited in Rosemary et al, 2007, p. 11); it should rather be based

on the reality that teaching is made of “conversational interaction between teacher and students and among students themselves” (Richards, 2013, p. 18).

- **Humour and Classroom Scanning**

This research also reveals that teachers’ practice humour at a higher rate. Our respondents seem to be aware of the cruciality of this element that has countless assets. Humour in the language classroom is beneficial in many ways: it brings the teacher and students closer together; improves the class atmosphere; increases student participation, makes learning more fun and memorable; improves learners’ cross-cultural communicative competence; provides insights into the target culture(s), and raises awareness about social issues in the target culture(s). Scholars report that this classroom practice can also help learners to bond with target language speakers; improve their cross-cultural communicative competence, and avoid misunderstandings (Rusynski, 2022). However, Tamblyn (2003) warns that teachers should use humour creatively, playing with ideas as if they were toys and beware of its adverse effect on the learning process, mainly if it is exaggeratedly used. In this regard, he contended: “You will not go for “a laugh a minute,” since as you might well imagine, constant, uproarious laughter is not good for learning” (p. 11). Rusynski (2022) also emphasized that humour may turn into an unsafe and treacherous practice when it is overused and baffling; and it may be conducive to misunderstanding if it mismatches with or considered as a taboo in the natives’ culture. In line with this assumption, Chabeli (2008, cited in Abu Bakar, 2018) argued that ill-suited or improper use of humour may have a negative effect on students’ self- esteem and feelings, and it may make teachers lose their credibility. A similar conclusion was drawn by Perret & Trott (2016) that “The type of humour must be watched. Too deadpan, sarcastic, or topically inappropriate can be hurtful” (p. 263).

Another classroom practice which characterizes the emotionally intelligent teacher is classroom scanning. This refers to checking continually to keep order in the classroom and interfere as soon as any disruptive behaviour takes place. Classroom scanning was found in this research to be averagely practised by teachers, which implies that teachers need improvement in this area of teaching. Grounded on these

findings, one can make at least three readings: 1) either teachers do not have enough time to scan the classroom, knowing that this practice may be the only practice that embraces an array of tasks such as moving around the classroom, standing in a way to see and deal with as many pupils as possible, giving praise, anticipating the problems and making sure that all the students are on task (Gill, 2000); 2) pre-service/in-service training and professional development provided to the teachers is not effective enough with respect to scanning the classroom; 3) large size classes that tend to deter teachers from dealing with all students and getting them involved in all activities. Scanning seems therefore a necessary tool for classroom management since “This visual scanning allows you to watch for instances of appropriate or inappropriate behaviour that you will want to respond to immediately or as soon as possible. It will also help you to identify students who may need your assistance” (MO SW-PBS 2017 p.33).

- **Extrinsic Motivation: Praise, Reward and Punishment**

All the comments made by the teachers about the students’ work were also found to be positive. Teachers use them for the sake of motivating and elevating their students to the required standards. They reported to use two types of praising for the good work that their students do. More than half of the respondents said they praise the person rather than the work, which may be a sign of emotionally intelligent behaviour as these teachers are more interested in the person herself than in their work. As for the method of reward, teachers were found to use two types of reward: informational ‘verbal’ rewards and controlling ‘material’ rewards (Deci et al., 2001). More than half of teachers said they use motivating words like excellent, very good, well done and thank you, while the rest are reported to use material rewards including books, sweets, stickers and extra points. Informational verbal rewards may be a double-edged sword; if they are rationally used, students’ intrinsic motivation increases; but if they are exaggeratedly used in a way that makes them sound like controlling rewards, intrinsic motivation decreases or gets undermined (Deci, 1971, 1972, cited in Pittman et al., 1980).

Most of the teachers' methods, such as pieces of advice and nice words, when addressing behavioural issues may be evidence that they are emotionally intelligent and reflective. The large number of learners who claimed their teachers to use praise and motivating words such as 'excellent', 'very good' and 'great' confirms the importance of positive response to learners' performance. Teachers' use of these devices makes learners extrinsically motivated as they seem to naturally look for external boosting power from their teachers. Extrinsic motivation may be regarded as a crucial emotional practice that enhances learning. This finding confirms the momentousness of extrinsic motivation and ties with Coetzee (2011, cited in Buzdar, 2017)'s contention that teachers opt for extrinsic motivation to reach a better and more effective students' academic performance. Besides, and according to Buzdar et al. (2017, p. 75), "The students who are extrinsically motivated determine the standards of their performance according to social norms and customs and hence they are normally more social and friendly". In line with this view, Kong (2009) argues: "Extrinsic-motivated students need to be refuelled by outward energy such as teachers' high expectations, praise and some rewards" (p. 148). Effective teachers, seen as motivational leaders, motivate their learners by encouraging them to be responsible for their own learning, and cause to develop positive attitudes towards subjects and activities. Furthermore, they support intrinsically motivated students, and constantly seek strategies that motivate extrinsically motivated ones.

As for punishment, traditional forms of discipline advocate several actions based on teachers' authority that includes loud voice, bossy manner, use of threats (Rogers, 2003), and aggressiveness, control and punishment (Ridley & Walther, 1995). But, it has been argued that there is no clear-cut or well defined strategy to correct students' disruptive behaviours (Minott, 2015). However, it is worth stressing that the teachers under study use emotional practices rather than authority, and appear to be able to turn a harmful and unpleasant environment into a safe and peaceful one, in order to handle classroom problems.

The findings of the study also show that all the teachers take pupils' detention for a time for reflection and rebuilding. These teachers seem to advocate an innovative approach to disciplinary procedures. Traditionally, detention was regarded as one of

the punitive practices that “...do not take into account any individual personal, educational, developmental, social or other circumstances of the child” and “...do not maintain a pleasant, safe or engaged school community as exemplified by the failure of zero-tolerance policies in the United States.” (Michail, 2011, p. 161). Today, detention, as a contemporary plan of a disciplinary action, is designed in a way that satisfyingly modifies learners’ disruptive behaviours. It is based on a programme put forward in the United States by Morris and Howard (2003), and intended to provide additional educational structure and respond to learners’ misbehaviour (Michail, 2011). However, in spite of the virtues that detention has, such as time in which students can complete their work, it should be practiced properly in terms of time, place and the people who supervise the students (Fluke et al., 2014). But Wlodkowski, (1991) takes an opposite position and argues that detention is not as effective as it was in the past, for students become resistant to it, and their parents who have already experienced it do not appreciate it (Ridley & Walther, 1995).

A significant percentage of students who feel threatened describe their teachers as a source of frustration, lack of motivation and enthusiasm, and therefore reluctance to study. The permanent and insistent teachers’ bad behaviours inculcate fear in the learners, which automatically makes them constantly insecure and the teachers the source of the threat and danger. Pavlov and Watson have provided evidence for this behaviourist stimulus and response approach (see chapter one). In our case, it’s possible that the pupils not only develop fear towards the specific teachers, but they also extend their anxiety and panic (response) to all teachers (stimuli).

Literature suggests that frustration evolves from teachers’ ineptitude to manage learners’ disruptive behaviour. According to Reid & Morgan (2012), this ineptitude is indisputably conducive to stress among teachers. In order to prevent this negative trait from happening, a set of proactive strategies were put forward to avoid disruptive behaviours in the classroom. For example, in the U.K., the Welsh Department for Education and Skills (2012), with regard to ‘strategic planning’ and ‘proactive behaviour management’, suggested: “The secret to successful proactive interventions is strategic planning...It is always best to focus on increasing positive behaviours

through praise and reinforcement instead of trying to reduce unwanted behaviours. Proactive behaviour management is the bedrock of good behaviour” (p. 34).

The results also demonstrate that in spite of the ‘fight or flight’ (Allen, 2014) situation engendered by the demanding and tiring work conditions, and the pressure exerted by the administration on teachers, in addition to the scarce and inefficient emotional development and emotional training they receive, the teachers are viewed as ‘emotionally intelligent’ by a larger number of pupils. Almost all of them reported their teachers to use appropriate language, and most of them claimed to feel safe when they get in the classroom with their teachers.

- **Fairness and Equity**

A majority of pupils reported their teachers to be fair and respectful. It appears that being a fair or just teacher does not refer only to treating learners equally. The literature (Stronge, 2007; Chory, 2007) reports that a fair teacher behaves appropriately in the classroom; she holds responsible the pupil concerned rather than blaming the whole class; before punishing learners for a bad behaviour, she first locates and understands the problem, and tells the learners the right thing to do to avoid such behaviours; she is impartial and non-discriminatory in relation to ethnicity, cultural background and gender; she treats learners as people; she avoids circumstances that make learners feel humiliated and ridiculised; she makes them “..feel good about themselves”. Respect, on the other hand, including self-respect and respect for others, is a value that enhances already built social relationships, and encourages to tie new ones (OECD, 2019). Rasooli et al. (2018) stated that a significant body of literature revealed that teachers’ fairness: 1) affects positively the learning process; 2) reinforces teacher’s sense of well-being and enjoyment; 3) makes teachers and school authority more legitimate; 4) triggers political trust; 5) makes the evaluation of the teacher expertise positive. On the other hand, lack or absence of fairness engenders aggression and hostility, absenteeism, and cheating. Effective teachers are those found skilful at handling properly students’ learning styles and needs that are based on their race, culture, ethnicity and language (Krasnoff, 2016). As a matter of fact, to reach a satisfying cultural harmony and insert it in all classroom

practices, teachers should be provided with the instruction that assists them in bridging “...the gap between instructional delivery and diverse learning styles and establish continuity between how diverse students learn and communicate and how the school approaches teaching and learning” (Krasnoff, 2016, p. 2).

- **Learners as Becoming, not Being**

A further emotionally intelligent classroom practice is when teachers always see their learners as they can become, not as they are. This practice was used by half of the teachers to motivate the pupils, and promote quality learning. Biggs, (1985) defines this strategy as meta-learning which definitely makes the teachers take “...into account the learners’ perception of the learning context as well as their perceptions of the expectations of the discipline being studied” (Walters, 2007, p. 58). From this finding, one can safely conclude that considering students as they can become, not as they are, is a useful emotionally intelligent strategy that may fuel pupils’ self-confidence and self-esteem, and reinforce trust between them and their teachers.

- **Social Interaction**

Social interaction is another emotional practice that was well performed by the teachers. Most of the pupils said that their teachers are socially communicative, they smile and tell jokes. As it has been stated in the second chapter of the review of the literature, social communication, including smile, joke telling and humour, are quite beneficial in the sense that this can help learners to feel secure and overcome their stress and anxiety, create a positive environment full of love and trust, enhance a sense of belonging (Tamblyn, 2003), and finally foster the process of learning (Hurst et al., 2013). Social interactions are also found to be enhanced through small or large group meetings and activities, where learners feel that they are valued by their teachers and peers as well. In this respect, North Carolina Department of Public instruction (2009) that dealt with early childhood classrooms affirmed the momentousness and vitality of the time devoted to the group work and assumed that the latter make the learners talk to and respect each other, learn from each other, and share ideas and experiences with each other. Effective teachers are believed to have the skill to reduce stress and threat,

and create a positive environment that enhances students' achievement and increases their self-esteem by means of good and skillful interactions flavoured with a good sense of humour.

Our findings suggest that almost half of the pupils questioned said that their teachers encourage social interaction with the learners. This finding is supported by Breeves (2004, p. 9) who stated: "...no matter how structured the curriculum or tightly managed the school day, the interactions between students and teachers are to a large extent the result of the individual diligence, professionalism, and commitment of teachers". Andrà et al. (2017), who investigated the importance of play as a social interaction in secondary mathematics classroom, also contended: "A teacher can decide to deviate from norms of their classroom, to be creative, accept the associated risk and vulnerability and use deviative forms of play as a teaching strategy" (p. 65). Vygotsky maintains that children are not lonely individuals; "they work with adults and peers in the creation of any higher-order developmental process" (Mascolo & Fischer, 2005, p. 51). He (1986) rebutted Cartesian philosophy which divided psychology into mechanistic naturalism and metaphysical mentalism (the split between the mind and the body), and proposed the insertion of the social formation in the development of education. In this regard he stated: "Pedagogics is never and was never politically indifferent, since, willingly or unwillingly, through its own work on the psyche, it has always adopted a particular social pattern, political line, in accordance with the dominant social class that has guided its interests (quoted in Daniels, 2001, p. 5). The power of society in the view of Vygotsky goes far to shape and generate consciousness, a mental function that even the mentalistic tradition failed to explain. For him, individual consciousness is built from outside through relations with others: "The mechanism of social behaviour and the mechanism of consciousness are the same... We are aware of ourselves, for we are aware of others, and in the same way as we know others; and this is as it is because in relation to ourselves we are in the same [position] as others are to us" (Vygotsky, 1986, p. xxiv).

As a matter of fact, social interaction was found in this research to be among the practices that the teachers fulfil better, despite a number of inhibitive factors such as

lack of time, the quality of curriculum and syllabus and the various responsibilities that the teachers must accomplish. However, some learners questioned said they feel insecure in the classroom because of the threatening behaviours of some teachers. They described their teachers as angry and rude. Given that working conditions are variable and differ from one school to another, teachers on target may be those who are not attuned to and still struggle with oppressive and onerous working conditions. Acquiring emotional intelligence as a classroom practice to deal with difficult situations may help those teachers, just as coaching and mentoring are required to stimulate and promote teaching/ learning, and provide quality teaching that meets the desired standards. As Phillips- Jones (1982, cited in Caldwell & Cater, 2004) rightly remark, mentors should be influential people that may contribute to the formation of an emotionally intelligent teacher who will successfully reach his life goals.

- **Individual Work**

Although group work, or collaborative work, has many advantages in the way that it: a) gives opportunity to all learners to participate and share the learning process; b) elevates students' listening and oral skills; c) reinforces positive environment through social relationships (Long & Porter, 1985); d) helps to shape learners' personality; e) enhances students' efficiency and productivity (Baskin et al., 2005), the findings show that teachers were rather in favour of individual work. Some teachers prefer this type of activity because they may fear losing control over the behaviour of gathered pupils and setting inadequate circumstances that may bring insecurity to the group (Blatchford et al., 2003) or because successful group work is highly demanding in terms of planning and management (Šerić & Garbin Praničević, 2018). In this study, if the teachers are found to assign individual work to their pupils and not group work, this may be due to the fact that the questionnaire was addressed to the pupils during the COVID-19 pandemic, which obliged teachers in Algeria and people all over the world to respect social distancing, and where classrooms were arranged as one pupil per table. Therefore, it was quite expected to find the results to be affected by this sanitary measure that has been implemented for nearly two years in Algeria.

Another way teachers used as an emotionally intelligent practice in the classroom is dealing with learners' requests for clarification. Also providing comprehensible input, responding to learners' problems inside and outside the classroom, having good teacher-learner relationship, using appropriate body/non-verbal language and using social interaction are teacher practices that were reported or observed. These are described below.

- **Requests for clarification**

The findings show that almost all students reported their teachers' willingness to positively answer all their learners' requests for clarification. This reflects teachers' sense of equity and willingness to make their learners learn and succeed. But the pupils' responses did not differentiate between girls and boys, or made any claim relative to gender inequity. Although Murphy(1986) and Serbin at al' (1973) found in their studies that teachers address more extensive instructions to boys so they become able to do the tasks, or that teachers help girls or finish the tasks for them (cited in Olivares & Rosenthal, 1992), this feeling of discrimination did not appear in the pupils' data. Of course, this does not imply that such phenomenon does not exist. On this point, Field et al., (2007) remark that lack of equity in education is found to be among the factors that make students either leave schools, get employed with limited expertise and skilfulness, or carry on their studies with more endeavour and efforts compared to their fellows.

- **Teacher Comprehensible Input**

As far as teacher input is concerned, a high rate of respondent learners considered it comprehensible. The findings indicate teachers' awareness of the importance of input comprehensibility. With regard to the quality of input, the literature demonstrates that the more comprehensible or easier the input, and the more tuned it is to the levels of the learners, the more fulfilled the language acquisition/learning. Krashen (1981) in his Input Hypothesis (IH) stated that language acquisition/learning is guaranteed only when the input slightly surpasses learners' skills, otherwise it would be just noise; and it gets more complex all along the acquisition of the linguistic competence of the learners. The study results support this view and seem to be consistent with those

revealed by Morano (2005) and Thatch (2022). It has also been suggested that the quality of input depends on teachers' and learners' behaviours (Polat, 2016), and "More specifically, comprehensibility depends largely on how successfully L2 learners negotiate and (co)construct meaning in a particular context of communication with the help (scaffolding) of the more knowledgeable other(s) (the teacher or caregiver)." (Polat, 2016, p. 7). Consistent with this view, Mackey (2012, cited in Polat, 2016) stated that effective communication and clarification may elevate the chance of getting the input understood. From this perspective, one can infer that comprehensible input is an emotionally intelligent teaching outcome. With reference to how to make the input comprehensible, Long (1982, cited in Park, 2002) affirmed that the teacher modifies the speech, provides linguistic and extralinguistic context, orient the communication to the 'here and now' and, finally, modifies the interactional structure of the conversation.

- **Responding to Learners's Problems**

According to the learners' responses, teachers seem to be more responsive to the students' problems that occur inside the classroom than to those that happen outside it. This finding somehow contradicts Stronge's (2007) observation that effective teachers are those who listen and pay attention to students' concerns, be they those that take place inside the classroom or those related to their lives in general. In connection with this point, he claimed that effective teachers who are "human in the eyes of the students" (p. 24) "...are dedicated to bettering student lives, and they demonstrate their understanding through tenderness, patience, and gentleness" (p. 23). Schools and classrooms characterized by caring and respect are reported to strengthen students' intellectual, social and emotional skills that they appropriately use in their daily life (Pasi, 2001), and agreeable Early Childhood Education and Care (ECEC) settings foster the cognitive abilities, maturation and comfort of the young learners (Douglas, 2019). A body of research showed that caring teachers have a number of positive characteristics. Caring teachers are those who see their students' needs as an absolute priority; and those who call their students' parents, visit their homes, and invite their families to school in order to build relationships with the families (Farr, 2010). According to Walker and Gleaves (2016), caring teachers have "particular

‘exemplifiers’ in their practices including the ability to: listen to students, show empathy, support students, actively support students’ learning, give students appropriate and meaningful praise, have high expectations of work and behaviour, and finally, show an active concern in students’ personal lives” (p. 3).

It appears that the reason why most teachers under study neglect or do not pay attention to the learners’ difficulties that happen outside the classroom may be due to teachers’ training and education that focus more on pedagogical matters that take place inside the classroom, such as teaching methods and approaches, classroom management and learners’ assessment, than on personal matters, as described earlier in this study. It has been suggested in the literature that it takes a significant amount of time for teachers to develop the skill of listening to students’ problems both inside and outside the classroom and taking appropriate action because it requires them to have a thorough understanding of the students in question. Based on this conjecture, Neil & Caswell (1993) rightly remark:

It is very likely that some of your pupils’ performance will be affected by psychological or social factors which interfere with their learning. Recognising these factors, formal or informal, in or out of the classroom, is a skilled process, normally resulting from the gradual accumulation of evidence about the child concerned (p. 6).

- **Close Teacher-Learner Relationship**

In spite of the burdensome working conditions such as condensed timetables, large classes and pedagogical duties that usually make good teacher-learner relationships scarce if not impossible, the obtained results revealed the close relationship between almost all teachers and their learners. This finding confirms that such relationship between teachers and their learners is a vital component for successful teaching/learning process, and possibly one of the most valuable features of an emotional intelligent teacher. Also, the finding is consistent with what Stronge (2007) affirmed:

Many educational stakeholders emphasize that effective teachers know their students individually, not only understanding each student’s learning style and needs but also understanding the student’s

personality, likes and dislikes, and personal situations that may affect behaviour and performance in school (p. 24).

- **Body/Non-Verbal Language**

Body language, or non-verbal language, appears to be a widely and well performed practice among teachers in this investigation. This confirms that teachers are fully aware of the significance of body language for a good quality teaching. As mentioned in the second chapter of the literature review, paralanguage is one of the crucial elements of an effective teaching. It is supported to a large degree by Hymes' (1966) communicative competence theory. Communicative competence theory was accepted and adopted worldwide in the 1980's. It claimed communication to be made of both verbal and non-verbal competencies. Body language specifically "...is responsible for many aspects of social interaction: expressing emotion; regulating turn taking in conversation, and defining and expressing social relationships." (Friedman & Gillies, 2005, p. 205). Therefore, it "...allows for a rich possibility of expression." (Friedman & Gillies, 2005, p. 207). That is to say, it is a tool that ensures a better intake and makes the input more comprehensible. On the same wavelength, Gregersen (2007) puts out: "These nonverbal cues convey the same meaning as the verbal message, and either complete or supplement it. For an English language learner, these greatly aid in understanding a speaker's message as they supply extra context clues for determining the meaning of an utterance" (p. 54). Also, the subliminal messages sent through body language in teaching have been clearly highlighted by Neil & Caswell (1993):

...non-verbal signals are more powerful in conveying feelings than speech because most recipients are less aware of them. If you overtly tell a class that the subject you are dealing with is really exciting, or that you intend to deal firmly with any indiscipline, the explicit message may give the more cynical members of the class a clear target to aim at. If you convey enthusiasm or firmness non-verbally, your audience extracts the message from your behaviour subliminally. Since they have derived the message themselves without being aware of having done so, they are less likely to be able to challenge it (p. vx).

The next section 6.3. discusses the findings in relation to teachers' emotional practices and gender and thus seeks to answer the third research question.

6. 3. Teachers' Emotional Practices Related to Gender

In this section, we triangulate the results of the findings and examine the issue of gender-related emotional intelligence from four perspectives: that of the teachers, of the pupils, of the inspectors and of myself, the researcher.

6. 3. 1. Gender-related Emotional Practices from the Teachers' Perspective

- **Motivation**

The obtained results (see Table 34) indicate that both male and female teachers always create a positive emotional atmosphere in the classroom. They seem to be both tidy, clean and organized, give encouragement and praise to learners, use body language successfully, give direction and keep control of the class.

However, female teachers have more classroom routines and do more mentoring than male teachers. When learners do good work, they praise the person, not the work (table 7). They use more appropriate language than male teachers (table 14). They are more caring, fair and respectful. They promote enthusiasm and motivate learning, they are more energetic and more motivated than their male counterparts. However, gender-based motivation does not appear to have a fixed or universal pattern. A study conducted in an Indonesian high school by Handayani (2016) reported female teachers to be less motivated than their male counterparts because female teachers work only to help their husbands, while male teachers see themselves as family leaders and the only responsible for making a living. Similar findings reported by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, OECD (2018) showed that female teachers displayed low motivation because of their 13.5 % lower wage compared to male teachers'.

- **Humour and emotional /interpersonal skills**

As far as humour is concerned, there seems to be a correlation between gender and humour. The finding indicates that male teachers have more sense of humour (table 3).

This result confirms Lakoff's (1975, cited in Háhn, 2012) that men, compared to women, have more tendency to tell jokes. Studies that dealt with gender-based humour in terms of types found that women use liberating humour and controlling humour styles that require emotional intelligence, while men use stress-relieving type that requires quotient intelligence (Gozukara, 2016). Shehzad and Mahmood (2013), who carried out an investigation on emotional practices of university teachers found that female teachers surpass by far their male counterparts only in interpersonal skills. However, same scores have been recorded for both genders on the rest of the emotional skills.

- **Classroom Scanning**

Concerning classroom scanning, male teachers are reported to be more able to scan the classroom than their female counterparts. Male teachers' outperformance in classroom scan may be explained by the fact that they have more power and influence that make them engage in most types of risky behaviour more frequently than females do (Zuckerman, 2007; Rudasill, 2010). Olson (2019) and Kimura (2010) reported male teachers to surpass their female counterparts in controlling disruptive classroom behaviours and maintaining an emotional climate favourable for academic success, while O'Connor (2008), Yilmaz et al., (2015) and Yin (2015) found female teachers to be more caring and more emotionally connected to their students. On the same wavelength, Vanner et al. (2022), who explored gender-based violence (GBV) in schools, suggested: "Several teachers pointed to the importance of male teachers engaging in GBV education, expressing that they may be taken more seriously by their male students" (p. 6). Other studies, such as Casey's (2013), linked male teachers' exceptional classroom performance to their mastery of spatial skills, particularly in mental rotation and spatial perception tasks.

With regards to the impact of teachers' comments on their learners, female teachers are found to believe that their comments are effective. These results confirm Tabak et al.'s (2003) and Gurbuzturk & Sad's (2009) findings that female teachers have higher self-efficacy beliefs than their male counterparts (cited in Kwaku Sarfo et al., 2015). On the other hand, our findings refute Riggs' (1991), Hemmings & Kay's (2009), and

Butucha's (2013) conclusions that male teachers rate higher than their female counterparts in terms of self-efficacy. A growing body of literature suggests that gender-based discrepancies in relation to self-efficacy are governed by external factors. Riggs (1991), who reported the superiority of elementary science male teachers over their female counterparts, related his findings to the higher expectations that people put on male teachers in the scientific field.

Concerning comments about a good work that the teachers make, all the teachers be they male or female, seem to use motivating words. It would be important to state that all female teachers in this study are found to praise the person only, while one third of male teachers are found to praise the person, and two thirds praise both the work and the person. These results may be explained by the fact that "Instead of being goal oriented, women are relationship oriented; they are more concerned with expressing their goodness, love, and caring" (Gray, 1993, p. 13).

keeping praise in view, and as reported in the present study, male teachers are found to use only informational rewards, while female teachers use both informational and controlling rewards. Female teachers' propensity or inclination towards controlling rewards may be a compensatory strategy for the decline in intrinsic motivation, knowing that the decline takes place from 8 to 14 years of age (Harter, 1981, cited in Gillet et al., 2012). These conclusions may also apply to the present research context.

To address behavioural issues, all female teachers are found to use pieces of advice and nice words as a method of correction. However, only two-thirds of male teachers use this positive method of correction, while one third use both nice words and punishment. The findings may suggest that female teachers play the role of good negotiators to better handle disruptive behaviours. This has been already confirmed by Rogers (2003) when a female teacher expressed her authority and addressed her order to a turbulent student in a form of choice rather than a threat. This may be socio-linguistically explained by gender differentiation related to men's and women's conception of communication where, according to Hudson (1996) "...men are more concerned with power and women with solidarity" (p.141). In the same vein, Tannen

(1990) affirmed: “Women...appreciate the discussion itself as evidence of involvement and communication. But many men feel oppressed by lengthy discussions about what they see as minor decisions, and they feel hemmed in if they can't just act without talking first” (p. 10).

As for detention, the results in our study show that there is no correlation between the form of detention and teachers' gender, in that both male and female teachers use detention as a time of reflection. These research findings suggest that teachers' role and social- emotional support of their learners are not gender- based. Regarding the way teachers see their pupils, most female teachers are found to see them as they can become, while most of their male counterparts see their learners both as they are and as they can become. This gender-based discrepancy may be interpreted by the fact that women are urged by their maternal instinct where “...mothers' emotional support during difficult tasks teaches children control strategies that they can apply independently in future settings, instills confidence in their own abilities, and conveys that learning is important and valued...” (Leerkes et al., 2012, p. 369).

6. 3. 2. Gender-related Teachers Emotional Practices from the Pupils' Perspective

The findings indicate that the pupils feel as safe with their male teachers as with their female teachers. However, concerning language, half of the pupils described their female teachers to use appropriate language when upset, while almost half of them claimed their male teachers to use it. This slight difference confirms Fasold's (1990) perspective that gender-related linguistic discrepancy is not as blatant as one might expect, and that “the gender pattern does not involve all the socially sensitive linguistic features” (p. 92). A significant number of pupils claimed their male teachers to use inappropriate language. This may be due to the fact that women have a natural propensity to be more polite and respectful to the conventional politeness norms than men. The findings at hand support a number of assumptions that men's language is “...direct, assertive, impolite...” (Mills 2003, p. 213), and associated to “...engagement and power...” (Lakoff, 2004, p. 11), while women's is “...universally more polite than men's, both in avoiding swearing and stigmatised expressions and in following more closely conventions to do with managing the conversational floor” (Beeching, 2002, p.

9). They also confirm clisbee's (2005) perception that "Men... were socialized to be competitive and authoritarian, and women to be caring and collaborative" (p. 48).

According to the literature on sociolinguistics and sociology of language, the rationale behind this linguistic difference is that at an early age little boys are allowed to say rude and brutish language when little girls are not (Lakoff, 1975). Consistent with this view, Holmes (1995) contended:

In modern western societies, most girls and boys operate in single- sex peer groups through an influential period of their childhood, during which they acquire and develop different styles of interaction. The boys' interaction tends to be more competitive and control- oriented, while the girls interact more cooperatively and focus on relative closeness (p. 7)

Although a "...warm expressive female teacher appears to be expected and may be viewed as displaying sex-appropriate characteristics, whereas a warm expressive male professor is unexpected and may be viewed as sex inappropriate" (Basow & Distenfeld, 1983, p. 5), female teachers are surprisingly reported to be less communicative than their male counterparts in the present study. These findings may be psychologically interpreted by the fact that lack of or poor social skills and low self-esteem in women make them avoid social contacts with others (Panayiotou et al., 2016). Our findings can also be interpreted by the biological component that is evidenced to shape all menstruating women's mood, desire, emotions, thoughts and interests by means of the daily hormonal changes that their brains undergo to reach 25 percent of changes every month (Brizendine, 2006). According to this researcher, most of women cope with these changes but others do not. In this regards, she argued:

Some of my patients... couldn't work or speak to anyone because they'd either burst into tears or bite someone's head off. Most weeks of the month they were engaged, intelligent, productive, and optimistic, but a mere shift in the hormonal flood to their brains on certain days left them feeling that the future looked bleak, and that they hated themselves and their lives (2006, p. 3).

Females are said to have more inclinations to avoid frustration, rudeness and anger, and reflect females' submissive mindset to the social norms whatever the circumstances they are in. In this regard, Eckert (1989) and Chambers (1992; 1995) pointed out that women scarcely use stigmatized and nonstandard variants than men do even if they belong to the same social group and are in the same conditions (cited in Chambers et al., 2003). Similarly, Holmes (2013) stated: "... women are more aware of the fact that the way they speak signals their social class background or social status in the community" (p.167). That is to say "... women are more status conscious than man...women are more status bound than men" (Eckert, 1989, p. 256). Despite the fact that female teachers avoid frustration, rudeness and anger, they are found in the present study to surpass by far their male counterparts in insulting and humiliating their pupils. This negative method used by the female teachers in the present study is one of the approaches that make the pupils distrust and hate their teachers, and, therefore, flee the task. In line with this view, Kahveci (2023) considered insulting and humiliating approach as an approach that renders the students scared of their teachers, and makes them flee the lesson, lose their self-confidence and their confidence in their teachers. Our findings confirm Frodi, et al., (1977), White (1983), Hyde (1984) and Eagly & Steffen (1986) belief that the gender discrepancy does not lie on the quantity but on the quality of aggression. They also go on the same wavelength with Eagly & Steffen (1986) and Björkqvist & Niemelä (1992) in relation to women's disposition to psychological aggression in which women cause their targets psychological harm.

On the other hand, our obtained results contradict Terman & Tyler (1954) and Maccoby & Jacklin (1974) who assumed that men are more aggressive than women. They also refute Wood's (2009) contention that "...female teachers being more nurturing than males, males being more laid back than female teachers as well as more dominant and commanding with their students" (p. 1). They repudiate Madrid & Hughes (2010) who argued:

...female teachers tended to employ a greater number of gender stereotypes in their attitude and expectations with regards to student behaviour and frequently adopted stereotypical roles more closely associated with the female gender: they acted as maternal figures,

showing a large degree of protection towards the children as well as greater understanding towards their bad behaviour... female teachers were more sympathetic to the problems of students who performed poorly and attributed a higher level of importance to the interpersonal problems of students than the male teachers. (p. 3)

Keeping teacher trustworthiness in view, teachers who are unreliable and untrustworthy mold students' disruptive behaviour. However, those who gain their learners' trust, and who are mindful of their students' welfare, according to Mortiboys (2005), do not find difficulties putting into practice whatever approach, teaching method, or activities they judge suitable. That is to say, trust and teachers' mindfulness incite the learners to go in harmony with their teachers' practices- a fact that empowers a versatile, dynamic and wide-ranging way of teaching.

With reference to individual and peer work, our research discloses a gender-based discrepancy. The obtained results indicate that individual work is more favoured by male teachers. This may be biologically explained by Brizendine's (2006) assumption that testosterone makes talking and interest in socializing decrease. In this regard, she affirmed: "The testosterone-formed boy brain simply doesn't look for social connection in the same way a girl brain does" (2006, pp. 22- 23). Contrary to Nawaz & Atta's (2018) and Wood's (2009) argument that there is not any gender discrepancy in terms of subject matter competency, the present findings indicate male teachers' outperformance in quality of input. Our results go in line with those reported by Taqi et al. (2015) where almost half of the pupils claimed to learn more and get better marks from male teachers.

In this research, understanding and listening to learners' issues are found to have no correlation with gender. Male teachers are claimed to pay as much attention and to be as mindful of the problems that happen inside and outside the classroom as their female counterparts. The findings also demonstrate that teacher-learner relationship is not gender-based, in that the same rate of percentage of the pupils claimed both female and male teachers to build a close relationship with them. Considering teacher-student relationships, some scholars went further to explore the nature of these relationships based on the type of the curriculum. According to Martino & Kehler (2007), education

in the USA and Canada, for instance, where some curricula threaten and devalue masculine interests and behaviours, became a cause for concern years ago. As a matter of fact, researchers came to the conclusion that male teachers suit best to go against and confront the harmful corollary of the feminisation of schooling and literacy, and save boys' masculinity through a particular relationship that maximises boys' attention, and boosts their participation in school-based literacy practices (Martino & Kehler, 2007).

As for body language and voice tone, the findings reveal insignificant male's outperformance over their female counterparts. Fairness, too, is found to be a practice where male teachers slightly outperform their female counterparts. The findings align with Taqi et al.'s (2015) study findings that "male teachers hold more positive personal traits, including friendliness, kindness, and fairness" (p. 189). In the same vein, Tatar and Emmanuel (2001, cited in Wood, 2009) reported male teachers to be fairer than their female counterparts, and even fought against the convention that they are less fair than female teachers.

Male teachers are also reported to outperform a little female teachers in social interaction, including smile and jokes. In line with these findings, Taqi and colleagues (2015) stated: "Many students noted that male teachers have a better sense of humour, and are more patient. A few students stated that female teachers could sometimes be moody, and project their feelings (good or bad) in class, while male teachers are more in control of their emotions and thus are rarely moody" (p. 187). Pupils' perspective that responded in favour of male teachers may be determined by their gendered expectations where female teachers "... are expected to be more open and accessible to students as well as to maintain a high degree of professionalism and objectivity... female instructors who fail to exhibit an ideal mix of traits are rated lower for not meeting expectations, while male instructors are not held to such a standard (MacNeill et al., 2015, p. 4). Our findings refute Brizendine's (2006) conjecture that from the age of puberty women become more emotional and more communicative, while males become less communicative.

6. 3. 3. Gender-related Teachers Emotional Practices from the Researcher's Perspective

It is surprising to find female teachers not outperforming any emotional classroom practices that were observed, while their male counterparts scored higher in five items which are: 'Safety', 'Care', 'Empathy', 'Positivity' and 'Conversation/relationship building'. Our findings oppose the view held by Costin et al.'s (1971) that female instructors are rated higher than male instructors (cited in Ogden, 1994, p. 3). They also contradict the belief that female teachers are warmer and offer more interpersonal support than their male counterparts (Bennet, 1982) and that women tend to be kind and sympathetic to other people (Heilman & Okimoto, 2007). Our findings also suggest that both male and female teachers excel in most of the emotional classroom practices. The body language, for instance, that is equally performed by male and female teachers confirms Gulec & Temel's (2015) assumption that body language is not affected by teachers' gender, and refutes Manfredia & Boggiob's (2020) view that "...women are faster at integrating speech into gestures" (p. 15). The unexpected female low rating in many emotional classroom practices may have two explications: 1) a physiological explanation, more precisely hormonal change, that has already been discussed; 2) when female teachers display more caring and warm behaviour, students may interpret this behaviour as weak or less valuable (Basow & Silberg 1987; Sandler 1991, cited in Linse, 2003, p. 4).

6. 3. 4. Gender-related Teachers Emotional Practices from the Inspectors' Perspective

The results obtained from the questionnaire addressed to the inspectors show that female teachers outperform their male counterparts mainly in 'Classroom routines', 'Leadership', 'Mentoring', and 'Vision-target' that embrace practices considered as components of classroom management (see Appendix F). Our research findings that disclose female teachers' outperformance in mentoring confirm one of the scarce investigations on mentorship gender-based disparity that has been carried out by Sullivan & Bers (2018). In their study, these researchers found elementary school female robotics teachers to surpass their male counterparts in having positive impact

on girls' performance on programming tasks, and shrinking the gap between boys and girls in the matter of the mastery of robotics programming concepts. Our research findings reveal that gender affects emotional classroom practices only to a certain degree, and that male teachers perform some practices well, while their female counterparts do better in others. The findings also confirm conclusions of many studies that there are no significant differences and decisive roles between male and female teachers' classroom management skills and competencies (Sivri, 2012; İlhan, 2011; Bağcı, 2010, cited in Ahmed et al., 2018, p. 183).

Although 'Leadership' and 'Mentoring' and 'Coaching' are considered by the literature to be classroom practices leading to successful and effective teaching and learning, they still appear to be underpracticed by both male and female teachers. Allen (2014) points out that good leader teachers are those who take their learners in charge physically, mentally and socially, and set their own visions and share them with their students in an inspiring way. He also believes that inspiring and emotionally intelligent leadership happens only when teachers have a good understanding of their self-awareness, self-regulation, and the way their actions and emotions affect their learners, as well as how to positively and optimistically motivate themselves and their learners. In addition to leadership, mentoring and coaching are also reported to contribute to students' achievement to a greater extent. Mentoring, for instance, has been evidenced by a significant body of literature "to steer teenagers away from trouble, give extra encouragement to students, and provide a role model for more positive types of behaviours" (Riley, 1998, cited in Johnson & Lampley, 2010, p. 65). The literature also disclosed the students to have the propensity to welcome the rules when they get involved in their design and application. The intent of implementing mentoring in schools is not confined to the students' academic success; it is far greater such that it concerns issues that are beyond the scope of the school, thereby requiring high quality mentors.

On the other hand, the inspectors' reports reveal that male and female teachers scored equally in classroom management, while male teachers outperformed their female counterparts only in motivating and encouraging the pupils. The findings seem to be consistent with Nejati et al.'s (2014) that "...males and females did not differ as

far as classroom management was considered. However, they differed in terms of student engagement and instructional strategies; male teachers were better at student engagement, while female teachers were better at instructional strategies” (p. 1219). Similarly, Jone (2003, cited in Wood, 2009) purported that male teachers do better than their female counterparts in motivating students. Keeping classroom management in view, Tauber (1999) suggested three types of classroom managers: the assertive teacher who protects teacher and student rights; the hostile teacher who uses aversive techniques; and the nonassertive teacher who is passive and often inconsistent. Gender stereotypes presume that male teachers would be either assertive or hostile, while female teachers would be assertive or non-assertive (cited in Wood, 2009).

Our investigation also reveals that female teachers surpass their male counterparts in terms of patience and positive relationships. Biologically speaking, this female outperformance may be explained on the basis that men and women use two emotional systems differently. These emotional systems are: the mirror-neuron system (MNS) and the temporal-parietal junction system (TPJ). In front of someone’s problem or pain, man’s brain first activates the former system (MNS) to make the man quickly feel the pain he is seeing. This is called “emotional empathy”. Then, it switches to the latter system (TPJ) that in turn activates analyze-and-fix-it circuits to solve the problem. This is called “cognitive empathy”. TPJ is said to keep a firm limit between emotions of the “self” and the “other”- the fact that makes men less affected by other people’s emotions, but strong to solve problems. Woman’s brain, on the other hand, remains in the MNS longer, which makes her share other’s feelings (Brizendine, 2010). The psychological interpretation of female teachers’ excellence at positive relationships and patience could be that women are more agreeable, warm and open to feelings whereas their male counterparts are suggested to be more assertive and open to ideas (Terracciano & Mc Care, 2001). From a social perspective, we suggest that this gender discrepancy is role-oriented, as explained by the “traditional” gender role of women as care-giver, helper, and self-sacrificing (Swickert et al., 2016; Daltry et al., 2018). Consistent with this view, Garaigordobil (2009, p. 229) contended:

...girls, to a greater extent than boys, have been socialized in a way that favours the development of skills oriented towards warmth in interpersonal relationships... the capacity for understanding and sharing others' feelings and emotions would be a characteristic associated with the feminine role, more than with the stereotype of the masculine role.

6. 4. Limitations

As any research, this study cannot be without limitations. The first and foremost limitation is that this research work has been conducted during the COVID-19 pandemic and the strict sanitary measures mainly, social distancing that dramatically imposed and is still imposing itself on teaching principles. For that reason, final conclusions may have been affected by the results. Another serious limitation is that this study was planned, designed, written and organised by one person- the author of this research. That being so, this may have led to subjectivity and partiality. A fairly significant part of the research findings is based on a survey where usually teachers have a natural tendency to give positive responses. Time (no more than 40 minutes) given to the pupils to answer the questionnaire made some of them leave items without any answer. This could have also influenced the results. In addition, the participants answered the questionnaires in the presence of their teachers, which could have been a threatening source. Teachers could directly or indirectly have influenced the pupils' responses and consequently the findings. Moreover, 48 hours of observation that were equitably distributed into only eight sessions of 45 minutes for each teacher made the author of this research unable to examine carefully all teachers' classroom practices, which may have interfered in the findings of this study. Finally, this research was conducted in an extremely restricted context: three middle schools in the city of Chlef, with only six teachers of English, four inspectors and 218 pupils. Our investigation took place in three middle schools because they are the only middle schools that have one male teacher each. Therefore, the research findings could not be generalised to all Algerian middle schools.

6. 5. Conclusion and Recommendations

This chapter was meant to discuss and interpret the results of the study conducted on middle school teachers of English, particularly their emotional classroom practices. The latter were examined in light of the concept of emotional intelligence that was defined and discussed in the theoretical part. From this discussion of the findings, one may draw three conclusions that do not support all our three hypotheses: the first conclusion contradicts our first hypothesis that middle school teachers of English are aware of emotional intelligence as a way to improve their teaching. The second conclusion supports the second hypothesis, but teachers are not sufficiently emotionally intelligent given the quality of the professional development that they are provided with. However, the third conclusion does not support the third hypothesis that middle school female and male teachers are different in terms of emotional intelligence. Indeed, there are only some differences between them, particularly with regard to four items: ‘Insult and humiliation’, ‘Classroom scanning’, ‘social interaction with the pupils’ and implementing ‘group work’. These items are used differently based on whether the teacher is male or female. The findings suggest that these items call for deeper investigation in the future. Finally, some recommendations may be addressed to the teachers, stakeholders and decision makers as follows:

1- As teachers’ emotional intelligence fosters students’ personal development of the self-beliefs and self-regulatory capabilities to educate themselves throughout a lifetime (Zimmerman, 1999), teacher professional development should give as much importance to emotional classroom practices as professional ones, and educate teachers how to be emotionally intelligent.

2- Teachers should be more involved in the design of the professional development programmes.

3- Teachers should be allotted an amount of time that helps them eliminate disruptive behaviours, and manage their classes successfully mainly in terms of mentoring, coaching and classroom routines.

- 4- Instead of prolonging the duration of a currently ineffective programme (Villegas-Reimers, 2003), decision makers and professional development designers must promote the quality of teacher education programmes to comply with the required standards.
- 5- Teacher education should embrace highly relevant classroom practices such as assessment and time management, in addition to the way to convey knowledge to the learners.
- 6- Implementation of and developing mentoring programmes and the necessary tools such as workshops, meetings, get-togethers, functions, discussions, literature (Quratul Ain et al., 2017).
- 7- Teachers should be given the chance to partake in all school development activities, since their involvement proved to make them highly competent in problem solving (Vojáčková, 2020).
- 8- Classrooms should be designed and organised in such a way as to meet the high standards of the physical environment required for successful academic context.
- 9- To avoid or at least overcome the distress and burden that burnout may engender, teachers should take proactive actions such as lowering one's ambitions, acquiring knowledge, and improving existing skills or learning new ones, making plans, changing environmental conditions, and seeking practical help from others (Lazarus, 2006, cited in Bjørndal, et al., 2021, p.3), or adopt coping strategies such as building good relationships with their students, colleagues and the administrative staff.

General Conclusion

General Conclusion

As the concept of teaching has shifted from cognitive-based to emotionally-based, teachers, stakeholders and even researchers found themselves urged to think differently of the approaches that adhere to the new trend. Over the last two decades emotional intelligence has become one of the main concerns of psychologists and educators alike. Within academia, the literature on emotional intelligence evidenced the momentousness of this dimension in teaching describing emotionally intelligent teachers as those who effectively and efficiently create a positive environment that triggers and enhances students' cognitive skills. They are those who teach in the best possible manner to "bring change in their learners" (Mortiboys, 2005). Emotionally intelligent teachers are those who have the characteristics which are conducive to and can meet the standards of quality teaching; they have a passion for teaching, they are motivated to fulfil the mission, enthusiastic about the subject content, able to establish good relationships with the students and the staff, able and willing to be fair, able to cope with the working conditions and with challenging and rigorous situations. etc. They are also those who make the learners balanced individuals.

Studies have demonstrated that lack of emotional intelligence has an unfavourable and threatening corollary. It generates stress, which in turn gives rise to the emotional exhaustion that is called burnout. Teachers have been reported to be more susceptible to burnout in comparison to other workers. This emotional exhaustion has been one of the preoccupations of scholars from various fields of research. Many studies have examined the type of people that are easily affected by emotional exhaustion, and concluded that mentally predisposed people like neurotics, perfectionists and people with low self-esteem are more likely to suffer from burnout. Therefore, greater attention should be paid to this emotional exhaustion, considering that it "...can be harmful to educators and may have destructive effects on teaching and learning, their personal lives and most importantly, the learners" (Steyn & Kamper, 2006, p. 128).

General Conclusion

The aim of the current study was to explore the emotional intelligence of middle school teachers of English in the Chlef area of Algeria, and analyse their classroom practices. Specifically, the study was intended to see whether or not middle school teachers of English are aware of emotional intelligence as a way to improve their teaching, to examine the extent to which they are emotionally intelligent in their classroom practices, and, finally, to explore whether middle school male and female teachers of English differ in the ways they use emotional classroom practices.

This research was conducted in three middle schools in the Chlef region of western Algeria, with different environmental settings. Geographically speaking, the first school we visited was well located, in that all the classrooms were perfectly exposed to the sun- which made them have an adequate amount of natural light, in addition to the artificial one. As for heating and ventilation, the classrooms responded to the norms to a certain degree. The second school that we visited was made of two buildings: the old building was poorly maintained and the physical environment of its classrooms, including lighting, heating and ventilation, did not conform to the standards of teaching. On the other hand, the new building was terrestrially well located; its rooms had sufficient natural and electrical light. Concerning heating and ventilation, the classrooms complied with the standards to some degree. The third school that we visited was inadequately located, considering that it was surrounded by high trees and high buildings, which prevented light to go inside. The physical state of the classrooms did not meet the standard of a good normal school.

To conduct this study, three research tools were used: A questionnaire survey with 6 teachers, 218 pupils and 4 inspectors of English was designed and administered, several observation sessions performed by the researcher using a checklist, and 50 official reports written by the four inspectors .The questionnaire handed to 3 female teachers and 3 male teachers was analysed according to their gender.

For the sake of obtaining reliable results, we used a variety of approaches and methods to analyse the collected data. These approaches and methods were selected based on mixed methods research design of our study. Quantitative data obtained from

teachers' and pupils' questionnaires were statistically analysed by means of tabulation, pie and bar charts. we also resorted to the 'mode' as statistical measure to calculate the frequency of teachers' classroom practices during the observation sessions, and had recourse to the 'mean' to measure gender-based differentiation in both the emotional intelligence classroom checklist and the inspectors' questionnaire. These statistical measures were used because they are regarded to be easy to understand and calculate. In addition to the 'mode' and 'mean', and to analyse the inspectors' reports, the researcher opted for the content analysis approach that allowed the emergence of several categories. The qualitative data were turned into quantitative data. As for the missing data that might have occurred due to reasons mentioned in the fourth chapter of this study, the researchers applied listwise deletion approach that lies in considering only cases with complete data. Being no exception, our investigation has been carried out with a set of restrictions that may have affected the obtained findings. The major restriction is the Covid-19 pandemic during which our research has been carried out, knowing that this exceptional occurrence urged the authorities concerned to deploy sanitary measures, one of which was social distancing that may imposingly have interfered with the results at hand. Moreover, the observation sessions were done by the researcher only- the fact that may have given rise to subjectivity and bias. The limitations in this experiment also cover other inconveniencies such as the limited number of hours devoted to class observation, the insufficient time allotted to the pupils to answer the questionnaire, and finally the restricted number of middle schools included in this study.

The conclusions we may draw from this research are the following: 1) middle school teachers of English are aware of emotional intelligence as a way to ameliorate their teaching; 2) however, they are not as emotionally intelligent as they are expected to be. This may be due to the type of teacher training or professional development that they receive at university or in teacher training colleges, and also the physical environment of the classrooms they teach in; 3) male and female teachers differ in terms of emotional intelligence to some extent only.

Notwithstanding its value and usefulness, emotional intelligence still remains an unacknowledged teaching facet compared to the subject expertise and the teaching/learning methods (Mortiboys, 2005). The ubiquitous lack of interest in the emotional side of teaching urged us to carry out this investigation to examine whether and how emotionally intelligent practices are implemented in the Algerian education system, and to what extent the middle school teachers of English under study are emotionally intelligent. We took middle school as a case study because we believe that at this period of their life, teen-agers need special care, protection and support, given that teaching English as a foreign language starts in middle school with adolescent learners. However, English has been introduced into the primary school this year only, as part of the new foreign languages policy.

The major finding of this study indicates that in spite of the scanty emotional development and training provided to middle school teachers of English, and in spite of the unfavourable physical environment where teaching takes place, regardless of their gender, teachers are found to be emotionally intelligent, but not to a highly satisfactory degree. They still seem to be in need of a robust and powerful emotional development and training to supply them with necessary emotional skills and help them to emotionally deal with situations such as: 1) how to take into account pupils' emotional well-being or ill-being when delivering instructions; 2) how to encourage students to be supportive for each other; 3) how to give emotionally-based features to the lessons they teach; 4) and how to cope with or create a physical environment that enhances students' achievement by making classroom look clean, nice, and arranging students' seats according to the classroom activities (Megawati, 2020). The results also show that the worst and the most burdensome situation that the teachers work in is the imposed course book and the syllabus that are far from being adequate for pupils' need. Teachers are more often than not kept out of the curriculum and syllabus design which gives rise to teachers' negative reaction to the course book. They reported some inconsistencies in the course book relating to their beliefs and learners' needs which urge teachers to design their own lessons and activities. In addition, the findings demonstrate that teachers are under other types of pressure such as time constraints and overcrowded classes that prevent them from being emotionally intelligent teachers

like greeting their learners by names. In reference to gender, the latter is found to affect to a certain extent teachers' emotional classroom practices. The assumption that females are more emotional than men seems to be just a myth. Female teachers are found to surpass their male counterparts only in a few emotional classroom practices such as enthusiasm and energy, the type of praise, pair work and group work. Contrary to the belief that social interactions are one of the females' features, our findings suggest that middle school male teachers of English are more effective than their female counterparts in interacting with their pupils. The results related to gender confirm our previous research findings that indicated female teachers' failure in dealing with most of personal/ emotional classroom practices (Iddou, 2018). Considering the above results, and in order to guarantee quality teaching that can fit highly demanding stakes, curricula and syllabi should be designed according to the learners' needs with the contribution of the teachers being the principal actor in the classroom and the only acquainted with the learners' needs. The emotional dimension of the teaching in Algeria appears to be given a little room or importance by the decision makers and the professional development providers, though it is widely acknowledged today that EI is among the key factors that decide students' success or failure. The current literature demonstrated that when schools become unfair places, the students get disengaged and disobedient, and their outcomes turn into fiasco, which makes them flee the schools (Blad, 2017). More importantly, the stakeholders, mainly school principals should respect and protect teachers from burnout that has been evidenced to undermine teachers' motivation and productivity. For that reason, a serious integration of emotional practices in teacher education, curriculum design and staff professional development programmes is badly needed. With reference to the physical environment of the classrooms, and as noted earlier, it is far from being adequate or meeting teachers or learners expectations. Improving this environment will no doubt strengthen the teaching/learning process and reduce the risk of burnout among teachers. This implies that efforts should be made administratively, technically and financially to refurbish the schools and improve the teaching/learning conditions in order to enable teachers to become emotionally intelligent practioners and instil emotional intelligence in their learners as a life-long skill.

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Glossary

Glossary

Academic Failure

A person who is generally regarded as having failed in formal education. A great deal of time and effort in education for adults is directed towards supporting those who, having been regarded as failures, seek to return to the educational or training system later in life (Jarvis, 2002, p. 3).

Accelerated Learning

A pedagogical method that emphasizes using the whole person (both mind and body) in order to increase a learner's ability to learn more in a shorter period of time. Accelerated learning techniques involve the use of creativity, music, images, and/or colour to enhance learning (Collins & O'Brien, 2003, p. 3).

Accountability

In education, holding of responsibility by the personnel involved in the management of education, for the efficiency of the system... Accountability in school management implies that those who are involved in the delivering of goods (primarily teachers) are accountable to their clients (parents and public) for the outcomes and processes, of the school's activities. It also indicates the responsibility of the teachers and other professionals to adherence to codes of practice and ethics of the profession (Lohithakshan, 2002, p. 6).

Achievement

The attainment of knowledge, competencies, and higher-level status, as may be reflected in grades, degrees, and other forms of certification or public acknowledgment (Collins & O'Brien, 2003, p. 4).

Active Learning

Learning based on student activity, with minimum teacher intervention. The method is applied largely with students of higher age-groups, the main activity being

discussion and group work in a free setting. Learning is student-centered. It is an effective method for development of critical thinking (Lohithakshan, 2002, p. 10).

Behaviour Management

Behaviour intervention that focuses on preventive management of identified undesired behaviours. This approach seeks to anticipate the undesired behaviours and institute preventive measures, with a focus on reinforcing good behaviours rather than punishing poor behaviour. The practice of manipulating environmental stimuli to direct children's behaviour toward a chosen goal. Different theories of how children are socialized (behaviourist, constructivist, ecological, sociocultural) lead to different methods of behaviour management (Collins & O'Brien, 2003, p. 37).

Behaviourism

Behaviourism is primarily concerned with observable and measurable aspects of human behaviour (Zhou & Brown, 2017: 6).

Checklist

A generic term referring to a list of children's behaviours, teacher competencies, activities, or other items to accomplish, to create, or maintain a quality service program. It is an easy and quick method to use in determining the effectiveness and needs of children, teachers, or programs (Collins & O'Brien, 2003, p. 52).

Classroom Ecology

A branch of educational research which has not been widely developed in adult education in which the classroom is itself the centre of research, eg interactions within it (Jarvis, 2002, p. 77).

Classroom Management

A teacher's methods for establishing and maintaining an environment in which teaching and learning can occur, including techniques for preventing and handling student misbehaviour (Collins & O'Brien, 2003, p. 58).

Classroom Observation

Initial practical placement for student teachers, during which they watch experienced teachers teach. 2. A form of research in the classroom, not so well developed in adult education as in initial education (Jarvis, 2002, p. 78).

Collaborative Learning

A method of teaching and learning in which students work together to explore a significant question or create a meaningful project. Collaborative learning is the umbrella term encompassing many forms of learning from small group projects to the more specific form of group work called cooperative learning. A group of students discussing a lecture, or students from different schools working together over the Internet on a shared assignment are both examples of collaborative learning. Collaborative learning has its origins in higher education (Collins & O'Brien, 2003, p. 63)

Constructivist Learning

Constructivist learning is active learning and begins by eliciting and acknowledging what learners already know and believe about the task at hand (Levin, 2001, p. 3).

Education

Formal schooling of the young in preparation for life, usually as a passage through various institutions set up for that purpose and arranged in the levels primary (around the ages 5-7 to around 11), secondary (from around 12 to 15-18), and tertiary (from 16-18 onward) (Mc Arthur, 1996, p. 315). It is the fundamental method of social progress and reform (Dewey, 1959, p. 32).

Emotions

Emotions are viewed as motivational forces that play a role in much of our social behaviour (Eisenberg, 2006, p. 4).

Environment

Physical and social surroundings of the individual. The environment includes all the elements of the surroundings, inanimate, animate, human, and also the social institutions man has built up that come into direct or indirect contact with the

individual. So it includes the physical environment, social environment, cultural environment, etc. The environment has decisive role in guiding the growth and development of the individual and in directing his behaviour from time to time (Lohithakshan, 2002, pp. 138- 139).

Explicit Teaching

An approach in which information about a language is given to the learners directly by the teacher or textbook (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 211).

Intelligence Quotient

The widely accepted index of mental ability. The concept was developed by Lewis M. Terman and his associates at Stanford University during the revision of the Binet scale intended for American population. I.Q. is ratio of the mental age to the chronological age, and to avoid the fraction in the result, the obtained value is multiplied by 100 (Lohithakshan, 2002, p. 210).

Job Satisfaction

The contentment the worker receives from the job and the job situation. Job satisfaction is not solely dependent on wages; other factors like work environment, job prospects, worker management relationship, worker —co-worker relationship, opportunities for self-expression, etc. are also important for it. The worker will be unhappy if the job demands abilities and qualities that he does not possess for effective execution of his duties, even if other conditions are favourable (Lohithakshan, 2002, p. 222).

Knowledge

Knowledge is power and knowledge is achieved by sending the mind to school of nature to learn her processes of change (Dewey, 1959, p. 69).

Learning

Learning is a change in behaviour as a result of experience or practice (Pritchard, 2008, p. 2). It is also defined as an instructional process which takes place in a teaching context, guiding the performance of the speaker (Crystal, 2008, p. 8).

Learning Environment

The characteristics related to providing a physical, intellectual, and sociopsychological environment that combine to either positively or negatively affect the educational process of the learner (Collins & O'Brien, 2003, p. 202).

Non- formal Education

Systematic education organised outside the regular formal school system. Formal school system is so formalized with its rigours of rules for everything (like age of admission, school hours, courses of study, attendance, etc.) that it may not be suitable to the needs and conveniences of many people. So many people miss the school. Non formal education is mainly intended for those who have missed the regular schools. In non-formal education the rigours of rules are almost non-existent. Orderlines that is necessary to carry out the programme alone is insisted (Lohithakshan, 2002, p. 272).

Open learning/Open education

A system for educating adults where normal restrictions on entry to adult education are removed and where learners receive recognition for previous experience. Courses are organized flexibly according to the students' needs (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 410).

Professional development

Professional development recognised as a complicated, prolonged, highly situated and deeply personal process that has no start or end point (Johnson & Golombek, 2011)

Sociocultural Theory

A learning theory derived from the work of the Russian psychologist Vygotsky which deals with the role of social context in learning.... In second language learning research sociocultural theory emphasizes the role that social interaction plays in learning and the nature of language as a communicative activity rather than as a formal linguistic system (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 536).

Teacher education

The intentional and unintentional curricula, instructional settings, and experiences that enable teachers to promote learning and change in others (Collins & O'Brien, 2003, p. 349).

Teaching practice

Also practicum, practice teaching (in teacher education) opportunities provided for a student teacher to gain teaching experience, usually through working with an experienced teacher- the co-operating teacher- for a period of time by teaching that teacher's class (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 589).

Teaching Styles

Methods, procedures, and strategies in instruction and interpersonal relations that have developed and matured through years of personal and professional experience. Teaching style should not be confused with instructional strategies with explicit objectives, supervised practices, and behavioural expectations that are better suited for industrial or military training (Collins & O'Brien, 2003, p. 350).

Appendixes

Appendix A

Teachers' Practices from their Own Perspective

Workshops and conferences teachers'	Yes	No
attendance	83.33	16.66

Table 01: Conferences and Workshops Teachers' Attendance (see figure 01, p.163)

Appendix B

Teachers' Classroom Practices according to Inspectors' Reports

Classroom Management		Peer Work		Patience and Positive Relationship		Students' Encouragement and Motivation		Classroom Scanning and Monitoring		Effective Communication	
M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
48%	48%	16%	40%	64%	80%	32%	8%	40%	64%	8%	16%

Table 2: Gender- based Teachers' classroom practices according to the inspectors' reports (see figure 2, p. 207)

Appendix C

Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear teacher,

This questionnaire is a part of a scientific research project on English teaching and learning in middle school. It is anonymous, so do not write your name.

Would you please answer the questions honestly? Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Section A

- Gender:
 - Male
 - Female

Section B

1- Why have you chosen teaching as a career?

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2- What is the best thing about the job?

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3- What does the classroom represent to you?

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4- To what extent does the physical environment of the classroom affect your behaviour?

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Section C

1- Do you attend the weekly seminars and conferences organized by your institutions?

- Yes
- No

2- What do these seminars and conferences provide you with?

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

Appendixes

- 3- If given the opportunity, what changes would you bring to your professional development? Why?

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Section D

- 1- What atmosphere do you think you create by being in the classroom? Do you produce

- energy,
- enthusiasm,
- uncertainty
- doubt?

- 2- How often do you use humour in the classroom?

- a) Always
- b) Often
- c) Sometimes
- d) Rarely
- e) Never

- 3- How often do you scan the room to spot those struggling or going off-task?

- a) Always
- b) Often
- c) Sometimes
- d) Rarely
- e) Never

- 4- Do you consider that your comments have an impact on all your students, including those within listening distance (those you address indirectly)?

- Yes
- No

5- Do you make comments about a good work

- a) to push towards improvements
- b) to celebrate the success?

6- Do you praise

- a) the person
- b) just the work

7- What methods of praise do you use to encourage students?

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.....

8- What methods of correction do you use when dealing with inappropriate behaviour?

.....

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.....

.....

9- What form does your detention take? Is it viewed as

- a) a time of punishment
- b) a time of reflection and rebuilding?

10- When talking with a student, do you see them

- a) as they are
- b) as what they can become?

11- Comments

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THANK YOU FOR KINDLY ANSWERING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

Appendix D
Pupils' Questionnaire

Dear pupil,

This questionnaire is a part of a research project on English learning and teaching in middle school. Please answer the questions without writing your name.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Section A

- 1- Class:
- 2- Is your teacher male or female?
 - Male
 - Female

Section B

B₁

- 1- When upset, does your teacher use appropriate or inappropriate language?
 - a) Appropriate
 - b) Inappropriate

- 2- When you get with your teacher in the classroom, do you feel safe or threatened (anxious, under pressure, afraid...etc)?
 - a) Safe
 - b) Threatened

3- What does he/she do to make you feel safe or threatened?

Safe	Threatened

B₂

1- Does your teacher use motivating words like “excellent, very good...”?

- Yes
- No

2- How often does your teacher ask you to do the activities individually, in pairs, and in group?

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Individual work					
Pair work					
Group work					

3- When you ask your teacher for clarifications, does he/she welcome your request?

- Yes
- No

4- Are these clarifications made in

- a simple input
- an input that is beyond your ability?

5- Does your teacher listen to and understand your concerns and problems that you have inside the classroom?

- Yes
- No

- 6- Does your teacher listen to and understand your concerns and problems that you have outside the classroom?
- Yes
 - No
- 7- What kind of relationship has your teacher built with you?
- Good and close relationship
 - Distant relationship
- 8- To help you understand quickly and easily, does your teacher use different voice tones and body language such as facial expression, hands...etc?
- Yes
 - No
- 9- If yes, how often does he/ she use them?
- a) Always
 - b) Often
 - c) Sometimes
 - d) Rarely
- 10-Does your teacher treat all the students the same way?
- Yes
 - No
- 11-Does your teacher smile and tell funny things like jokes?
- Yes
 - No

THANK YOU FOR KINDLY ANSWERING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

Appendix E

استبيان للتلاميذ

هذا الاستبيان جزء من مشروع البحث الذي يصب في إطار تدريس و تعليم اللغة الانجليزية في الطور المتوسط. من فضلك أجب على الأسئلة بدون ذكر الاسم.

الجزء (أ)

1-القسم

2-هل يدرسك أستاذ أم أستاذة؟

أستاذ أستاذة

الجزء (ب)

1- ما نوع أسلوب اللغة الذي يستعمله أستاذك في حالة غضب؟

لائق غير لائق

2-عند دخولك إلى القسم مع الأستاذ (ة) هل تحس بالأمان أو بالتهديد (قلق، ضغط، خوف..الخ

الأمان التهديد

3-بماذا يقوم أستاذك ليجعلك تحس بالأمان أو التهديد؟

التهديد	الأمان

الجزء (ب2)

1- هل يستعمل أستاذك/أستاذتك كلمات تحفيزية مثل " ممتاز، جيد جدا....الخ"

نعم لا

2- كم مرة يطلب منكم الأستاذ القيام بالتمارين فرديا، زوجيا أو على شكل أفواج؟

أبدا	نادرا	أحيانا	غالبا	دائما	
					فرديا
					زوجيا
					على شكل أفواج

3- عندما تطلب من أستاذك/أستاذتك توضيحات، هل يرحب بطلبك؟

نعم لا

4- هل هذه التوضيحات تكون بطريقة مبسطة أو بطريقة التي تفوق قدراتك؟

طريقة مبسطة تفوق قدراتك

5- هل يستمع أستاذك و يتفهم انشغالات التلاميذ و مشاكلهم التي تحدث داخل القسم؟

نعم لا

6- هل يستمتع أستاذك و يتفهم انشغالات التلاميذ و مشاكلهم التي تحدث خارج القسم؟

نعم لا

7- ما هو نوع العلاقة التي بناها الأستاذ معكم؟

علاقة جيدة و وطيدة علاقة غير وطيدة

8 فهمون - هل يستعمل أستاذك نغمات صوتية مختلفة و حركات و تعابير الوجه و اليدين لكي بسرعة و بسهولة؟

نعم لا

9- إن كان الجواب نعم، كم من مرة يستعملهم أستاذك؟

دائما غالبا أحيانا نادرا

10- هل يتعامل أستاذك بنفس الطريقة مع كل التلاميذ؟

نعم لا

11- هل يبتسم أستاذك و يقول لكم أشياء مضحكة مثل نكت؟

نعم لا

شكرا جزيلاً على تعاونك.

Appendix F

Inspectors' Questionnaire

Dear inspector,

This questionnaire is a part of a scientific research project on English teaching and learning in middle school. It principally focuses on both male and female teachers' behaviour and classroom practices. Would you please answer the questions honestly?

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Based on your experience and in reference to your teachers observation, please put a tick mark (✓) in the right place.

	Questions	Always		Sometimes		Occasionally		Never	
		M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Classroom routines	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are the classroom routines established to address safety and effective learning – by the way students enter/leave and the way lessons begin/end? 								
Leadership	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does the teacher show leadership, control and inspire confidence throughout the lesson? • Is the teacher able to adapt the leadership style to meet the situation? 								

Appendixes

Mentoring	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the teacher aware of the needs of the students and able to mentor them through their development socially and emotionally? 									
Coaching	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the teacher aware of the abilities of the students and able to coach them to reach their full potential as individuals and as a class? • Does the coaching relate to whole-school development as well as classroom and individual development? 									
Vision-target	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the teacher setting a vision for the class and individuals that will keep them focused and aspiring and doing their best? • Is the target-setting appropriate for the class and the individuals? 									

N.B: M= Male; F= Female

THANK YOU FOR KINDLY ANSWERING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

Appendix G

Allen’s (2014) Emotional intelligence classroom checklist

Teacher_____ Subject_____

Class_____ Date_____

	Questions	Always	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
Welcome and introduction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the teacher welcoming and positive? • Greeting students by name? • Smiling? • Is the introduction set at a level that will interest the students? 				
Layout-clean/ tidy/organised	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the classroom tidy and clean? • Are the desk and chairs neat and ready to be occupied? • Are tables and seating arrangements varied to suit different teaching strategies in order to enhance learning? • Is the teacher’s desk free from unnecessary clutter? • Are the books and other working material to hand and ready to use, with relevant folders and handouts ready? 				

Heating	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the heating appropriate for a working environment? 				
Lighting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the lighting adequate for the lesson? • Is it able to be adjusted to meet the needs of presentations? • Are the bulbs working? 				
Displays	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are the displays relevant and up to date? • Do they show a variety of work and abilities? • Do they inspire/stimulate curiosity and enthusiasm for the subject? • Can they be used as encouragement for others? 				
Ventilation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is ventilation adequate ? • Can the windows be opened if need be? • Is the air fresh and free from odours? 				
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What atmosphere is created by the students and the teacher? 				

<p>Emotional atmosphere</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is it friendly, work-like, professional? • Is it one in which learning can take place? • Do comments or language that is belittling or sarcastic get dealt with in a constructive way? • Are conversations and comments that are encouraging recognized and commented on? 				
<p>Safety</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the emotional as well as the physical safety of the students taken into account through the lesson? • Do instructions include relevant safety talks, taking into account the emotional safety of students? 				
<p>Care</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the emotional well-being of students taken into account when delivering instructions? • Are students encouraged to consider the possibilities of their own ability in overcoming difficult topics? • Do students think that teachers treat them fairly? 				

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is language used in a way that builds relationships and raises students' self-esteem (language of hope, success and possibility)? • Are students encouraged to be supportive of each other? 				
Relevance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the lesson relevant to the situations that students are facing or will face in later parts of their lives? • Can the lesson be linked to emotional development as well as academic and practical aspects of learning? 				
Encouragement / praise	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the encouragement and praise ongoing and maintained? • Is the encouragement and praise commensurate with the level and ability of the students and for the work accomplished (frequently used but not indiscriminately)? • Is the encouragement/praise linked to social and emotional as well as academic practice? 				
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the teacher able to maintain positivity 				

<p>Positivity</p>	<p>throughout the lesson, especially when dealing with behavioural issues?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does the teacher encourage the positive atmosphere that has been developed to be continued on to the next lesson or the rest of the day? • Is the teacher aware of the different levels of positive behaviour among students? • Is there a consistency of praise and addressing behaviour issues? 				
<p>Emotional intelligence development</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Was an emotional as well as social development (E/S) target set for the lesson along with an academic one? • Are the students aware of the E/S targets that have been set for them through the lesson or term? • Are the E/S aspects referred to through the lesson? • Are situations that arise during the lesson dealt with using E/S learning objectives? 				
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the delivery by the teacher in line with the 				

<p>Empathy</p>	<p>ability of the students?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the teacher able to be empathetic to the motional stages of the students, to those who are on task as well as those who are off task? • Is the teacher able to alter their approach to the changes that are taking place within the emotions of the students? 				
<p>Tone</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is tone of voice used to control the mood, learning and atmospheres within the class to maintain a positive outcome? • Does the teacher change the tone in an effective way for the message being delivered? • Is the tone used to affect speed, concentration, empathy? 				
<p>Body language</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does the teacher use body language effectively by use of hands, ositioning and movement? • Does the teacher make eye contact with the students? • Is the teacher's body language open and 				

	<p>welcoming?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does the teacher move around the room effectively and use positioning to help with concentration and attention? • Does the teacher use facial expressions and ‘the stare’ to control when appropriate? 				
Conversation/ relationship building	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does the teacher use conversation to get to know students so as to help with relationship building? • Is there a good exchange of openness that helps with bonding? 				
Direction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does the pace and direction keep the students attentive? • Is the direction and ultimate goal of the lesson kept in mind through the tasks being done? • Are students given regular and appropriate feedback in terms of their progress and next steps? 				
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are the classroom routines established to address safety and effective learning – by 				

<p>Classroom routines</p>	<p>the way students enter/leave and the way lessons begin/end?</p>				
<p>Peripheral vision and hearing</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does the teacher keep an eye upon the class regularly, scanning it to look out for possible problems and issues? • Do comments and questions get listened to and, where relevant, responded to? 				
<p>Leadership</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does the teacher show leadership, control and inspire confidence throughout the lesson? • Is the teacher able to adapt the leadership style to meet the situation? 				
<p>Mentoring</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the teacher aware of the needs of the students and able to mentor them through their development socially and emotionally? 				
<p>Coaching</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the teacher aware of the abilities of the students and able to coach them to reach their full potential as individuals and as a class? • Does the coaching relate to whole-school development as well as 				

Appendixes

	classroom and individual development?				
Vision-target	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the teacher setting a vision for the class and individuals that will keep them focused and aspiring and doing their best? • Is the target-setting appropriate for the class and the individuals? 				
Totals					

Appendix H

Allen’s (2014) Adapted Emotional intelligence classroom checklist

Teacher-----Subject-----Gender-----

Class----- Date-----

Section A: Classroom Physical Environment

	Questions	Always	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
Heating	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the heating appropriate for a working environment? 				
Lighting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the lighting adequate for the lesson? • Is it able to be adjusted to meet the needs of presentations? • Are the bulbs working? 				
Ventilation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is ventilation adequate ? • Can the windows be opened if need be? • Is the air fresh and free from odours? 				

Section B: Emotional Classroom Practices

	Questions	Always	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never
Welcome and introduction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the teacher welcoming and positive? • Greeting students by name? • Smiling? • Is the introduction set at a level that will interest the students? 				
Layout-clean/ tidy/organised	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the classroom tidy and clean? • Are the desk and chairs neat and ready to be occupied? • Are tables and seating arrangements varied to suit different teaching strategies in order to enhance learning? • Is the teacher’s desk free from unnecessary clutter? • Are the books and other working material to hand and ready to use, with relevant folders and handouts ready? 				
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What atmosphere is created by the students 				

<p>Emotional atmosphere</p>	<p>and the teacher?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is it friendly, work-like, professional? • Is it one in which learning can take place? • Do comments or language that is belittling or sarcastic get dealt with in a constructive way? • Are conversations and comments that are encouraging recognised and commented on? 				
<p>Safety</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the emotional as well as the physical safety of the students taken into account, through the lesson? • Do instructions include relevant safety talks, taking into account the emotional safety of students? 				
<p>Care</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the emotional well-being of students taken into account when delivering instructions? • Are students encouraged to consider the possibilities of their own ability in overcoming difficult topics? • Do students think that teachers treat them 				

	<p>fairly?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is language used in a way that builds relationships and raises students' self-esteem (language of hope, success and possibility)? • Are students encouraged to be supportive of each other? 				
<p>Relevance</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the lesson relevant to the situations that students are facing or will face in later parts of their lives? • Can the lesson be linked to emotional development as well as academic and practical aspects of learning? 				
<p>Encouragement /praise</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the encouragement and praise ongoing and maintained? • Is the encouragement and praise commensurate with the level and ability of the students and for the work accomplished (frequently used but not indiscriminately)? • Is the encouragement/ praise linked to social and emotional as well as academic practice? 				

<p>Positivity</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the teacher able to maintain positivity throughout the lesson, especially when dealing with behavioural issues? • Does the teacher encourage the positive atmosphere that has been developed to be continued on to the next lesson or the rest of the day? • Is the teacher aware of the different levels of positive behaviour among students? • Is there a consistency of praise and addressing behaviour issues? 				
<p>Emotional intelligence development</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Was an emotional as well as social development (E/S) target set for the lesson along with an academic one? • Are the students aware of the E/S targets that have been set for them through the lesson or term? • Are the E/S aspects referred to through the lesson? • Are situations that arise during the lesson dealt with using E/S 				

	learning objectives?				
Empathy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is the delivery by the teacher in line with the ability of the students? • Is the teacher able to be empathetic to the emotional stages of the students, to those who are on task as well as those who are off task? • Is the teacher able to alter their approach to the changes that are taking place within the emotions of the students? 				
Tone	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is tone of voice used to control the mood, learning and atmospheres within the class to maintain a positive outcome? • Does the teacher change the tone in an effective way for the message being delivered? • Is the tone used to affect speed, concentration, empathy? 				

<p>Body language</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does the teacher use body language effectively by use of hands, positioning and movement? • Does the teacher make eye contact with the students? • Is the teacher’s body language open and welcoming? • Does the teacher move around the room effectively and use positioning to help with concentration and attention? • Does the teacher use facial expressions and ‘the stare’ to control when appropriate? 				
<p>Conversation/ relationship building</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does the teacher use conversation to get to know students so as to help with relationship building? • Is there a good exchange of penness that helps with bonding? 				
<p>Direction</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does the pace and direction keep the students attentive? • Is the direction and ultimate goal of the lesson kept in mind through the tasks being 				

Appendixes

	<p>done?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are students given regular and appropriate feedback in terms of their progress and next steps? 				
Peripheral vision and hearing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does the teacher keep an eye upon the class regularly, scanning it to look out for possible problems and issues? • Do comments and questions get listened to and, where relevant, responded to? 				
Totals					

Appendix I
Inspectors' Report

République Algérienne Démocratique et Populaire
Ministère de l'Education Nationale

Direction de l'Education

Etablissement :

Wilaya de : Chlef

Commune :

Inspection de l'éducation et de l'enseignement Moyen

Circonscription :

Daïra :

Rapport d'Inspection des Professeurs de l'Enseignement
Moyen

Discipline.....

Année

Scolaire.....

Nom et prénom.....Née.....Etat
civil.....

Date et lieu de naissance.....Nationalité.....

Grade.....Echelon.....Ancienneté dans l'échelon.....

Dernier poste occupé.....Du.....au.....

Date d'affectation au poste actuel.....Ancienneté générale dans l'enseignement.....

Dernière inspection subie le..... Note obtenue.....

Titres et Diplômes

Nature des titres	Lieu d'obtention	Date	Rang
.....
.....
.....

Date de l'inscription.....Durée de la séance.....

La classe.....Nombre d'élèves : inscrits :.....Présents :.....

La salle se prête-elle à l'enseignement donné :.....

Nature de l'exercice :.....

Cahierjournal:.....

Fiches :

Progression:.....

Moyen et matériel d'enseignement:.....

Cahier de texte (tenue et contrôle):.....

Cahier des élèves (tenue et contrôle):.....

Organisation en groupes de travaux dirigés:.....

Evaluation du travail scolaire: devoirs écrits, fréquence, contrôle, conservation des copies, notes attribuées au élèves:.....

Rapport Pédagogique

Film of the lesson:

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Comments and advice:

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.....
.....

Conclusion.....

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.....
.....

Note obtenue (en chiffre).....

A:..... Le:.....

(en lettre).....

L'EEM:.....

Lu et pris copie le:.....

Emargement du professeur

Cachet et signature

Appendix J

Marshall's Teacher Evaluation Rubrics

A. Planning and preparation for learning

- Knows the subject matter well and has a good grasp of child development and how students learn.
- Plans the year so students will meet state standards and be ready for external assessments.
- Plans most curriculum units backwards with standards, state tests, and some of Bloom's levels in mind.
- Plans on-the-spot and unit assessments to measure student learning.
- Anticipates misconceptions and confusions that students might have.
- Designs lessons focused on measurable outcomes aligned with unit goals and state standards.
- Designs lessons that are relevant, motivating, and likely to engage students in active learning.
- Designs lessons that use an effective, multicultural mix of materials.
- Designs lessons that target diverse learning needs, styles, and interests.
- Organizes classroom furniture, materials, and displays to support unit and lesson goals.

B. Classroom management

Clearly communicates and consistently enforces high standards for student behaviour.

- Is fair and respectful toward students and builds positive relationships.
- Commands respect and refuses to tolerate disruption.
- Fosters positive interactions among students and teaches useful social skills.
- Teaches routines and has students maintain them all year.
- Develops students' self-discipline and teaches them to take responsibility for their own actions.

- Has a repertoire of discipline moves and can capture and maintain students' attention.
- Maximizes academic learning time through coherence, lesson momentum, and smooth transitions.
- Is a confident, dynamic presence and nips most discipline problems in the bud.
- Uses incentives wisely to encourage and reinforce student cooperation.

C. Delivery of instruction

- Conveys to students, this is important, you can do it, and I'm not going to give up on you.
- Tells students that it's okay to make mistakes; effective effort, not innate ability, is the key.
- Gives students a clear sense of purpose by posting the unit's essential questions and the lesson's goals.
- Activates students' prior knowledge and hooks their interest in each unit and lesson.
- Uses clear explanations, appropriate language, and good examples to present material.
- Orchestrates effective strategies, materials, and classroom groupings to foster student learning.
- Has students actively think about, discuss, and use the ideas and skills being taught.
- Differentiates and scaffolds instruction to accommodate most students' learning needs.
- Is flexible about modifying lessons to take advantage of teachable moments.
- Has students sum up what they have learned and apply it in a different context.

D. Monitoring, assessment, and follow-up

- Posts clear criteria for proficiency, including rubrics and exemplars of student work.
- Diagnoses students' knowledge and skills up front and makes small adjustments based on the data.
- Frequently checks for understanding and gives students helpful information if they seem confused.

Appendixes

- Has students set goals, self-assess, and know where they stand academically at all times.
- Regularly posts students' work to make visible and celebrate their progress with respect to standards.
- Uses data from interim assessments to adjust teaching, re-teach, and follow up with failing students.
- Takes responsibility for students who are not succeeding and gives them extra help.
- When necessary, refers students for specialized diagnosis and extra help.
- Analyses data from assessments, draws conclusions, and shares them appropriately.
- Reflects on the effectiveness of lessons and units and continuously works to improve them.

E. Family and community outreach

- Communicates respectfully with parents and is sensitive to different families' culture and values.
- Shows parents a genuine interest and belief in each child's ability to reach standards.
- Gives parents clear, succinct expectations for student learning and behaviour for the year.
- Promptly informs parents of behaviour and learning problems, and also updates parents on good news.
- Updates parents on the unfolding curriculum and suggests ways to support learning at home.
- Assigns appropriate homework, holds students accountable for turning it in, and gives feedback.
- Responds promptly to parent concerns and makes parents feel welcome in the classroom.
- Uses conferences and report cards to give parents feedback on their children's progress.
- Tries to contact all parents and is tenacious in contacting hard-to-reach parents.
- Reaches out to families and community agencies to bring in volunteers and additional resources.

F. Professional responsibilities

- Has very good attendance.
- Is punctual and reliable with paperwork, duties, and assignments; keeps accurate records.
- Demonstrates professional demeanour and maintains appropriate boundaries.
- Is ethical and above-board, uses good judgment, and maintains confidentiality with student records.
- Shares responsibility for grade-level and school wide activities and volunteers to serve on committees.
- Is a positive team player and contributes ideas, expertise, and time to the overall mission of the school.
- Keeps the administration informed about concerns and asks for help when it's needed.
- Listens thoughtfully to other viewpoints and responds constructively to suggestions and criticism.
- Collaborates with colleagues to plan units, share teaching ideas, and look at student work.
- Seeks out effective teaching ideas from colleagues, supervisors, workshops, reading, and the internet.

Appendix K

Academy's Authorisation

317.8

الجمهورية الجزائرية الديمقراطية الشعبية
وزارة التربية الوطنية

الجمهورية الجزائرية الديمقراطية الشعبية
وزارة التربية الوطنية
مديرية التربية لولاية الشلف
الأمانة العامة
الرقم 696/ع. 2018

الرقم: 119
التاريخ: 2019/02/05

مدير التربية
الى
السيدة نعيمة ايدو
استاذة بجامعة حسيبة
بن بوعلي الشلف

الموضوع: ترخيص .
المرجع: إرسالكم بتاريخ 04/12/2018

ردا على ارسالكم المدون مرجعا والمتعلق موضوعا بالترخيص لكم من اجل حضور دروس في اللغة الانجليزية ضمن اقسام المؤسسات التربوية (الطور المتوسط) والاتي اسمائها :

1-متوسطة شريف جبور
2-متوسطة خالدي بن علي
3-متوسطة كيوار صالح

يشرفني ان اوافيكم بموافقتي لما تنوون القيام به شريطة التنسيق مع مدرء المتوسطات لوضع الترتيبات اللازمة لهذا الغرض من حيث الحضور حصّة مع استاذ المادة اخرى مع استاذة للمادة حسب المؤسسات المذكور اعلاه ويكون ذلك يومي الاربعاء و الخميس انطلاقا من الفترة الثانية للموسم الدراسي

نسخة محولة
السادة مديري المتوسطات
شريف جبور/خالدي بن علي /كيوار صالح

الشلف في :
مدير التربية
عن مديرية التربية الشلف
02

مديرية التربية لولاية الشلف - الأمانة العامة
العنوان: الحي الإداري لولاية الشلف - الهاتف 027.77.32.54 الفاكس 027.77.32.54
البريد الإلكتروني: chlefde02sec.gen@gmail.com

الملخص

مع تغيير مفهوم التعليم مؤخراً من " الذهني " إلى " العاطفي "، يبدو أن المعلمين أصبحوا أكثر خضوعاً للمساءلة من أي وقت مضى. تهدف هذه الرسالة مسألة الذكاء العاطفي في السياق الجزائري. وهي تسعى إلى معرفة ما إذا كان مدرسو اللغة الإنجليزية في المدارس الإعدادية أذكى عاطفياً، وتبحث مدى تأثير نوع الجنس على ممارستهم العاطفية في الفصول الدراسية. وأجريت الدراسة بمشاركة ستة مدرسين للغة الإنجليزية من ثلاث مدارس متوسطة مختلفة في منطقة الشلف، و 218 تلميذاً من هذه المدارس الثلاث، وأربعة مفتشي اللغة الإنجليزية. وجمع البيانات، استخدمت ثلاث تقنيات، واستبيان موجه إلى المدرسين وتلاميذهم ومفتشي اللغة الإنجليزية؛ وخصص تتضمن ملاحظة الأساتذة في القسم، معتمدين على قائمة مرجعية للاستخبارات العاطفية مستوحات من قائمة ألان (2014)؛ وتحليل وثائق التقارير الرسمية للمفتشين، التي تعتمد على لائحة تقييم المعلمين لمارشال (2009)، التي تحصلنا عليها من مديرية التربية لولاية الشلف. وفي محاولة لتحليل البيانات بأكبر قدر ممكن من الموثوقية، استخدمنا مجموعة من النهج والأساليب. وبالنظر إلى أن هذا البحث يستند إلى نهج الأساليب المتعددة، استخدم المحقق النهج والأساليب المناسبة لكل من الأساليب النوعية والكمية. وفيما يتعلق بالطريقة الكمية، مثلاً، استخدمنا التحليل والتفسير الإحصائيين استناداً إلى طرق متنوعة، ولا سيما الرسوم البيانية. وبالإضافة إلى ذلك، ولإعطاء المزيد من الدقة لعملائنا البحثي، قمنا بحساب نتائجنا عن طريق قياسات إحصائية مختلفة هي " النمط السائد " و " المتوسط ". وعلاوة على ذلك، وبغية تحويل البيانات النوعية إلى بيانات كمية، لجأنا إلى نهج تحليل المحتوى. وبالإشارة إلى البيانات الناقصة التي صودفت أثناء تحليل البيانات، إعتدنا على نهج الحذف على القائمة الذي يقترح تحليل الحالات التي تتضمن بيانات كاملة فقط. وكشفت نتائج هذه الدراسة أن معظم مدرسي اللغة الإنجليزية في التعليم المتوسط يجهلون الجانب العاطفي كوسيلة لتحسين تعليمهم. وكشفت النتائج أيضاً أن هؤلاء المعلمين أذكى عاطفياً ولكن إلى حد ما فقط. وفيما يتعلق بنوع

الجنس، تتناقض النتائج مع الاعتقاد بأن المرأة أكثر ذكاء عاطفيا من الرجل. وعلى الرغم من أنه تبين أن المعلمات في اللغة الانجليزية يتفوقن على نظرائهن الذكور في بعض الممارسات العاطفية في القسم، فقد أفيد بأن الرجال يتفوقون في ممارسات أخرى مثل " التفاعل الاجتماعي والعلاقات " مع التلاميذ و " تحفيزهم في القسم " . واستناداً إلى هذه النتائج، قُدمت توصيات إلى صناع القرار و المسؤولين والمدرسين لزيادة وعي المدرسين بالذكاء العاطفي و أهميته في التعليم.

الكلمات الرئيسية: الذكاء العاطفي؛ وعي المعلمين بالذكاء العاطفي؛ أساتذة اللغة الانكليزية في الطور المتوسط؛ الممارسات التعليمية العاطفية ونوع الجنس؛ النظام التعليمي الجزائري.