

People' Democratic Republic of Algeria
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research
Blida2 Lounici Ali University
Faculty of Letters and Languages
Department of English



Emotional Intelligence as a Predictor of EFL Learners' Productive Skills Achievement

**The Case of Third Year EFL Students and Teachers in the Department of
English at the University Centre of Mila**

**Thesis Submitted to the Department of English in Candidacy for the Degree of Doctorate
LMD in Didactics of Foreign Languages**

Submitted by: Houssam MERMOUL

Supervised by: Dr. Imene BILOUK

Examination Panel

Chair	Prof. Dalila BRAKNI	Professor	Blida 2 University
Supervisor	Dr. Imene BILOUK	MCA	Blida 2 University
Examiner	Prof. Ali Mohamed CHAABANE	Professor	Blida 2 University
Examiner	Dr. Nour el Houda ATHAMNA	MCA	Blida 2 University
Examiner	Prof. Hacene HAMADA	Professor	ENS Constantine
Examiner	Dr. Amel ALOUACHE	MCA	Constantine 1 University

2023/2024

Dedication

To the memory of my grandmother

To my beloved parents Larbi and Khedidja

To my dearest sisters Sarah and Loubna

To my brothers Mohamed and Abderahim

Acknowledgment

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my dear supervisor **Dr. Imene BILOUK** for her unmatched kind-heartedness, unconditional support, and invaluable guidance. I have been truly fortunate to have her by my side all along the PhD journey, and I hereby wish her all the best in her professional and personal life.

I would like also to thank **Prof. Dalila BRAKNI, Prof. Mohamed Ali CHAABNE, Dr. Nour el Houda ATHAMNA, Prof. Hacene HAMADA,** and **Dr. Amel ALOUACHE** who agreed to evaluate my work and to provide their constructive criticism.

My sincere thanks go to the students and the teachers of the University Centre of Mila for their significant contribution to the completion of this work.

Abstract

The present study sets out to explore whether students' emotional intelligence is a predictor of productive skills achievement among third year students of English at the University Centre of Mila, Algeria. Further, it aims at unraveling students' attitudes and teachers' perceptions towards the role of both students' and teachers' emotional intelligence in contributing to productive skills achievement. To this end, a convergent mixed methods design was adopted. The quantitative tools included the regression test, students' questionnaire 'A' and students' questionnaire 'B', conducted with 117 students, while the qualitative instruments subsumed writing teachers' interview and speaking teachers' interview being carried out with eleven teachers in each. To analyze the regression test, simple linear regression was deployed, and it revealed that students' emotional intelligence is a significant predictor of writing and speaking scores. In turn, the descriptive statistics used to analyze the questionnaires revealed that the students hold a combination of neutral and positive attitudes towards the role of students' and teachers' emotional intelligence in productive skills achievement. As for the analysis of interviews, qualitative framework analysis was adopted. The results indicated that speaking and writing teachers perceive students' emotional intelligence to be a significant contributor to productive skills achievement as it has positive bearings on students' linguistic, cognitive, psychological and affective aspects leading to achievement. In parallel, teachers' emotional intelligence is deemed important offering the students with linguistic, cognitive, rapport, and emotional support. Based on this, it is implicated that emotional intelligence should be emphasized in the teaching and learning process as part of both students' and teachers' competence.

Key words: emotional intelligence, productive skills achievement, predictor, attitudes, perceptions

Contents

Dedication	i
Acknowledgment	ii
Abstract	iii
Contents.....	iv
List of Figures	xiii
List of Tables.....	xv
List of Abbreviations and Acronyms.....	xix
General Introduction	1
1. Background of the Study	1
2. Statement of the Problem	3
3. Aims of the Study	5
4. Research Questions	5
5. Means of the Research	5
6. Significance of the Study.....	7
7. Structure of the Thesis	7

CHAPTER ONE

EFL Learners' Writing Skills: Theoretical Considerations

Introduction	10
1.1. Defining Writing.....	10
1.2. Types of Writing.....	11
1.2.1. Expository.....	12
1.2.2. Descriptive	12
1.2.3. Narrative.....	13
1.3. Forms of Writing.....	13
1.3.1. Sentences.....	13
1.3.2. Paragraphs	14
1.3.3. Essays.....	15
1.4. Traits of Writing.....	17
1.4.1. Ideas	17
1.4.2. Word Choice	18
1.4.3. Sentence Fluency.....	18

1.4.4. Voice.....	18
1.4.5. Organization.....	19
1.4.6. Conventions.....	19
1.4.7. Presentation.....	20
1.5. Teaching Second Language Writing	20
1.6. Approaches to Teaching Writing.....	22
1.6.1. Product-Based Approach.....	23
1.6.2. Process-Based Approach.....	24
1.6.2.1. Planning	26
1.6.2.2. Drafting.....	27
1.6.2.3. Revising.....	27
1.6.2.4. Editing.....	28
1.6.3. Genre-Based Approach.....	29
1.6.4. The Process-Genre Approach.....	31
1.7. Learners' Difficulties in the Writing Skill	34
1.7.1. Linguistic Difficulties	34
1.7.2. Cognitive Difficulties	34
1.7.3. Psychological Difficulties	35
1.8. Assessing Writing	35
Conclusion.....	37

CHAPTER TWO

An Overview of EFL Speaking Skills

Introduction	39
2.1. Defining Speaking	39
2.2. Speaking as a Language learning Skill.....	40
2.3. Components of the Speaking Skill	43
2.3.1. Pronunciation.....	43
2.3.2. Grammar	44
2.3.4. Vocabulary	44
2.3.4. Fluency.....	45
2.3.5. Comprehension	45
2.4. The Speaking Competence	46
2.4.1. Knowledge of Language and Discourse.....	48
2.4.2. Core Speaking Skills.....	48

2.4.3. Communication Strategies.....	49
2.5. The Teaching-Speaking Cycle.....	50
2.5.1. Focus Learners' Attention on Speaking	52
2.5.2. Provide Input and/ or Guide planning	52
2.5.3. Conduct Speaking Tasks.....	52
2.5.4. Focus on Language Discourse /Skills/ Strategies	53
2.5.5. Repeat Speaking Tasks	53
2.5.6. Direct Learners' Reflection on Learning	53
2.5.7. Facilitate Feedback on Learning.....	54
2.6. Activities to Teach Speaking	54
2.6.1. Discussions.....	54
2.6.2. Role Plays	55
2.6.3. Speeches	56
2.6.4. Interviews	56
2.7. EFL Learners' Difficulties in Speaking	57
2.7.1. Inhibition	58
2.7.2. Nothing to Say (Lack of Topical Knowledge)	58
2.7.3. Low or Uneven Participation.....	58
2.7.4. Mother Tongue Use	59
2.8. Factors Affecting Learners' Achievement in Speaking.....	59
2.8.1. Performance Conditions	60
2.8.2. Listening Ability	61
2.8.3. Topical Knowledge	61
2.8.4. Feedback during Speaking Activities	62
2.8.5. Affective Factors	62
2.9. Assessing Speaking.....	63
Conclusion.....	66

CHAPTER THREE

Understanding Emotional Intelligence: A Theoretical Overview

Introduction	67
3.1. Definition of EI	67
3.2. Models of EI.....	70
3.2.1. Ability Models	70
3.2.1.1. Salovey and Mayer's Original Model.....	70

1.2.1.1.1. Appraisal and Expression of Emotions	72
3.2.1.1.2. Regulation of Emotions.....	72
3.2.1.1.3. Utilization of Emotions	73
3.2.1.2. Salovey and Mayer’s Revised Model.....	73
3.2.1.2.1. Perceiving Emotions.....	75
3.2.1.2.2. Using Emotions to Facilitate Thought	75
3.2.1.2.3. Understanding Emotions	76
3.2.1.2.4. Managing Emotions	76
3.2.2. Mixed Models of EI	77
3.2.2.1. Bar-On’s Emotional-Social Intelligence Model.....	77
3.2.2.1.1. Intrapersonal Skills	78
3.2.2.1.2. Interpersonal Skills	78
3.2.2.1.3. Adaptability	79
3.2.2.1.4. Stress Management	79
3.2.2.1.5. General Mood	80
3.2.2.2. Goleman’s Model	80
3.2.2.2.1. Self-Awareness.....	83
3.2.2.2.2. Self-Management.....	83
3.2.2.2.3. Social Awareness	84
3.2.2.2.4. Relationship Management	84
3.2.3. Trait Emotional Intelligence Models	85
3.3. Measuring EI	88
3.3.1. Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT)	89
3.3.2. Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT)	90
3.3.3. Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i)	91
3.3.4. Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue)	93
3.4. Developing EI.....	94
3.5. EI in Higher Education.....	96
3.6. EI, Language Learning, and PSA: A Review of Previous Studies.....	97
Conclusion.....	106

CHAPTER FOUR

Research Methodology

Introduction	107
4.1. Research Design.....	107
4.1.1. Mixed Method Research	107
4.1.2. Concurrent Triangulation Design	108
4.1.3. Rationale for the Selected Design	110
4.2. Data Collection Instruments	112
4.2.1. Quantitative Research Instruments	112
4.2.1.1. The EI-PSA Regression Test.....	112
4.2.1.1.1. Scores of the EI Test.....	112
4.2.1.1.3. Scores of the Writing Exam.....	113
4.2.1.1.2. Scores of the Speaking Exam	114
4.2.1.2. Students' Questionnaire A	115
4.2.1.2.1. Description of Questionnaire A.....	116
4.2.1.2.2. Piloting Questionnaire A	118
4.2.1.2.3. Administration of Questionnaire A	119
4.2.1.3. Students' Questionnaire B	119
4.2.1.3.1. Description of Questionnaire B	119
4.2.1.3.2. Piloting Questionnaire B.....	120
4.2.1.3.3. Administration of Questionnaire B	121
4.2.2. Qualitative Research Instruments	121
4.2.2.1. Writing Teachers' Interview.....	121
4.2.2.1.1. Description of Writing Teachers' Interview	122
4.2.2.1.2. Piloting Writing Teachers' Interview.....	123
4.2.2.1.3. Administration of Writing Teachers' Interview	123
4.2.2.2. Speaking Teachers' Interview	124
4.2.2.2.1. Description of Speaking Teachers' Interview.....	124
4.2.2.2.2. Piloting Speaking Teachers' Interview	125
4.2.2.2.3. Administration of Speaking Teachers' Interview	125
4.3. Research Participants	126
4.3.1. In the Quantitative Part	126
4.3.2. In the Qualitative Part	126
4.4. Analysis of Quantitative Data	127

4.5. Analysis of Qualitative Data.....	129
4.5.1. Framework Analysis.....	129
4.5.1.1. Familiarization	130
4.5.1.2. Identifying a thematic framework.....	131
4.5.1.3. Indexing	133
4.5.1.4. Charting	135
4.5.1.5. Mapping and Interpretation	137
4.6. Ethical Considerations	137
Conclusion.....	138

CHAPTER FIVE

Quantitative Findings

Introduction	139
5.1. Findings from the EI-PSA	139
5.1.1. Normal Distribution of data	140
5.1.1.1. Normality of the EI Data	141
5.1.1.2. Normality of the WA Data	142
5.1.1.3. Normality of the SA Data	143
5.1.2. Regression Analysis of EI and WA	144
5.1.2.1. Checking the Assumptions of Simple Linear Regression.....	144
5.1.2.2. Regression analysis Coefficients and Equation	148
5.1.3. Regression Analysis of EI and SA	149
5.1.3.1. Checking the Assumptions of Simple Linear Regression.....	149
5.1.3.2. Regression analysis Coefficients and Equation	153
5.2. Findings from the Students' Questionnaire A.....	154
5.2.1. Section One: Background Information	154
5.2.3. Section Three: Students' Views of WA.....	160
5.2.4. Section Four: Students' Views of SA	165
5.2.5. Section Five: Students' Emotional Intelligence and WA	169
5.2.6. Section Six: Students' Emotional Intelligence and SA.....	177
5.3. Findings from the Students' Questionnaire B	184
5.3.1. Section One: Teachers' EI and Students' WA.....	184
5.3.2. Section Two: Teachers' EI and Students' SA	193
Conclusion.....	201

CHAPTER SIX

Qualitative Findings

Introduction	202
6.1. Findings of Writing Teachers' Interview	202
6.1.1. Theme One: Aspects of Importance of Students' EI in WA.....	203
6.1.1.1. Direct Aspects.....	203
6.1.1.1.1. Linguistic Aspects.....	203
6.1.1.1.2. Cognitive Aspects	204
6.1.1.2 Indirect Aspects.....	205
6.1.1.2.1. Psychological Aspects.....	205
6.1.1.2.2. Affective Aspects	207
6.1.2. Theme Two: Importance of Teachers' EI in WA.....	208
6.1.2.1. Direct Aspects.....	208
6.1.2.1.1. Linguistic Support.....	208
6.1.2.1.2. Cognitive Support	209
6.1.2.2. Indirect Aspects.....	211
6.1.2.2.1. Rapport Support	211
6.1.2.2.2. Affective Support.....	212
6.2. Findings from the Speaking Teachers' Interview	213
6.2.1. Theme One: Significance of Students' EI in SA	213
6.2.1.1. Direct Aspects.....	214
6.2.1.1.1. Linguistic Aspects.....	214
6.2.1.1.2. Cognitive Aspects	215
6.2.1.2. Indirect Aspects.....	216
6.2.1.2.1. Psychological Aspects.....	216
6.2.1.2.2. Affective Aspects	217
6.2.2. Significance of Teachers EI in SA	219
6.2.2.1. Direct Aspects.....	219
6.2.2.1.1. Linguistic Support.....	219
6.2.2.1.2. Cognitive Support	220
6.2.2.2. Indirect Aspects.....	221
6.2.2.2.1. Rapport Support	221
6.2.2.2.2. Emotional support.....	222
Conclusion.....	223

CHAPTER SEVEN

Discussion, Implications, and Limitations

Introduction	225
6.1. Discussion of Findings.....	225
6.1.1. Research Question One: To what extent does students' EI predict third-year EFL learners' PSA, if at all?	225
6.1.1.1. EI is a Predictor of Students' WA	225
6.1.1.2. EI is a Predictor of Students' SA.....	225
6.1.2. Research Question Two: What are students' attitudes Towards the role of students and teachers' EI competencies in PSA?	226
6.1.2.1. Students' Attitudes Towards the Role of Students' EI in WA	226
6.1.2.2. Students' Attitudes Towards the Role of Students' EI in SA	227
6.1.2.3. Students' Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers' EI in WA.....	229
6.1.2.4. Students' Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers' EI in SA	230
6.1.3. Research Question Three: How do teachers perceive the role of students' and teachers' EI competencies in PSA?	232
6.1.3.1. Writing Teachers' Perceptions of the Significance of Students' EI in WA.....	232
6.1.3.2. Teachers' Perceptions of the Significance of Students' EI in SA	233
6.1.3.3. Writing Teachers' Perceptions of the Significance of Teachers' EI in WA	234
6.1.3.4. Speaking Teachers' Perceptions of the Significance of Teachers' EI in SA.....	236
6.2. Implications of the Study	237
6.2.1. EI as Part of the Students' Competence	237
6.2.2. The Emotionally Intelligent Language Teacher	238
6.2.3. Incorporating EI in Students' Training and Teachers' Professional Development	239
6.2.4. EI, Student-Teacher Rapport, and Classroom Management.....	239
6.2.5. Emotionally Driven Needs Analysis and Curriculum	240
6.3. Limitations of the Study	241
6.4. Call for Further Research	242
Conclusion.....	243
General Conclusion	244
References	248
Appendices	
Appendix A	

Appendix B

Appendix C

Appendix D

Appendix E

List of Figures

Figure 1. The Writing Process	25
Figure 2. Application of the Process Genre Approach	32
Figure 3. Aspects of Second Language Speaking Competence	47
Figure 4. The Teaching-Speaking Cycle	51
Figure 5. Conceptualization of Emotional Intelligence	71
Figure 6. The Mayer and Salovey (1997) Four-Branch Model of Emotional Intelligence (EI)	
Abilities	74
Figure 7. The 15 TEI Facets and their Corresponding Factor	87
Figure 8. Procedures of Implementing a Convergent Design	109
Figure 9. Design of the Study	111
Figure 10. Stages of Framework Analysis.....	130
Figure 11. Histogram of EI Data Normality	141
Figure 12. Histogram of WA Data Normality	142
Figure 13. Histogram of SA Data Normality	143
Figure 14. Simple Scatter with Line of WA by EI	144
Figure 15. Histogram of Normality of Residuals of EI and WA Regression	146
Figure 16. Scatterplot of Standardized Residuals versus Standardized Predicted Values of EI and	
WA Regression	147
Figure 17. Simple Scatter with Line of SA by EI.....	149
Figure 18. Histogram of Normality of Residuals of EI and SA Regression	151
Figure 19. Scatterplot of Standardized Residuals versus Standardized Predicted Values of EI and	
SA Regression	152
Figure 20. Students' Viewpoints Towards the Components of EI.....	155

Figure 21. Students’ Viewpoints Towards the Importance of EI for Life Success157

Figure 22. Students’ Viewpoints Towards the Difficulty of Writing Traits162

Figure 23. Students’ Viewpoints Towards the Factors Affecting WA.....164

Figure 24. Students’ Viewpoints Towards the Barriers to SA166

Figure 25. Students’ Viewpoints Towards the Factors Affecting SA168

List of Tables

Table 1. Spoken and written language: Typical features.....	42
Table 2. Goleman ‘s Four Domains Model of Emotional Intelligence	82
Table 3. Differences between Performance Tests and Self-report Questionnaires	88
Table 4. MSCEIT Factor Structure.....	90
Table 5. EQ-i Composite Scales and Subscales	92
Table 6. Summary Table of Previous Research Studies.....	102
Table 7. Scoring Key of the Writing Exam	113
Table 8. Scoring Key of the Speaking Exam.....	115
Table 9. Duration of Writing Teachers’ Interviews	123
Table 10. Duration of Speaking Teachers’ Interviews	125
Table 11. Demographics of Participants in the Quantitative Part of the Study	126
Table 12. Demographics of Participants in the Qualitative Part of the Study	127
Table 13. Identified Framework for Analysis of Interviews	132
Table 14. Semantic Coding of Framework Categories.....	133
Table 15. Refined framework of Analysis of Interviews	134
Table 16. Coding of Framework Sub categories	134
Table 17. Chart of the Writing Teacher’s Interview	136
Table 18. Chart of the Speaking Teacher’s Interview	136
Table 19. Descriptives of the Variables.....	139
Table 20. Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of EI Data Normality	141
Table 21. Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of WA Data Normality	142
Table 22. Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of SA Data Normality.....	143

Table 23. Residuals Statistics of EI and WA Regression.....	145
Table 24. Model Summary of EI and WA Regression.....	146
Table 25. ANOVA Results of EI and WA Regression.....	148
Table 26. Coefficients of EI and WA Regression	148
Table 27. Residuals Statistics of EI and SA Regression	150
Table 28. Model Summary of EI and SA Regression	151
Table 29. ANOVA Results of EI and SA Regression	153
Table 30. Coefficients of EI and WA Regression	153
Table 31. Students' Viewpoints Towards the Components of EI	155
Table 32. Students' Viewpoints Towards the Importance of EI for Life Success	157
Table 33. Students' Attitudes Towards the importance of EI for Academic Achievement	158
Table 34. Students' Interest in Developing EI	159
Table 35. Students' Attitudes Towards the Difficulty of WA... ..	160
Table 36. Students' Viewpoints Towards the Difficulty of Writing Traits.....	161
Table 37. Students' Viewpoints Towards the Factors Affecting WA.....	163
Table 38. Students' Viewpoints Towards the Difficulty of SA	165
Table 39. Students' Viewpoints Towards the Barriers to SA.....	166
Table 40. Students' Viewpoints Towards the Factors Affecting SA... ..	168
Table 41. Participants' Attitudes Towards the Role of Students' Understanding of Own Emotions in WA	169
Table 42. Participants' Attitudes Towards the Role of Students' Understanding of Other's Emotions in WA.....	171
Table 43. Participants' Attitudes Towards the Role of Students' Control and Management of Emotions in WA.....	172

Table 44. Participants’ Attitudes Towards the Role of Students’ Use of Emotions to Build Social Relationships in WA	174
Table 45. Participants’ Attitudes Towards the Role of Students’ Motivation to Recognize and Manage Emotions in WA	175
Table 46. Participants’ Attitudes Towards the Role of Students’ Understanding of Own Emotions in SA.....	177
Table 47. Participants’ Attitudes Towards the Role of Students’ Understanding of Other’s Emotions in SA	178
Table 48. Participants’ Attitudes Towards the Role of Students’ Control and Management of Emotions in SA	180
Table 49. Participants’ Attitudes Towards the Role of Students’ Use of Emotions to Build Social Relationships in SA.....	181
Table 50. Participants’ Attitudes Towards the Role of Students’ Motivation to Recognize and Manage Emotions in SA	183
Table 51. Participants’ Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers’ Understanding of Own Emotions in WA.....	184
Table 52. Participants’ Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers’ Understanding of Other’s Emotions in WA.....	186
Table 53. Participants’ Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers’ Control and Management of Emotions in WA.....	187
Table 54. Participants’ Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers’ Use of Emotions to Build Social Relationships in WA	189
Table 55. Participants’ Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers’ Motivation to Recognize and Manage Emotions in WA	191

Table 56. Participants' Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers' Understanding of Own Emotions in SA	193
Table 57. Participants' Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers' Understanding of Other's Emotions in SA	194
Table 58. Participants' Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers' Control and Management of Emotions in SA	196
Table 59. Participants' Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers' Use of Emotions to Build Social Relationships in SA.....	197
Table 60. Participants' Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers' Motivation to Recognize and Manage Emotions in SA	199
Table 61. Final Map of Framework Analysis of the Writing Teachers' Interview	202
Table 62. Final Map of Framework Analysis of the Speaking Teachers' Interview.....	213
Table 63. Summary of Students' Attitudes Towards the Role of Students' EI in WA	226
Table 64. Summary of Students' Attitudes Towards the Role of Students' EI in SA.....	227
Table 65. Summary of Students' Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers' EI in WA	229
Table 66. Summary of Students' Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers' EI in SA	230
Table 67. Summary of Writing Teachers' Perceptions of the Significance of Students' EI in WA	232
Table 68. Summary of Speaking Teachers' Perceptions of the Significance of Students' EI in SA	233
Table 69. Summary of Writing Teachers' Perceptions of the Significance of Teachers' EI in WA... ..	234
Table 70. Summary of Speaking Teachers' Perceptions of the Significance of Teachers' EI in SA	236

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

AEI: Ability Emotional Intelligence

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

EI: Emotional Intelligence

ELT: English Language Teaching

F: Frequency

N: Number

P: Participant

PSA: Productive Skills Achievement

SA: Speaking Achievement

TEI: Trait Emotional Intelligence

TEIQUE-SF: Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire- Short Form

WA: Writing Achievement

General Introduction

1. Background of the Study

Learning a language other than one's mother tongue is a convoluted process that involves the combination of a variety of factors differing in nature. In this respect, the main thrust of the English Language Teaching (ELT) enterprise revolves around determining the nature of these factors, how they affect the learning process, and how to invest in them to foster effective learning on the part of the learners. Amongst the most prominent typologies of the abilities required for language learning is the one which divides the factors into cognitive and affective (Kormos & Smith, 2012). According to Richards (2022), as far as developing a second language is concerned, excessive focus on the cognitive aspects of the process leads to the result that the significance of affect is not sufficiently addressed. As such, White (2018) stated that ascribing less attention to cognition and rationality in favor of affect has been perceived as a necessity to be reached through an affective turn in applied linguistics and second language acquisition .

The affective turn has been widely adopted in the field of language learning and teaching making the impact of affect on learners' and teachers' performance a central research area (Pavlenko, 2013; Prior, 2019). Krashen (1982) introduced the affective filter hypothesis which postulated that effective language learning is contingent on the affective state of the learner. The more stable and comfortable the learner is, the more learning is likely to take place. This claim is strongly supported by many scholars including Arnold and Brown (1999), Bao and Liu (2021), and Dörnyei (2005) who underscored that the affective aspect of the language learner is as equally important as the cognitive one, urging research in ELT to show interest in this domain and to investigate it in depth.

In turn, since emotions constitute an integral part of affect (Munezero et al., 2014) , debate has been stirred about the role that emotions have to play in language learning. A variety of research agendas has been established to question the significance of emotions in language learning and to explore the nature of impact they have on the overall performance of learners (Albert, 2023; Cuéllar & Oxford, 2018; Pavlenko, 2011). This being said, Gabryś-Barker and Gałajda (2016) highlighted that excessive focus has been oriented towards the exploration of the major negative emotions impinging on learning and proffering insights as to how to alleviate their negative impact. This is, however, at the expense of the positive emotions that foster learning leading to a palpable gap in addressing the positive emotions involved in development of learners' interlanguage (Budzińska & Majchrzak, 2021; Richards, 2022).

In keeping with the foregoing, focusing on positive emotions adheres to the tenets of positive psychology. The latter refers to a branch in psychology that is based on emphasizing the positive factors leading to success in life in general (Csikszentmihalyi & Nakamura, 2011; Lopez & Snyder, 2009; Peterson, 2006; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000, as cited in MacIntyre & Mercer, 2014). In the context of language learning, positive psychology is deemed a tenable doctrine as it allows for underscoring the power of learners' positive emotions in order for learners and teachers to reinforce them and keep them involved in the teaching / learning process as a potential means to secure the success of the operation (Dewaele et al., 2019).

Questions have arisen as to the existence of any factor of positive psychology that demarcates between people when it comes to dealing with emotional situations more effectively in comparison with others. The remedy that is believed to be possessed by individuals adept at managing emotions to generate effectively intelligent behavior is what is termed emotional intelligence (EI) (Goleman, 2000). It is that part of positive psychology that is linked to

achievement in a variety of domains including academic achievement, occupational performance, job satisfaction, to name but a few (Bar-On, 2010).

As far as language learning is concerned, Albert (2023) indicated that the span of time when the relationship between EI and language skills has been examined is recent. This renders it a major concern for ELT researchers and practitioners. The impact this construct might have on the teaching/ process is a thorny issue especially that it can be linked to students and teachers as well. Therefore, it is of essence to come into grips with the nature of the relationship between students and teachers' EI and language learning through highlighting its relation to the major language skills that learners need to develop.

2. Statement of the Problem

Language learning is set apart as a multifaceted process that involves mastery over the major four language skills (reading, listening, speaking, and writing). These skills are further divided into two main categories: receptive skills including reading and listening, and productive skills including writing and speaking (Harmer, 2006) . As they embody the production of language reflecting the proficiency of learners, the productive skills have for long captured attention in the field of ELT (Hedge, 2000; Lightbown & Spada, 2013). As such, a continual search for the major factors that influence language learners' achievement in speaking and writing is a thorny concern that requires endless research

As it is the case with most of language learners around the globe, EFL students in the department of English at the university Centre of Mila strive to be high achievers in writing and speaking as the major language skills on the basis of which their mastery of the language is gauged. As a result of this, much concern is accorded to the importance of students' factors that

affect productive skills achievement (PSA). In parallel, teachers of speaking and writing are also placed in the limelight as essential contributors to the degree of students' achievement in the skills at issue. In this respect, in the light of the growing interest in EI and its relationship with various fields, this concept is seemingly overlooked in the context of the department of English at the University Centre of Mila.

The research problem around which rotates the current study is that the role of students' and teachers' EI in PSA of the learners in the department of English at the University Centre of Mila is not fully explored. It stems from the researcher's observation as a teacher in this department which demonstrates that attention is not sufficiently attributed to the concept of EI of the students and teachers. Nevertheless, this observation runs counter to what the literature pertinent to this issue has to offer. Afshar et al. (2016), Chen and Zhang (2022), Genç et al. (2016), Pishghadam (2009), and Zarezadeh (2013) emphasized that the role of EI in language learning generally and writing and speaking particularly should be examined to decide upon whether to consider this construct among those skills and competencies that need to be fostered in the students of English.

Linking this call to the context of the study, questions arise as to whether the disparity of EI levels amongst students and teachers of the department of English at the University Centre of Mila can be reflected in the differences the students have at the level of achievement in writing and speaking. In other words, it is questionable whether learners' and teachers' EI has an impact on students' and a dearth of research on the topic is widely felt. Further, given the significance of students and teachers' perceptions in the effectiveness of the teaching process, the way the potential impact of EI on achievement in writing and speaking is perceived among students and teachers is not adequately unraveled. By unraveling this, better grips are sought to be reached as

regards the extent to which EI might contribute to PSA and to quality of the teaching process of speaking and writing. Therefore, as an attempt to make up for the lack characterizing research concerning the relationship at issue within the specific context of the study, the present study is devised.

3. Aims of the Study

Through undertaking this study, it is aimed at unraveling the relationship between students' and teachers' EI and achievement in the productive skills of language. Particularly, the current study sets out to explore:

- The predictive power of EI levels for third year EFL learners' PSA at the University Centre of Mila.
- Students' attitudes towards the role of EI of students and teachers in promoting PSA.
- Teachers' perceptions of the significance of students' and teachers' EI in PSA.

4. Research Questions

- 1- To what extent does third-year EFL students' EI predict their PSA, if at all?
- 2- What are the students' attitudes towards the role of students' and teachers' EI competencies in PSA?
- 3- How do writing and speaking teachers perceive the role of students' and teachers' EI in PSA?

5. Means of the Research

As far as the methodology of the current study is concerned, it is opted for a convergent mixed method design to carry out the research. Achieving the aims of the study requires the

deployment of a quantitative and a qualitative approach to the collection and analysis of the data. The quantitative data are meant to cover the first and the second research questions while the qualitative data are purported to answer the third research question. In light of this, the study makes use of the following research instruments.

a) Quantitative Instruments: the participants in this part include 117 third year students EFL students enrolled in the department of English at the university Centre of Mila. Third year students were selected as they are considered to have more experience in dealing with language productive skills in comparison with first and second year students. This allows them to enrich the current study by sharing their experience serving the aims of the study. They took part as a sample that is conveniently chosen out of a population including 157 students. As such, The 117 students were the participants with whom the study is conducted deploying the following quantitative tools.

- The EI-PSA Regression Test

- Students' Questionnaire A

- Students' Questionnaire B

b) Qualitative Instruments: the participants in this part are 22 teachers were conveniently sampled to take part in the present study by being the informants in the following qualitative tools.

- Writing Teachers' Interview (11 writing teachers)

- Speaking Teachers' Interview (11 speaking teachers)

6. Significance of the Study

The study under consideration is brought to light with an ultimate purpose of enriching the body of knowledge with regard to the major variables of the research: EI and PSA. The significance of this study stems from the perspective that the link between EI and language learning is not sufficiently addressed in the Algerian context in general, and in the context of the University Centre of Mila, in particular. Further, the study is not confined to cast light on students' EI merely; it rather transcends to highlight the significance of teachers' EI in PSA as well. Besides, the study explores students' attitudes and teachers' perceptions towards the aforementioned link which can be looked upon as a substantial means to help conceptualizing the research problem with relation to the specific context of the study. From a methodological standpoint, the combination of quantitative and qualitative data is believed to characterize the study with variety. In turn, the use of regression analysis and framework analysis in the process of data analysis is considered to be rarely implemented in the context of the study. Finally, the exploratory nature of the study can help setting the ground for more research designs and to address the findings in depth.

7. Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is a whole of seven chapters that together combine both the theoretical background and the practical fieldwork of the entire study. For the former, three chapters are devoted to the review of the literature with regard to the main variables of the study: writing achievement (WA), speaking achievement (SA), and EI. As for the latter, four chapters are deployed to cover the method and results obtained in the current study.

The first chapter is devoted to the first productive skill that is the writing skill; it offers a theoretical view of how writing as a language skill is conceptualized in the literature. To this end, the chapter attempts to come into terms with how this skill is defined by reviewing the major forms of writing, most essential characteristics of good writing, and the main difficulties that students encounter to write effectively. Further, the teaching of this skill is also brought to bear within the first chapter; this is through catering for the most ubiquitous approaches to teaching writing in addition to accounting for the basics of effective writing assessment.

Subsequently, the second productive skill, speaking, is examined in the second chapter of this thesis. Just like writing, focus is attributed to providing a comprehensible definition of speaking as a language skill. This entails explaining the building blocks of the speaking competence that students need to develop. Besides, teaching and assessing the speaking skill makes a significant part in this chapter in an attempt to cover the skill from both learning and teaching perspectives.

Chapter three is meant to cover the independent variable of the current study that is EI. It attempts to shed light on the main theories that strive to conceptualize the construct in a detailed manner. Hence, it accounts for the major models that provide insight into defining and measuring the concept. In turn, relationship between EI and language learning is theoretically examined by presenting the previous studies pertinent to the topic.

In the fourth chapter, the adopted research design and data collection tools are fully explained. It incorporates the distinction between the quantitative and qualitative involved in the study by providing the description and administration, piloting, and analysis of the EI-PSA regression test, students' questionnaire 'A', students' questionnaire 'B', writing teachers' interview and speaking teachers' interview.

The fifth chapter offers the presentation of the quantitative findings of the research. It reveals the findings of the simple linear regression that is used to analyze the EI-PSA regression test. It also demonstrates the descriptive statistics utilized in the analysis of the students' questionnaire 'A' and the students' questionnaire 'B'. It offers the mean values through which the scales of the questionnaire are analyzed to determine the nature of the students' attitudes towards the role of students' and teachers' EI in PSA.

Next, the qualitative findings that underpin the research design are revealed in the sixth chapter. As such, the main thrust of this chapter revolves around demonstrating the results of the qualitative framework analysis deployed to analyze writing teachers' interview and speaking teachers' interview. It offers insightful glimpses into how teachers perceive the significance of EI in enhancing PSA by highlighting the most exponential aspects of importance that the teachers deem plausible.

Eventually, the seventh chapter is concerned with the discussion of results. It is through this final chapter that the discussion of the main findings is carried out catering for interpreting both quantitative and qualitative results. In addition to this, chapter seven provides the reader with the opportunity to explore the most important implications that emanate from the research findings and to have a look on the hindrances faced during the whole research bearing the appellation of limitations of the study.

CHAPTER ONE

EFL Learners' Writing Skills: Theoretical Considerations

Introduction	10
1.1. Defining Writing.....	10
1.2. Types of Writing.....	11
1.2.1. Expository.....	12
1.2.2. Descriptive.....	12
1.2.3. Narrative.....	13
1.3. Forms of Writing.....	13
1.3.1. Sentences.....	13
1.3.2. Paragraphs	14
1.3.3. Essays.....	15
1.4. Traits of Writing.....	17
1.4.1. Ideas	17
1.4.2. Word Choice	18
1.4.3. Sentence Fluency.....	18
1.4.4. Voice.....	18
1.4.5. Organization.....	19
1.4.6. Conventions.....	19
1.4.7. Presentation.....	20
1.5. Teaching Second Language Writing	20
1.6. Approaches to Teaching Writing.....	22
1.6.1. Product-Based Approach.....	23
1.6.2. Process-Based Approach.....	24
1.6.2.1. Planning	26
1.6.2.2. Drafting.....	27
1.6.2.3. Revising.....	27
1.6.2.4. Editing.....	28
1.6.3. Genre-Based Approach	29
1.6.4. The Process-Genre Approach.....	31
1.7. Learners' Difficulties in the Writing Skill	34
1.7.1. Linguistic Difficulties	34
1.7.2. Cognitive Difficulties	34
1.7.3. Psychological Difficulties	35

1.8. Assessing Writing35
Conclusion.....37

Introduction

In the vast domain of foreign language learning, the writing skill has constantly attracted much attention among experts in the field. Significant as it is, writing is assumed to be a crucial aspect of language for students and teachers alike. As for learners, it serves at reflecting their level of proficiency in mastering the language that they are in the course of learning. Regarding teachers, it aids at reflecting the efficiency of their teaching practices as it is one of the productive skills that they can assess to obtain information about their learners' progress or achievement. From a different perspective, writing is of a convoluted nature being made up of a diversity of sub skills that prove complicated for foreign language learners to master. In light of this, studying this complexity has been a challenging endeavor for FLL research given that much is still unraveled about the factors leading to learners' mastery of this productive skill. To this end, the current chapter is meant to shed light on what the literature has to offer about the nature of writing, its sub skills, and more importantly learners' achievement in such a pivotal skill.

1.1. Defining Writing

Although the term writing per se is of a ubiquitous use, its definition is not taken for granted as it changes on the basis of a variety of contexts such as the cultural, social, and political context, in addition to the context of time (Warnock, 1983). By this, it is meant that one should be weary when trying to define the concept in its broadest sense by being heedful to the context with which the term is associated. In accordance with this, Kern (2002) maintained that writing cannot be decontextualized as it is an act that draws upon the cultural and institutional background on the basis of which it is generated (as cited in Usó-Juan et al., 2006).

In the same way, there has been an ongoing absence of consensus upon the basic constituents that underpin writing. In other words, it commonly holds true that writing is of an intricate nature, and there is still a lack of agreement in terms of its underlying skills and processes (Di Gennaro, 2006). As such, what can be noted, in the light of this, is that carrying out the activity of writing proves an obfuscate endeavor which requires certain level of control over a variety of sub skills and complex processes.

Catering for the nature of writing, Broughton (1980) asserted that one of the main characteristics of writing is that it is regarded as a private act, in which the writer is engaged in solitary activity while producing a given composition, and public at the mean time in the sense that any certain piece of writing is meant for an audience . This implies that although writing and speaking are two forms of communication, they diverge at the point of the audience which can generally be determined in spoken conversations as it is embodied in the participants involved in the conversation who are present while language is being orally produced. Contrariwise, it is difficult to be precise in the case of written instances of language wherein the readers addressed are not present when composition takes place.

1.2. Types of Writing

As previously indicated, writing is one of the mostly utilized activities to express thoughts and communicate ideas and feelings. Hence, given the diversity of purposes that this activity serves achieving, there emerged a set of forms in which writing is shaped according to specific characteristics that distinguish each form. Kane (2000) claimed that there are three main informative types of writing that are regarded as the most ubiquitous amongst writers: expository descriptive and narrative.

1.2.1. Expository

This type is concerned, on the most part, with explaining as its top priority. This explanation serves at clarifying ideas to the readers and allows them to understand concepts and phenomena that require logical thinking. Expository texts, therefore, are characterized by being logically constructed around themes such as cause and effect as part of their informative function (Kane, 2000). In line with this, Snyder (2010, p. 42) stated that a given expository text “ contains a significant number of facts, many of which are new to the reader” indicating that this proliferation of information requires the writer to organize the text using a set of linguistic and structural features such as coherence and cohesion. Exposition is the written type mostly used in scientific domains to allow for imparting knowledge to the readers in domains like geography, biology, history, law and medical science. In the light of this, much recognition is commonly accorded to developing the expository writing skills in order for one to become labeled as a good writer.

1.2.2. Descriptive

According to Kane (2000), generating significant patterns, as a result of arranging what we see, is the main purpose behind description in writing. This kind of writing, ergo, concerns itself with perceptions (mostly visual) that the writer wants to visualize, so that the reader can conceptualize an image about them. Similarly, Zemach and Rumisek (2011) indicated that the core of description revolves around demonstrating the way “someone or something looks or feels” (p.25). As such, description is one of the most prominent functions that writers strive to communicate being required to possess a considerable command over the use of language in order for them to make their description as accurate as possible.

1.2.3. Narrative

The third type of writing is termed narration that is simply the process of telling the reader a story following a set of subsequent and related events. One is said to be narrating when arranging a sequence of events to be presented to the reader in addition to revealing the significance and impact of those events (Anker, 2010; Kane, 2000). Good narration entails the writers' ability to find the most suitable ways to link the occurrence of various events to each other in a logical manner so that the reader can keep track of the different twists that the story has to involve (Bailey, 2011).

1.3. Forms of Writing

1.3.1. Sentences

According to Feng-Checkett and Checkett (2010, p. 11), “ The sentence is the building block of all writing. Paragraphs, memos, letters, reports, and even essays and books are constructed from sentences”. As such, in order for good writing to take place, attention should be paid to the basic unit of any given piece of writing that is the sentence.

As stated by Lingard (2017), three types of sentences are commonly identified: the simple sentence, the compound sentence, and the complex sentence. To begin with, the simple sentence is composed of a single clause that does not necessitate the existence of another clause to complete its meaning. It is simply made up of a subject and a predicate. Next, the compound sentence is a combination of two clauses wherein each clause is meaningful and independent being composed of a subject and a predicate. These two independent clauses are brought together by means of what is termed coordinating conjunctions (and, but, for, yet, nor, or, so). As for the third type, complex sentences are made up of two clauses in which one of those is an independent

one while the other is dependent and cannot stand on its own to express a complete thought. In order for these clauses to be linked subordinating conjunctions, such as because, are utilized (Joshi, 2014).

In the course of writing sentences, common sentence errors are likely to be committed by writers. The first kind of errors is known as comma splice. It is detected when a comma is placed between two independent clauses where it should not. The independent clauses should, instead, be separated by a full stop or a semicolon (Bates, 1993). In addition, the second type of errors is the so-called the run-on sentence. It occurs when two independent clauses are joined without recourse to the appropriate use of any sign of punctuation or conjunctions (Heffernon & Lincoln, 1986). Sentence fragment is another ubiquitous error to be brought to bear. Linebarger et al. (1988) described fragments as sentence structures that lack the presence of an essential element and resultantly impinge on the meaning of the sentence. This error is highlighted when the writer does not include a subject, a verb, or even a clause in the sentence that they produce leading the reader to ambiguity and, simultaneously, violating the grammar rules of language.

1.3.2. Paragraphs

As one of the most common and essential forms of writing, “a paragraph consists of several related sentences that deal with a single topic, or an aspect of a topic” (Yarber & Yarber, 2010, p. 6). This entails that the extent to which a paragraph is construed as a good relies heavily on the mastery over the writing of sentences and how to link them to serve a unified topic.

In the view of Brandon (2015), although all paragraphs share the same structure, they cannot be looked upon to be of one kind. Instead, they come under four distinct types that fulfill various functions.

- Introductory: as indicated by the term itself, the introductory paragraph is placed as the first paragraph in an essay. It permits to pave the way for the reader to come into terms with the principal idea that the writer attempts to convey.
- Developmental: this kind of paragraphs revolves around the statement of an idea and strives to provide support for it.
- Transitional: orienting readers' attention from a given point to another is the function conveyed by transitional paragraphs. In spite of being usually short, such paragraphs have a significant impact on the organization of essays.
- Concluding: a paragraph that is placed in the end of an essay. It sets out to bring the essay to a close by providing a final comment on the topic being discussed.

According to Wingersky et al. (1995), the process of writing a paragraph is a systematic one that typically starts by a brainstorming phase. This phase is said to be of great significance as it contributes to forming a logical flow of ideas to be understood by the reader. In the same vein, Wingersky et al. (1995) advocated that a clear and effective paragraph ought to be characterized by a completeness of thoughts and the provision of enough information in a detailed manner in order to avoid ambiguity on the part of the reader. Besides, unity is another attribute that needs to be present in any given paragraph that is labeled effective. Writers are, thus, required to generate the most convenient ways to link the sentences to serve a unified topic and to make their order appear logical and sensible.

1.3.3. Essays

Being a ubiquitous form of writing that is described as collection of linked paragraphs (Shiach, 2009), an essay is commonly looked upon as “a piece of writing that attempts to explore

in detail a particular subject” (Forsyth & Connelly, 2012, p. 8). In view of this, it can be deduced that one defining characteristic of essays is the involvement of a unified topic that all the ideas ought to discuss without digression.

In the same vein, the unity of ideas is not the mere attribute essays should demonstrate. Instead, a variety of characteristics is associated with what can be construed as a good essay. Van Geyte (2013) posited that four major tenets underlie the writing of academic essays: formality, efficiency, modesty, and clarity. To begin with, formality refers to the use of formal academic language that is confined to academics as opposed to the use of laymen’s informal or slang languages. Subsequently, efficiency is the ability to express the writer’s thoughts by means of an adequate minimum of sentences without recourse to repetition and over explanation. A good essay, thus, involves only what is required to achieve the writing aims. Besides, modesty is one salient principle in essay writing and academic writing in general. It stands for the writer’s propensity to maintain the respect and acceptance of others’ viewpoints. That is to say, labeling different perspectives as wrong or unacceptable is not allowed in the principles of essay writing as they violate the tenet of modesty amongst writers. Eventually, clarity refers to the capacity of expressing ideas without ambiguities that invoke difficulties of comprehension on the part of the reader. This principle runs counter to the misleading premise that complication in writing demonstrates a high level of proficiency.

As put by Bailey (2011), the most common forms of essays are made up of three major components: introduction, main body, and conclusion. These are known as short essays that subsume exams answers as a good case in point. Nevertheless, longer essays do not necessarily adhere to the same pattern; they, rather, transcend to include other elements in the main body such as the literature review and the discussion, in addition to references, and appendices as part

of the conclusion (Van Geyte, 2013) . This distinction proves to of a substantial nature as far as the teaching of essay writing is concerned. Students are required to demarcate the different patterns to be followed in conformity with the specific task requirements.

1.4. Traits of Writing

According to Sundem (2006), effective writing involves the presence of a number of qualities without which a piece of writing would not be described as a good one. These qualities bear the appellation of writing traits which became central to research pertinent to the writing ability (Pikiewicz, 2004) .

1.4.1. Ideas

An idea, in the context of writing, is the content that a composition strives to impart to the reader. As such, the presence of a major idea that guides the rest of related thoughts is necessary in every effective piece of writing. Prior to the actual start of the process of writing, the writer is required to come with an idea upon which the quality of his writing is contingent. In this respect, the provided idea should be characterized by a variety of attributes. It should be interesting in the sense that it continually captures the attention of the reader all along the process of reading. Further, interesting ideas cannot be deemed so unless they are informative by nature; they allow the reader to take advantage of the content of the written composition to enlarge their knowledge of the topic being discussed. In light of this, each and every writer is compelled to attribute much attention to the informative and interesting aspects of the ideas included in their writings.

1.4.2. Word Choice

As ideas embody the content of a composition, they are delivered through the use of words that reflect the core of thoughts. As such, it is of essence for any writer to consider the selection of the words that are deemed most suitable to describe what is in mind. Given that a word can have different meanings depending on the context in which it is used, word choice proves to be a daunting task for writers compelling them become completely aware of the alterations that words undergo when used in various situations.

1.4.3. Sentence Fluency

This trait is concerned with the impact that the linkage in sentences of a piece of writing has on the reader. Sentence fluency is used to describe that flow of sentences which does not contain undue pauses. Thus, this is an essential factor to be considered when producing a composition as it offers the creation of a rhythm that does not interfere with the conveyance of ideas, but, rather, makes it even easier. In this respect, Smith (2003) stated that variety should be one determining feature of sentences in the sense that they should diverge in terms of length and grammatical structures. This is likely to offer the reader a clearer picture and a less monotonous one.

1.4.4. Voice

According to Steineger (1996), voice refers to the rapport that links the writer and the audience as one pivotal element in effective writing. Writers are, therefore, required to be aware of the audience being addressed so that they are able to develop a sense of connection that allows them to orient their writing to suit the audience. In the same vein, Sundem (2006) maintained that the trait of voice is deemed essential to label a piece of writing as good by dint of the fact that it

clearly reflects the personality of the writer and demonstrates their interest in the topic being discussed.

1.4.5. Organization

A written text is described as organized when a logical placement of thoughts is carried out by the writer. This includes a well-structured manipulation of introductory and concluding ideas that serves at a better understanding of the purposeful function of the piece of writing (Smith, 2003). In keeping with this, Steineger (1996) underscored the probe that organization, as a trait of effective writing, requires the smooth transition in the ideas subsumed within the composition. This denotes that moving from a given idea to another should not impinge on the connection between them and deters the reader from comprehending this movement. Ergo, a skillful writer is likely to deploy a variety of cohesive connectors to maintain an effective flow of ideas.

1.4.6. Conventions

As stated by Sundem (2006, p 73), “Anything included in the mechanics of language falls into the category of conventions”. That is to say, conventions, as a trait of good writing, is an encompassing term under which falls a variety of writing aspects including grammar, spelling, punctuation, and so forth. Writers should demonstrate a certain extent of command over the use of these mechanics within their composition if they are to be labeled as good ones (Harmer, 2011). Similarly, Steineger (1996) asserted that the mastery over the writing conventions is necessary as they allow the writer to be equipped with flexibility in the delivery of ideas and facilitate the process of reading for the audience, as well.

1.4.7. Presentation

The final trait of effective writing is termed presentation. This element caters for the way a piece of writing is presented to the reader as regards formatting details such as text spacing and the placement of graphics (Smith, 2003). Therefore, it can be noted that good writing does not merely focus on the content it carries, but rather, it takes into account the way this content is formatted and provided to the reader in an appropriate form that encourages them to go through the text. This is very much in accordance with what is advocated by Sundem (2006) with regard to the essential place presentation holds in highlighting meaning through a well-designed layout.

1.5. Teaching Second Language Writing

The main purpose behind carrying out the teaching of writing is attempting to develop learners' competence that allows them to master the basics of writing and to reach the communicative ends of the written composition. In the light of this, Cheung (2016, p. 181) claimed that:

Writing competence is about composing an effective piece of written work to fulfill a specific purpose. For example, when writing an entertaining and engaging story, students adopt a narrative style and rhetorical moves in order to fulfill the requirements of a specialized context (e.g., classroom practice, take-home assignment, or in-class examination). Once students are aware of the importance of the purpose, audience, and context of the writing, they can employ the following basic academic discourse skills to achieve effective implementation.

Through this definition, Cheung emphasized three main elements that are inherently entangled within the writing competence. These elements are the purpose (the main aim behind writing a

given composition), the audience (the addressee of the composition), and the context (the situation in which writing is produced including time and place). Hence, in order for learners to be competent in writing, they are required to be totally aware of these elements to ascertain the quality of their writing.

In the view of Hyland (2003), though important as they are, grammar and vocabulary are not the only areas of language that learners of writing are required to work on. Instead, when establishing any given writing course, it should be taken into consideration that carrying appropriate meaning out is a top priority for the assorted teaching practices within the course. In other words, teaching language structures (vocabulary and grammar) is likely to have positive outcomes when it is tied to the teaching of language functions that these structures serve. This is to underscore writing instruction as a multifaceted process that entails creating a balance between the teaching of language structures and language use in tandem. In the same way, Cheung (2016) maintained that central to second language writing is learners' awareness of the communicative ends of their writing. Teaching is, therefore, meant to emphasize the functional aspect of the written compositions that learners strive to produce.

According to Cumming (2006), teaching second language writing is a procedure that is characterized by high levels of variability since the nature of the writing skill does not offer a clear cut way to make students' improvement take place. Differently put, the endeavor of rendering students equipped with a better command over writing requires teachers to focus on a multiplicity of aspects pertinent to the composed text and to the process itself (Yates & Kenkel, 2002). These aspects subsume factors that are related to the linguistic competence (such as vocabulary and grammar), the sociolinguistic competence (deploying the language in a social context), in addition to the personal factors of the learners (including motivation, attitudes, and

self-efficacy). This allows one to note that the teaching of writing is not likely to bring about positive outcomes unless it is contextualized in an attempt to cover for the various personal disparities of the students and the contexts of their learning.

1.6. Approaches to Teaching Writing

According to Lavelle and Bushrow (2007), the notion of approach, within the context of writing, is utilized to refer to the variety of beliefs that a given writer holds about the nature of writing in general in addition to his perception of the best strategies that can be deployed in accordance with these beliefs to fulfill positive outcomes as an ultimate aim. In light of this, it can be held true that the success of the teaching of writing has a lot to depend on the approach adopted prior to the actual start of teaching. It acts as a guide on which the teacher depends to design their teaching practices including the strategies and the techniques used to teach and to assess achievement as well.

In the same vein, Selvaraj and Aziz (2019) argued that the essential place held by approaches to teaching writing is never to be put into question. They maintained that disappointment is likely to take place among teachers and learners in case it is adhered to a non-ideal approach. This tends to have negative bearings on the performance of teachers and the achievement of learners. Besides, Scott (1996) elucidated that the absence of a clear teaching approach can be the cause of the failure of writing courses. This is in the sense that the teaching outcomes are prone to be not met as the process of teaching is likely to lack both clarity and unity of purpose.

1.6.1. Product-Based Approach

The first category of approaches in the context of writing is known as the product-based approach (Rashtchi et al., 2019). It is commonly regarded as a traditional approach that draws upon providing students with a model written composition that they emulate. As suggested by the terminology itself, this approach is based upon learners' production of compositions that share similar characteristics of the model text to which they are exposed in order to be analyzed and imitated in students' writing (Badger & White, 2000; Hasan & Akhand, 2011).

In the view of Steele (2004, as cited in Selvaraj & Aziz, 2019), adhering to a product-based approach in the teaching of writing requires going through four main steps that together embody the core of product-oriented teaching. These steps are summarized below.

- 1- Reading and analyzing the model text to come into terms with its distinguishing features in terms of the language structures, the order of thoughts, and the major mechanisms of writing;
- 2- Performing controlled practices that are oriented by the instructor in order for learners to become familiar with the already elicited features of the model text;
- 3- Collecting pre- set ideas that are supposedly suitable for the provided model in an attempt to mimic the analyzed composition;
- 4- Performing the task as a final step wherein the learners rely on the required skills (such as sentence formulation and vocabulary use) to carry on a writing task.

Of note, product-based approaches can be criticized upon the basis that they have a somehow behavioristic nature invoking students' mechanical and passive learning. Model texts are likely to affect negatively students' abilities of creative thinking and adaptability to novel

writing requirements (Murray, 1980; as cited in Khaki & Heidari Tabrizi, 2021). Nevertheless, according to Saeidi and Sahebkhair (2011), there are firm grounds for the use of model essays that learners are asked to imitate in the teaching of writing. They argued that the idea of product-based approaches stems from the premise that writing successfully is contingent on reading and the exposure to written texts. As such, providing learners with such model texts is likely to improve their writing skills.

1.6.2. Process-Based Approach

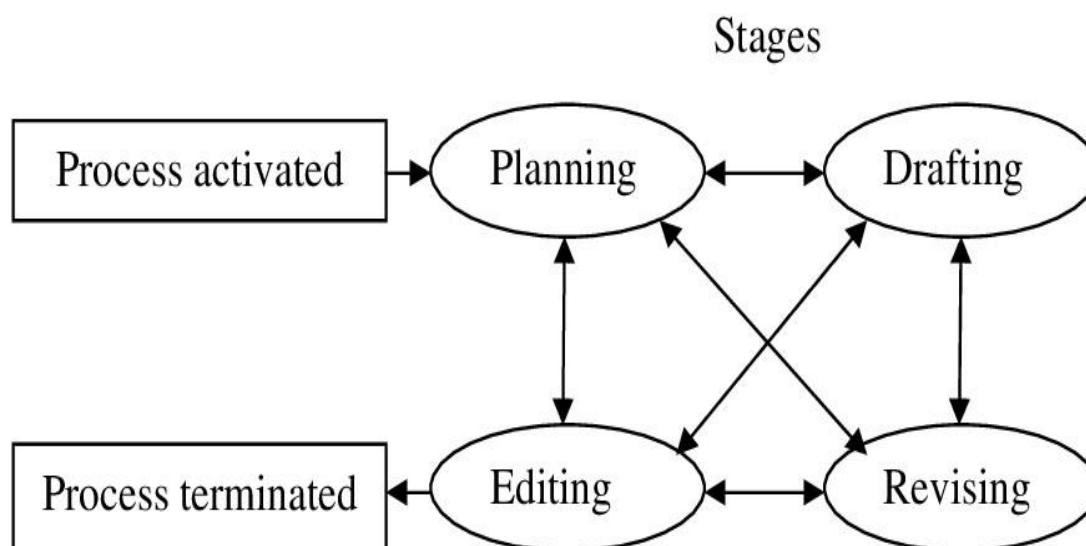
Needless to say, the process-based approach does not conform to the product-based approach in the sense that it does not perceive writing as a mere matter of product. Instead, it sets out to underscore the process itself and the multiplicity of stages that the writer goes through in order for them to generate a composition (Arici & Kaldirim, 2015; Nunan, 1991; Sun & Feng, 2009). The emphasis on the process itself as the core philosophy of this sort of approaches is reflected in the teaching operation. Instructors who tend to adopt this philosophy are likely to orient their teaching practices towards a focus on the way the written text develops to reach its final form.

According to Arici and Kaldirim (2015), adhering to a process based approach to writing implies certain adjustments to the roles of teachers. These latter are required to become part of the writing process along with their learners. They should be engaged in accompanying the learners in every stage to provide constructive feedback in order for learners to avoid the detrimental impact of failing to finish a phase successfully and moving to the subsequent one. This denotes that, in comparison with product-based approaches, process-oriented teaching involves active contribution on the part of teachers and learners in order for the desired outcomes to be brought about.

As stated by Seow (2002), the process-oriented teaching of writing is based upon honing learners' skills to pass four main stages: planning, drafting, revising and editing.

Figure 1

The Writing Process



Note. From *The Writing Process and Process Writing*. In J. C. Richards & W. A. Renandya (Eds) *Methodology in Language Teaching* (1st ed, p. 315) by A. Seow, 2002, Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511667190.044>. Copyright 2002.

As demonstrated in **Figure 1**, Seow (2002) argued that the identified stages do not adhere to a constant order that learners must follow blindly in the course of composition. Rather, process writing allows for flexibility in the sense that the overlapping amongst the four stages makes up

the core of the approach and enables to set it apart from the product-based approach. Nonetheless, as far as classroom teaching is concerned, the same author indicated that teachers are required to follow a specific order in the teaching of the skills pertinent to each stage at once. He emphasized that:

Process writing in the classroom is highly structured as it necessitates the orderly teaching of process skills, and thus it may not, at least initially, give way to a free variation of writing stages cited earlier. Teachers often plan appropriate classroom activities that support the learning of specific writing skills at every stage. (p. 316)

1.6.2.1. Planning

The first stage highlighted in the process-oriented approach is termed planning (also known as pre-writing) (Kellogg, 1990) . It takes place ahead of the actual start of composition wherein the writer opts for tackling a specific issue and endeavors to gather information and ideas that permit to do so (Hamp-Lyons & Heasley, 1987; Zemach & Rumisek, 2003). Throughout this stage, a variety of skills is deployed including group brainstorming and clustering. As for the first one, it involves students' recalling random information about the topic being addressed as one way of generating thoughts for getting started (Putman & Paulus, 2009). As for the second, it is based upon teachers' stimulation to the learners by providing words and expressions related to the topic which they link and arrange in clusters to be utilized in their writings.

The planning stage holds a pivotal position in the process of writing as it allows for the provision of important questions such as who, what and why of the topic (Seow, 2002). It is, therefore, the starting point from which the writer begins organizing his thought depending on the answers provided to those questions. In light of this, it is commonly recommended that teachers

of writing attribute much prominence to the pre-writing skills of their learners. Through enhancing them, they secure good grounds for the students to undergo the subsequent stages efficiently.

1.6.2.2. Drafting

Bringing the planning phase to a close enables the writer to move to the next step termed ‘drafting’. It epitomizes the first attempt at writing in which the writer starts the actual process of turning ideas, that result out of group brainstorming and clustering, into a concrete piece of writing (Irawati, 2017). In this respect, the emphasis in the drafting stage is not put on producing pieces of writing that are devoid of any errors of grammar, spelling, or punctuation, but rather on the fluency of writing and the ability to translate thoughts into sentences in an effective manner (Seow, 2002). As such, this stage proves to be of paramount significance in the approach of process writing as it serves complementing the precedent stage and sets the basics of the composition prior to its being revised and edited.

1.6.2.3. Revising

According to Seow (2002, p 317), the stage of revising is devised “to improve global content and the organization of ideas so that the writer’s intent is made clearer to the reader”. Hence, it is that phase wherein the writer seeks to come into grips with the multifaceted weaknesses that underlie his writing so far. The sought enhancement of the composition is mainly achieved by means of scrutinizing the extent to which the writer succeeded in conveying the intended meaning and demonstrating correct instances of language. Following this line of thought, Breetvelt et al. (1994) stated that one salient characteristic of good writers is the ability of revising texts for the sake of diagnosing the negative points that impinge on the

communication of meaning rather than paying much attention to the aspects of writing related to form. Although these latter are quite significant in writing, the revising stage should be meant to cater for rectifying meaning as a top priority.

1.6.2.4. Editing

This final step is brought into play when students are on the brink of submitting their final draft to their teacher or to any other intended targeted reader. In an attempt to present the best of version of their compositions, students strive to compensate for any spotted mistakes that can be related to sentence structure, diction, punctuation, and spelling (Seow, 2002). Given the significance of editing in the writing process, teachers are required to exert efforts to encourage learners to enhance their abilities of text editing. This can be achieved through the provision of corrective feedback on the part of the teachers so that learners become aware of the major aspects of writing that they ought to edit on a regular basis (Smith & Brown, 1995; as cited in Sangeetha, 2020).

As it is the case with any proposed framework of teaching, process-based teaching is prone to criticism amongst scholars and researchers in the field of teaching writing. As such, it is argued that this approach neglects catering for the various types of writings and assumes that all written texts should be treated in the same manner as they all follow the same process when being produced. Additionally, one prominent shortcoming of the approach at issue is that it does not proffer adequate input for learners to become able to generate compositions of high quality (Badger & White, 2000). This is to denote that despite the fresh impetus provided by process-oriented approaches, they still fall short of numerous considerations that contribute significantly to a better teaching of writing.

1.6.3. Genre-Based Approach

As a third approach to the teaching of writing, the genre-based approach can be described as a somewhat novel philosophy in comparison with the aforementioned approaches (Dirgeyasa, 2016; Truong, 2017). This implies that this approach was established with an intent of accounting for the best way to teach writing without recourse to the principles from which the product and process approaches stem. It perceives the teaching operation from a relatively divergent stance.

The genre-based approach is based upon linking the written text that a given writer produces to the cultural and social context in which it was produced. Writing according to this framework transcends merely generating a composition to be concerned with the purpose of conducting the whole writing operation which, in turn, is determined by the context itself (Hyon, 1996). In this regard, it can be concluded that the approach under consideration sets out to highlight the significance of the purposive function of the text as a prime concern around which the teaching practices should rotate.

As far as teaching adheres to a genre-based approach, three major stages are pursued, namely modeling a text, joint construction of a text, and independent construction of a text (Firkins et al., 2007).

- *Modeling a Text*: at this stage, a specific category of genre writing is selected by the practitioner as a reference around which the classroom activities are built. This text is manipulated by the learners with the assistance of the teacher aiming at exploring the communicative function that it serves. Eventually, the learners proceed to analyze the text in terms of vocabulary items and grammatical structures that distinguish the modeled text from the remainder of genre writings (Dirgeyasa, 2016).

- *Joint Construction:* in this phase, learners are still accompanied by the teacher prior to writing on their own. They work on reconstructing the modeled texts by paraphrasing and revising the linguistic aspects subsumed within it such as vocabulary and grammar aiming at comprehending the proffered genre writing adequately (Dirgeyasa, 2016).
- *Independent Construction:* As a corollary result of the preceding stages, independent construction comes as a final phase wherein the learners utilize the outcomes of their analysis and reconstruction of the text in writing independently. Without the help of the teacher, the learners embark on producing a genre writing that shares the same features with the modeled text in order for them to attain the communicative function of that genre as a top priority (Dirgeyasa, 2016).

In spite of the ubiquity of the genre-based approach as a trend in the teaching of writing, it could not but be susceptible to criticism with regard to a number of issues. Derewianka (2003) highlighted some of those indicating that what teachers are generally able to deliver are mere few types of genre writings in comparison with the multitude of the available genres. Students are, hence, likely to face various difficulties when they are met with different genres that practitioners fail to involve within their teaching practices. Further, this approach is put into question because of the lack of flexibility sensed in the teaching of its stages. The prescriptive instruction of these stages is said to impinge on students' abilities to manipulate their order and to be aware of the function served by each stage.

1.6.4. The Process-Genre Approach

Drawing upon the underpinning principles of both the process-based approach and the genre-based approach resulted in the appearance of the so-called “process genre approach to writing”. This was indicated by Nordin and Mohammad (2006,p. 82) as they maintained that:

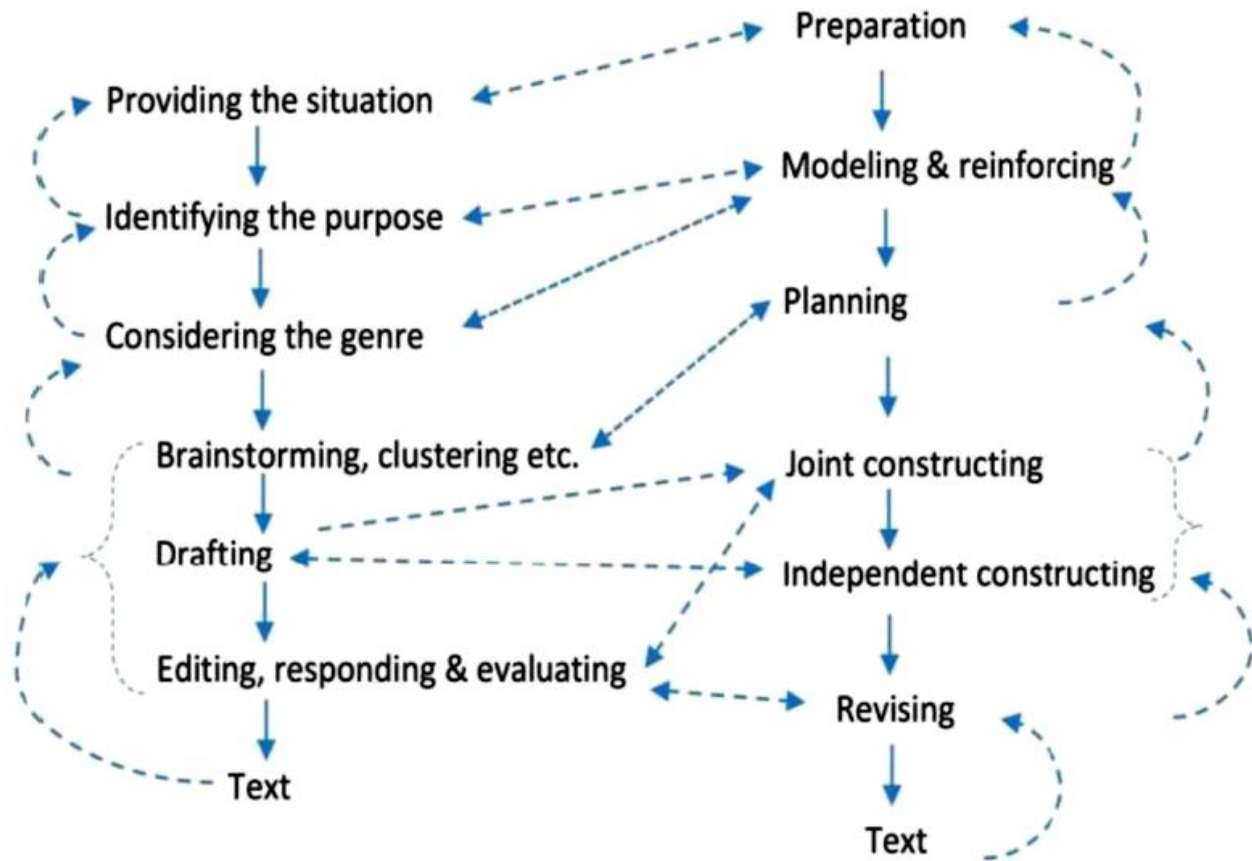
The process/genre-based approach thus integrates the strength of the process approach and the genre-based approach. Planning, drafting, conferencing, editing and peer review are components of the process approach to teaching writing. Understanding and considering the purpose, audience and context on the other hand, are elements in the genre approach.

The process genre approach to teaching writing sets out to merge the premise of emphasizing the purposive function, which proponents of genre-based approaches advocate, with the stages proposed in the process-based approach. By means of that, it is assumed that students as well as teachers are likely to benefit from the flexibility that such an eclectic approach offers (Pujianto et al., 2014).

Similarly, Rusinovci (2015) asserted that teaching under a process genre approach is meant to fulfill two main supplementary objectives. The first of these is raising students’ awareness of the social context in which their writing is to be carried out and the function that texts are composed to achieve. Subsequently, the second aim is to couple this awareness with an understanding of the types of texts (genres) to which the composition is supposed to adhere. In so doing, learners are likely to become more proficient with regard to the production of written texts that are well-structured in terms of the characteristics of the genre and well-organized in the sense that the process of writing is confined to a number of clearly defined stages.

Figure 2

Application of the Process Genre Approach



Note. From “A Process-Genre Model for Teaching Writing,” by G. Yan, 2005, *English Teaching Forum*, 43, p. 25. Copyright 2005.

As far as the teaching procedure is concerned, Yan (2005), as demonstrated in **Figure 2**, stated that instruction within process genre approaches go through six main stages as explained in the following account.

1) Preparation: getting learners to come into terms with the situation that requires them to produce a written text in addition to demarcating the genre required to deal with this situation;

- 2) Modeling and Reinforcing: presenting a model of the determined genre, highlighting its communicative purpose, and demonstrating how the text is structured to achieve its purpose;
- 3) Planning: stimulating learners' interest in the topic to be discussed through a variety of activities that activates their schemata including reading, group discussions, and brainstorming;
- 4) Joint Construction: working on composing the written text by learners in cooperation with the teacher to come with a model text that is utilized in the subsequent step;
- 5) Independent Construction: composing a text by students on their own bearing in mind the characteristics of the determined genre and the stages required to undertake the writing process.
- 6) Revising: putting into scrutiny the final draft the learners produced and checking for weaknesses to be adjusted. This can be done by consulting the teacher or even fellow students.

Casting light on the advantages with which the approach under scrutiny is characterized, the existing literature highlighted that process-genre teaching can be beneficial for students and teachers. In this respect, Agesta (2016) revealed that one prominent way to overcome students' writing difficulties is the adoption of the process-genre approach to teach writing as the eclectic nature of the approach allows for covering most of students' weaknesses. Elaborating on this, Agesta claimed that previous studies on the issue (such as Foo, 2007; Kim & Kim, 2006; Yan, 2005) showed that the process-genre approach helps learners become better writers. This is in the sense that it increases their motivation to write inside and outside the classroom, in addition to fostering their creativity in tackling the writing endeavor. Consequently, such type of approaches received much recognition among teachers in order for them to minimize students' perennial problems in writing.

1.7. Learners' Difficulties in the Writing Skill

It is pinpointed in the foregoing that the writing skill is of a complex nature that involves a combination of constituents that need to be mastered by learners to reach achievement. As such, this complex nature results in the existence of diversity of difficulties that hinder students' endeavors to reach command and therefore achievement in this crucial skill. Byrne (1998) identified three major types of writing difficulties that language learners encounter: linguistic, cognitive, and psychological.

1.7.1. Linguistic Difficulties

This type of difficulties is strongly linked to the students' ability to demonstrate mastery over the production of correct sentences. That is to say, linguistic difficulties encompass the challenges that learners face in adhering to the rules and mechanisms of correct writing (Byrne, 1998). In this regard, these challenges can be sensed at the level of learners' command over language use, word selection, spelling, vocabulary and, grammar.

1.7.2. Cognitive Difficulties

Cognitive difficulties mainly involve the multiplicity of learners' weaknesses in the ability to comprehend the nature of the written text requirements (Byrne, 1998). This entails that when a learner is diagnosed to have this type of difficulties, they are unable to use the cognitive processes involved in writing in an efficient manner. As a result, this is likely to impinge on their capacity to generate relevant content and to organize ideas appropriately.

1.7.3. Psychological Difficulties

Per Byrne (1998), this type of learners' difficulties is directly related to the learners' internal factors that might impinge on the writing performance. These factors are involved the psychological state of the learner including their self-confidence, self-esteem their beliefs about the writing process itself. In light of this, being internally located, psychological difficulties can be too complicated to deal with as they might be the source of which the other two types, namely the linguistic and the cognitive, emanate.

1.8. Assessing Writing

It cannot be denied that the domain of writing assessment is central to the teaching of this crucial skill. This centrality is, to a great extent, manifested in the fact that the evolution that takes place at the level of assessment acts as a reflection to the development in theory and research pertinent to teaching writing (Wolcott & Legg, 1998). As such, it can be deduced that the efforts exerted, by scholars and researchers, in pursuit of enhancing students' writing skills are required to be commensurate with those spent in developing new effective assessment methods that are likely to yield fruitful information about the progress and achievement of students (Conor & Mbaye, 2002; Sundem, 2006). This led to enlarging the scope of studies dealing with the assessment of writing to bring about assorted stances about this issue, which are worth being accounted for thoroughly (Behizadeh & Engelhard, 2011).

According to Weigle (2010), based on the ideas of Bachman and Palmer (1996) on language testing, the procedure of designing a writing test should first put under scrutiny in terms of determining the purpose behind which assessment is undertaken in the first place. One salient aim behind designing a test of writing is eliciting inferences about learners' ability. That is to say,

it is conducted in order for the assessor that is generally the teacher to become aware of the strengths and weaknesses pertinent to the learners' writing ability. This can be regarded as one step in fulfilling the second aim that is making decisions on the basis of the obtained inferences. Seeking to improve their instruction practices, teachers tend to use the information they collect through assessment to adapt and adjust their teaching to make up for the spotted students' deficiencies and to reinforce the positive aspects of their ability.

The assessment of writing cannot generally be confined to one type of tests merely. Instead, this process is characterized by variability. Tests diverge in what they assess and how so doing can be undertaken. Madsen (1983) asserted that the availability of various tests of writing is resultant of the large number of factors that are inherently embedded within this skill, namely vocabulary, grammar, spelling punctuation cohesion and coherence. Therefore, the aggregate of these elements requires diverse testing applications to orient focus to some over others, depending on the objective of teaching. A good case in point is that a given teacher can utilize a test that targets students' mastery over the stage of prewriting as a top priority over other elements such as cohesion and coherence as long as teaching the stages is the course objective.

Yancey (1999) maintained that the assessment of writing historically adhered to three major forms: objective tests, holistically scored essays, and portfolio assessment.

- Objective Tests: this form of tests received much attention in the period of (1950-1970). However, it is still used in assessing writing to the present day. It includes multiple choice questions, true and false questions, and completion questions.

- Holistically Scored Essays: in this form of assessment, learners are required to write an essay that will be scored holistically through the assessor's provision of a score that reflects the quality of the essay in a global manner rather than an analytical one (Perkins, 1983).
- Portfolio Assessment: this form is based on the use of portfolios in assessing learners' writing. According to Hamp-Lyons, (1991) a portfolio is “ a collection of texts the writer has produced over a defined period of time” (p. 262, as cited in Park, 2004). Assessors use these collections to check learners' development of the writing ability over a longitudinal period of time that allows their level to evolve.

In the course of finding an optimal method to assess writing, Hamp-Lyons (2008) asserted that the assessor is required to draw upon the previously mentioned forms in order for them to make use of the advantages of each. Merging objectives tests, holistic essay scoring, and portfolio assessment should be appropriated according to the actual characteristics of the teaching situation that differs from one context to another. As such, teachers find themselves compelled to develop a sense of awareness as regards matching their teaching objectives with the procedures they utilize in assessing the writing ability.

Conclusion

In a nutshell, it can be noted that the writing skill, in the context of English language learning and teaching epitomizes a building block that cannot be overlooked by learners and teachers alike. In an attempt to bring this pivotal skill into limelight, this chapter set out to unravel the major concerns associated with writing and research linked to it. To this end, it was accounted for the major elements that underpin this convoluted process including the forms, types, and the traits of good writing. As a result, the foregoing accounts demonstrated that in

order for learners to fulfil achievement in this skill, many factors coalesce to affect their performance. These include the ability to master the assorted guidelines of effective writing as well as the ability to overcome the linguistic, cognitive, and psychological difficulties associated with it. Much impact is also exerted through the various teaching approaches utilized to teach writing, be it product, process, genre, or a mixture, and the procedures deployed to assess this skill.

CHAPTER TWO

An Overview of EFL Speaking Skills

Introduction	39
2.1. Defining Speaking	39
2.2. Speaking as a Language learning Skill.....	40
2.3. Components of the Speaking Skill	43
2.3.1. Pronunciation.....	43
2.3.2. Grammar	44
2.3.4. Vocabulary	44
2.3.4. Fluency.....	45
2.3.5. Comprehension	45
2.4. The Speaking Competence	46
2.4.1. Knowledge of Language and Discourse.....	48
2.4.2. Core Speaking Skills.....	48
2.4.3. Communication Strategies.....	49
2.5. The Teaching-Speaking Cycle.....	50
2.5.1. Focus Learners' Attention on Speaking	52
2.5.2. Provide Input and/ or Guide planning	52
2.5.3. Conduct Speaking Tasks.....	52
2.5.4. Focus on Language Discourse /Skills/ Strategies	53
2.5.5. Repeat Speaking Tasks	53
2.5.6. Direct Learners' Reflection on Learning	53
2.5.7. Facilitate Feedback on Learning.....	54
2.6. Activities to Teach Speaking	54
2.6.1. Discussions.....	54
2.6.2. Role Plays	55
2.6.3. Speeches	56
2.6.4. Interviews	56
2.7. EFL Learners' Difficulties in Speaking	57
2.7.1. Inhibition	58
2.7.2. Nothing to Say (Lack of Topical Knowledge)	58
2.7.3. Low or Uneven Participation.....	58
2.7.4. Mother Tongue Use	59
2.8. Factors Affecting Learners' Achievement in Speaking	59

2.8.1. Performance Conditions	60
2.8.2. Listening Ability	61
2.8.3. Topical Knowledge	61
2.8.4. Feedback during Speaking Activities	62
2.8.5. Affective Factors	62
2.9. Assessing Speaking	63
Conclusion.....	66

Introduction

In the precedent chapter, writing as a productive skill was brought to bear. However, as far as language production is concerned, writing is not the only skill EFL learners strive to develop. Instead, of equal, if not more, importance is the speaking skill of any given language as it reflects to a great extent the ability to communicate using that language. Given this paramount importance, continuous efforts are exerted among experts in the field of ELT to unpack the major issues that are pertinent to conceptualizing speaking as a language skill in addition to the most innovative methods to develop it in learners. Following this line of thought, the present chapter aims at contributing to the bulk of research on speaking by means of examining the most common theories and studies dealing with it in the available literature. Transcending the nature of this skill per se, attention is alternatively attributed to the complex processes involved in its teaching, achievement, and assessment.

2.1. Defining Speaking

In an attempt to define speaking, a variety of definitions emerged to describe the term from diverse perspectives. For a start, the act of speaking is commonly defined as the interactive endeavor of making meaning involving the production, reception, and processing of information amongst two speakers or more (Burns & Joyce, 2002). Through this definition, Burns and Joyce emphasized two main characteristics of the act of speaking that are the interactive nature and the involvement of sub processes that take place in order for meaning to be expressed. In accordance with this very same view, Chaney and Burk (1998) maintained that speaking is a process of meaning creation that is contingent on the use of verbal and non-verbal signs to convey a message from the one who produces it to that who receives it.

According to Thornbury (2013), the process of speech production is not very often tackled due to the fact that it is a daily life activity that people take for granted, and, therefore, fail to question its underpinning processes. In this regard, speaking is characterized by spontaneity as a result of its contingent nature. By ‘contingent nature’, Thornbury (2013) referred to the core of speaking that is based on producing utterances as a response to those produced by the interlocutor with whom one is speaking.

In keeping with this, speaking is conceptualized as a two-way process that requires the involvement of genuine communication of thoughts and feelings (Eckard and Kearny, 1981; Florez, 1999; Howarth, 2001; as cited in Leong & Ahmadi, 2017). Hence, it can be deduced that the aforementioned definitions of speaking converge on the basis that this act entails collaboration between the sender and the receiver of the message, in addition to the awareness of the context. This is believed to assure that effective communication takes place and that the functions of the speaking acts are fulfilled efficiently (Leong & Ahmadi, 2017).

2.2. Speaking as a Language learning Skill

According to Bygate (2009, p 401), “Speaking is not necessarily an easy part of language learning”. This runs counter to the probe that speaking is easier to learn especially when compared to writing. In this respect, the complex nature of the speaking skill stems from the overlapping it has with other factors that are inherently parts of it. These factors include the cultural bounds in which language is spoken, the grammar and vocabulary items that underpin this language, and the phonetic systems used in the production of speech (Hughes, 2013). The unpacking of these factors strikes to the heart of the matter as to why language learners struggle to become proficient speakers of a language other than their mother tongue.

In keeping with this, Goh (2016) maintained that another perspective through which the intricacy of speaking is viewed is the dearth of consensus over what constitutes good speaking. Simply put, different learning contexts define good speakers of the language in various ways. Goh (2016) provided cases in point as regards the variety of attitudes held towards good speakers indicating that (p. 144):

We often say someone is a good speaker because that person speaks confidently, fluently and grammatically. In some learning contexts, a person may be considered a good speaker if he or she sounds like a speaker from one of the traditional native-speaker countries such as the UK or the USA. Some people may say that a good speaker is someone who is able to influence others with his or her words.

Hence, showing confidence, sounding like native speakers, influencing others through speech can all be regarded as criteria on the basis of which this oral skill is judged. This permits to invoke the quest for more insightful glimpses into the nature of speaking especially with contrast to language written skills.

Pursuing the foregoing line of thought, speaking as a language skill diverges from writing on a variety of accounts which are worth being elucidated on route of understanding the speaking skill fully (Redeker, 1984). As per Goh and Doyle (2014), speaking and writing can have in common the transmission of meaning as the main function of both modalities; nevertheless, each skill is characterized by a set of distinguishing features to be put under scrutiny as illustrated in **Table 1.**

Table 1

Spoken and written language: Typical features

Spoken language	Written language
Basic unit is the clause (utterance)	Basic unit is the sentence
Clauses linked by conjunction (<i>and, but, so</i> etc) to build the text	Clauses linked by subordination (<i>who, which, when</i> etc) to build the text
Frequent use of formulaic chunks (<i>I was lucky enough</i>)	Little use of formulaic language
Informal language preferred (<i>we used to get together</i>)	Formal language preferred (<i>commenced</i>)
Range of noticeable performance effects (hesitations, pauses, repeats, false starts, incompleteness)	Few/no noticeable performance effects
Frequent use of ellipsis (omission of grammatical elements, <i>started at the same time</i>)	Little use of ellipsis
Frequent use of personal pronouns (<i>I, we</i>)	Little use of personal pronouns

Note. From “Concepts for Teaching Speaking in the English Language Classroom,” by A. Burns, 2019, *LEARN Journal: Language Education and Acquisition Research Network*, 12(1), p. 5. Copyright 2019.

First, speaking is believed to be a spontaneous process in most of which utterances are produced as unplanned reactions to the speech of the interlocutor. Meanwhile, the writing process

is planned by nature; the composition goes through various modifications before reaching the intended audience (the readers). Second, speaking and writing differ in terms of the position of the sender and the receiver of the message in each modality. That is to say, spoken discourse is on the most part delivered in a face to face mode where interlocutors can make use of paralinguistic features to grasp the meaning without being explicitly said. As for the written language, writers are obliged to convey the meaning clearly and explicitly due to the fact that they are far removed from the reader. Third, when it comes to form, spoken language does not generally adhere to a rigid structure that is meticulously organized; in contrast, one of the defining features of the written language is the well-organized structure that is made up of correct sentences and excessive use of content words (Goh & Doyle, 2014).

2.3. Components of the Speaking Skill

As elucidated in the antecedent accounts, it is a matter of fact that the speaking skill is of a complex nature that incorporates a combination of elements (Grove, 1999; Lazaraton, 2001; Lock & lock, 2013; Usó-Juan et al., 2006;). In this respect, considerable efforts were continually exerted to unravel the aggregate of components that together constitute speaking as a language learning skill. According to Harris (1988), speaking is composed of five major elements: pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, fluency and comprehension.

2.3.1. Pronunciation

In very simple terms, pronunciation is referred to as the manner in which a spoken sound, word, or utterance is vocally delivered to the listener (Hornby, 2008). In the view of Pennington and Rogerson-Revell (2019), pronunciation is a pivotal element in the speaking skill that much focus should keep it within its confinement, stating that: .

Pronunciation is a much more important and pervasive feature of communication than is generally recognized. It is the crucial starting point for all spoken language, since thoughts must be articulated in sound in order to be heard and so to become a message that can be communicated to another person. (p.1)

Ergo, each and every speaking instance finds inception in the component of pronunciation as it permits to render the speaker's ideas into articulated sounds. This highlights the major role it plays in the process of communicating oral messages amongst the people involved in interactions.

2.3.2. Grammar

A basic definition of grammar suggests that it is a combination of rules that govern and demonstrate the structures of meaning in any language (Eunson, 2015). It is a system of rules that organizes language into conventional patterns in order for meaning to be conveyed easily. According to Thornbury (2013), grammar is an essential part in the speaking skill as it permits speakers to sustain interactions with a number of interlocutors; it helps generating limitless meaningful utterances across a multiplicity of topics. In this regard, Harmer (2006) indicated that the grammar of spoken language is characterized by a variety of constructional principles that sets it apart from that of the written language. This is clearly illustrated in the existence of grammatical patterns that are typical of spoken grammar such as: interjections, hesitations, and non-clausal units.

2.3.4. Vocabulary

As per Stahl (2005), the knowledge of vocabulary is generally referred to as the knowledge of words of a given language. This entails the knowledge of both the definition of a given term in addition to the way it should be used within the language system. As far as

speaking is concerned, vocabulary proves to be vital in the process of communicating ideas, and inadequacies of vocabulary lead to weakening the speaking performance (Mart, 2012; Tante, 2018). In keeping with this, Koizumi (2013) asserted that in comparison to grammar and pronunciation, the element of vocabulary is of a greater significance for learners to speak effectively. This probe is strongly supported by Crossley et al. (2009) who indicated that demonstrating command over the speaking skill relies on the lexical diversity that the learner possesses.

2.3.4. Fluency

Lennon (1990; as cited in De Jong et al., 2013) proffered a definition of fluency which is of a broad nature, construing it as a term referring to the possession of proficiency in the overall speaking skill. Simply put, a proficient speaker of a language is described as fluent in general terms. Nevertheless, fluency as a component of speaking skill can be defined as “the features which give speech the qualities of being natural and normal, including native-like use of pausing, rhythm, intonation, stress, rate of speaking, and use of interjections and interruptions” (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 222). Being made up of all of these aspects, fluency is commonly regarded as the attribute that reflects the outcome of language learning the most. This is why becoming fluent speakers embodies the major aim of the majority of language learners (Chambers, 1997).

2.3.5. Comprehension

Comprehension is the ability to elicit meaning from the messages one receives, enabling one to act in response to the intended meaning of the comprehended message. It is an intricate process that requires a set of cognitive operations including recognition, perceptions, and inferencing (Thornbury, 2010). Accounting for its role in maintaining speech, Harris (1988)

asserted that the aforementioned speaking components cannot operate unless the element of comprehension is present. It is the component that is involved in the use of pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary and fluency to fulfill effective speaking of the language.

2.4. The Speaking Competence

In the context of foreign language learning, the majority of learners set developing their speaking skill as a top priority. It is mostly the standard against which they evaluate the extent to which learning takes place (Richards, 2008). In this respect, Bygate (2009) advocated that speaking as a skill to be developed in language learning proves to be a daunting task. According to him, succeeding in enhancing learners' abilities to read and write in a foreign language does not necessarily entail success in improving the speaking ability.

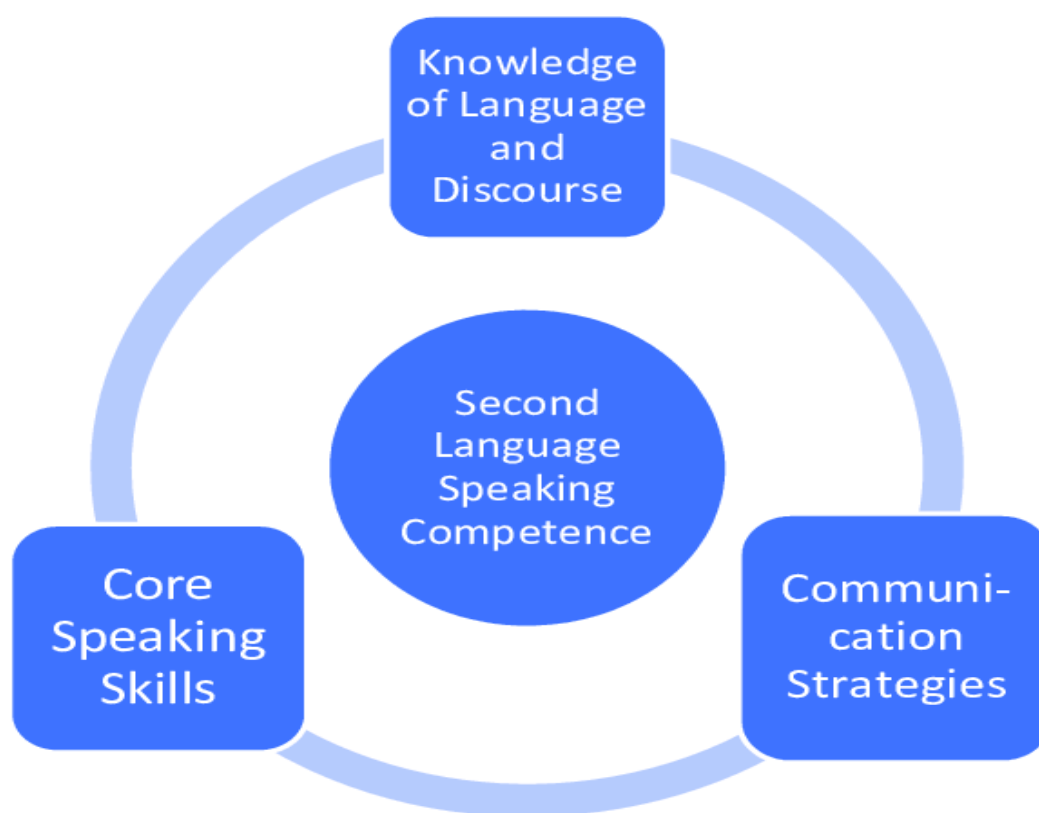
The fundamental goal of carrying out the teaching of speaking is fostering learners' speaking competence (Bailey, 2005). This concept is referred to as the aggregate of knowledge, skills, and strategies needed to be developed in learners in order for them to speak effectively (Goh & Burns, 2012). As such, it is of utmost significance that teachers orient attention towards dissecting the constituents of speaking competence and work on enhancing students' abilities of each constituent sporadically. This is best illustrated in the words of Goh and Burns (2012):

To teach speaking effectively, as teachers, you need to understand what speaking competence entails. You also need to know how different aspects of speaking competence relate to one another. This lesson will help you plan and deliver your lessons that develop your approach learners' speaking ability in a balanced and comprehensive way. It will also help you approach teaching materials you work with in an informed and critical manner. (p.49)

Therefore, it can be deduced that coming into terms with the underpinning pillars of speaking competence epitomizes the starting point of a successful teaching process. Its understanding permits the teacher to go through effective lesson planning, materials selection, lesson presentation, and assessment practices in conformity with the theoretical conceptualization he attaches to the notion of speaking competence.

Figure 3

Aspects of Second Language Speaking Competence



Note. From *Teaching Speaking: A Holistic Approach*, p. 53, by C. Goh and A. Burns, 2012, Cambridge University Press. Copyright 2012.

As demonstrated in in **Figure 3**, Goh and Burns (2012) demarcated three major areas that coalesce to make up the core of speaking competence. They are further discussed in the following account.

2.4.1. Knowledge of Language and Discourse

It covers learners' knowledge of the language in terms of grammar, phonology, lexis and discourse. Having adequate background of these four areas is a prerequisite in order for learners to speak correctly and appropriately.

- Grammatical Knowledge: the knowledge of how to mold utterances into grammatical and syntactic patterns to create meaning.
- Phonological Knowledge: the knowledge of the sound system of the spoken language including correct pronunciation.
- Lexical Knowledge: the knowledge of words and their meanings. This is in addition to the knowledge of the semantic relationship between the vocabulary items of the language.
- Discourse Knowledge: the knowledge of the communicative function and the context in which the spoken discourse is produced and their impact on the structures of the spoken instances of language.

2.4.2. Core Speaking Skills

It is an umbrella term that includes a set of skills that serves proceduralizing the declarative knowledge of language and discourse. Core speaking skills are divided into four salient categories (pronunciation, speech function, interaction management, and discourse

organization) that permit drawing a map for practitioners to develop learners' practical skills that are embedded in the speaking competence.

- Pronunciation Skills: skills that enable the learner to articulate words and phrases clearly so that they are effortlessly recognized and understood by the listener. This incorporates the ability to pronounce vowels and consonants correctly in addition to command over the appropriate use of intonation and stress.

- Speech Function Skills: skills that enable the learner to manage the expression and interpretation of the assorted functions of language such as: explaining, asking, offering, accepting, and refusing.

- Interaction Management skills: skills that enable the learner to be in control of the interaction and not only producing language. This array of skills permits the learner to manage the maintenance of conversation, the offering of turns, the clarification of meaning, and the understanding of non-verbal cues.

- Discourse Organization Skills: skills that enable the learner to keep the spoken discourse within accepted sociocultural and linguistic conventions. Added to this, discourse organization skills entail the use of coherence and cohesion amongst the different parts of the discourse in addition to the correct use of discourse markers.

2.4.3. Communication Strategies

Due to the fact that most of speaking interaction goes unplanned, learners find themselves required to develop a variety of strategies to which they can resort when they face problems of expression or interpretation of messages. These strategies bear the appellation of 'communicative

strategies'. Basically, the major aim of using these strategies is the maintenance of communication flow and avoiding breakdowns. They fall within three main categories.

- Cognitive Strategies: used to make up for gaps at the level of carrying the intended meaning that are caused by deficiencies in lexis and pertinent linguistic aspects. Good cases in point of this type of strategies are the use of paraphrasing and the use of formulaic language.

- Metacognitive Strategies: used to reflect upon the process of speech production and how to make it more effective. To this end, learners are compelled to foster the adoption of strategies such as planning what to speak, self-monitoring the transmitted messages during speech, and evaluating the performance after speaking.

- Interactional Strategies: used to engage the interlocutors in order to alleviate obstacles in communicating meaning. Hence, to keep the interaction efficient, it is of essence to rely on strategies like: repetition, clarification requests, confirmation and comprehension checks, and exemplification.

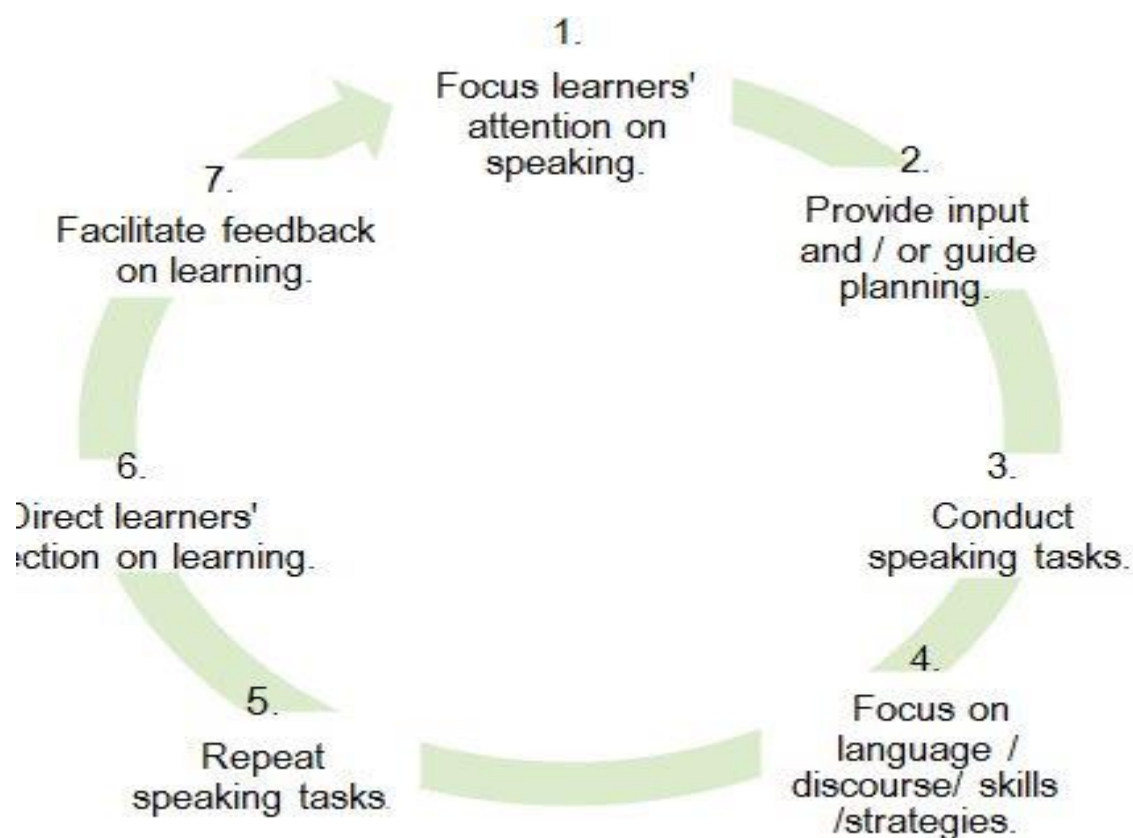
2.5. The Teaching-Speaking Cycle

As posited by Goh and Burns (2012), the vast majority of the practices that underpin teaching speaking are characterized by a dearth of focus on the way learners react and reflect on the instruction which they receive. As such, it is of essence to draw a teaching framework that devotes equal significance to teachers' teaching and learners' learning. In light of this, Goh and Burns developed what is termed the teaching speaking cycle (**Figure 4**). According to them, it is a framework that involves a sequence of activities that take place in seven stages. Through these stages, it is aimed at making learners understand the purpose of their learning, relying on their

teachers' ability to facilitate and guide the whole process. The stages are explained in the following.

Figure 4

The Teaching-Speaking Cycle



Note. From “Concepts for Teaching Speaking in the English Language Classroom,” by A. Burns, 2019, *LEARN Journal: Language Education and Acquisition Research Network*, 12(1), p. 6.
Copyright 2019.

2.5.1. Focus Learners' Attention on Speaking

This initial stage is meant to prepare learners for receiving the actual instruction that hinges on the provision of input. Increasing learners' metacognitive awareness of speaking is the major aim that this stage strives to fulfill. To this end, practitioners tend to deploy a variety of strategies to develop learners' capacity of planning for the development of their speaking skill and meeting its requirements. Added to this, the tasks to be part of the teaching cycle are presented at this stage so that learners become familiar with the expected outcomes of the task and the best ways to achieve them.

2.5.2. Provide Input and/ or Guide planning

This stage is regarded as one of the most vital phases in the teaching speaking cycle. This is mainly because it is devised with the purpose of lowering learners' levels of the anxiety accompanying their speaking endeavors. Differently put, providing input and guiding planning allows for learners to prepare themselves in terms of the content they are about to perform and how to do so. Amongst all the stages, this stage is the one that serves learners' scaffolding the most.

2.5.3. Conduct Speaking Tasks

The third stage is concerned with carrying out the speaking task to attain its communicative ends. This is likely to take place once students are offered a context wherein spoken language can be sufficiently practiced. In this respect, light is shed on inciting learners to engage in the communicative task without consideration of their linguistic background. Although accuracy cannot be overlooked in the teaching of speaking, encouraging learners' expression of meaning and focus on fluency is the main objective at this stage.

2.5.4. Focus on Language Discourse /Skills/ Strategies

By nature, this stage draws upon much of what is practiced in the precedent stage. Focus is no longer attributed to fluency; instead, accuracy is what is brought into play. Hence, teachers are compelled to account for the analysis of the spoken instances of language that learners produce with an eye on enhancing their accuracy. In addition, learners are oriented towards the most crucial skills and strategies that they are required to deploy for a better speaking performance.

2.5.5. Repeat Speaking Tasks

As suggested by the appellation, the fifth stage in the cycle at issue is an opportunity for learners to duplicate the communicative tasks that are dealt with in the stage of ‘conduct speaking task’. Of course, the performance at this level is expected to become better in comparison with the first endeavor. This is generally resultant of the analysis and guidance received in the fourth stage, allowing for learners to show more control over their fluency, accuracy, and the use of skills and strategies.

2.5.6. Direct Learners’ Reflection on Learning

Through this stage, it is aimed at fostering learners’ self-directed learning. As such, they are encouraged to be in charge of evaluating the efficiency of their learning and spotting the weaknesses to be worked on. In spite of the involvement of the teacher for guidance purposes, reflection on learning can be carried out individually, in pairs, or even in groups. Collective work in this context is said to widen learners’ metacognitive knowledge of planning for enhancing learning, and it serves alleviating the stress emanating of the continuous reflection operation.

2.5.7. Facilitate Feedback on Learning

Learners are eventually provided with a sort of feedback that touches upon their performance across all the stages of the cycle. Seeking the enhancement of learners' performance when engaged in other cycles, the teacher proffers their feedback in various ways. This can be through commenting or assigning grades to the performance throughout the task (carried out in stage 3). Besides, teachers are required to make use of the written reflections that are produced by themselves or by learners as another way through which they provide feedback.

2.6. Activities to Teach Speaking

Given the variety that is associated with the nature of the speaking skill, an array of teaching activities are frequently deployed by teachers in an attempt to enhance learners' proficiency in the skill at issue. The utility of these activities, in this respect, stems from their involvement of the majority of speaking functions addressed by language speakers outside the context of the classroom (Nation, 1989). Many researchers including Lazarton (2001) and Bailey (2005) highlighted a set of classroom activities to which practitioners generally resort. The following is an account of those.

2.6.1. Discussions

According to Lazarton (2001), the technique termed discussions is one of the most ubiquitous techniques that teachers prefer to use in the teaching of speaking. What distinguishes the use of discussions is the incorporation of other language skills like reading or listening. That is to say, prior to discussing a certain topic, learners are exposed to a written text that they read or an audio to which they listen to become familiar with the topic of discussion. After spotting the

main points elicited from the provided input, the learners engage in the process expressing their standpoints enabling themselves to work their speaking skill.

2.6.2. Role Plays

Nickel (2018) advocated that the use of role plays as a classroom activity offers a variety of positive bearings on the teaching process. Role plays are characterized by being communicative in nature, effective, flexible, and very much similar to everyday situations. In the same way, Ladousse (1987) highlighted the major justifications as to why role plays are recommended in teaching speaking as enumerated below.

- Role play proffers students with variety of experience as regards the use of novel structures and functions of the language. This is said to enable the language learner to cope with the new situations that they might encounter outside the classroom;
- Role plays allow learners to be exposed to various situations that require the use of social skills to maintain effective speaking.
- Role plays prepare learners for the target situation in which they intend to use the language that they are learning. It permits them to experience situations in which they are compelled to use specific language in the same way they do in their real life.
- Role plays are a source of motivation for shy learners. This type of learners finds in role plays an opportunity to use the language without necessarily demonstrating their real personality, which might be the source of their inhibition in the first place.

2.6.3. Speeches

Speeches are prepared talks that learners work on ahead of the speaking session to be delivered within the session as an activity to teach speaking. As for the content of speeches, topics are generally selected by teachers in congruence with the subjective and objective needs of the learner. However, it is highly recommended that learners' interests should be taken into consideration, so that they become more motivated to perform the activity. One salient role of the teacher in this activity is involving the listeners by assigning minor tasks such as peer evaluation. This is undertaken to alleviate the issue of boredom amongst the learners and to lower the anxiety of the one delivering the speech. Speeches allow for learners to discuss a variety of topics using the language they learn. This activity offers the learners chances to be provided with feedback resulting from teachers' assessment or peer assessment (Lazarton, 2001).

2.6.4. Interviews

According to Kayi (2006), the use of interviews in the teaching of speaking is quite significant in the process of practicing the speaking ability of learners. Learners have an array of topics to discuss through formulating questions and providing various responses depending on the nature of the question. In this regard, teachers' contribution cannot be wholly disregarded as they ought to clarify the guidelines to be followed by learners and guide them throughout the interview. In the same way, Lazarton, (2001) underscored the use of interviews owing to the fact that they serve students' command over the use of questions as part of their spoken language.

The availability of different speaking activities resulted in a plight for teachers as to which criteria they should hinge on in order for them to select the activities that suit learners the most. Ur (1996) identified a set of characteristics that every speaking activity ought to meet.

According to him, in practice, it is extremely obfuscated to design an activity that complies with all these attributes. Nonetheless, teachers are required to opt for activities that contain most of the following characteristics.

- *Learners Talk a lot*: as learners are directly involved in the process of speaking, much of the time allocated to the speaking activity is devoted to learners' talk.

- *Participation is even*: during the activity no student is allowed to monopolize the talk. All learners should equally be provided with opportunities to speak.

- *Motivation is high*: the speaking activity is compelled to be motivating by nature. This is a prerequisite for learning to take place.

- *Language is of an acceptable level*: the language used in the activity, both by teachers and learners, should be simple and compatible with the students' level.

2.7. EFL Learners' Difficulties in Speaking

It cannot be denied that EFL learners are arguably prone to a diversity of challenges in the course of developing their speaking skill. As a result of this, many researchers (Shalihah et al., 2022; Tuan & Mai, 2015; Ur, 1996) have excessively brought this concern into play, aiming at highlighting the major types of difficulties faced by learners to speak a foreign language effectively. As per Ur (1996), teachers are required to be heedful of the most problematic challenges that endanger learners' achievement. In so doing, they are likely to proffer the most convenient solutions to these challenges. These latter are, according to Ur, narrowed down into the subsequent problems.

2.7.1. Inhibition

One of the major challenges that learners encounter while speaking a foreign language is the condition termed inhibition. It refers to the state wherein the learner is worried about committing language errors in front of an audience, be it the teacher or the classmates. Further, inhibition is linked to the fear of criticism and the lack of self-esteem on the part of the learners. Brown (2005) assured that the condition of inhibition negatively impacts learners' speaking ability. This is because it deters them from taking risk and leads them to avoid engaging in certain communicative tasks.

2.7.2. Nothing to Say (Lack of Topical Knowledge)

EFL learners tend commonly to complain about the concern of not having enough information to impart through speaking. This is one of the main reasons behind their reluctance to practice their spoken language, and in turn, achieve speaking proficiency (Ur, 1996). Similarly, Baker and Westrup (2003) underscored this problem as having significant impact on learners' achievement in speaking. They stated that students fail to enhance their speaking skills whenever they are unable to decide upon the ideas to convey in addition to the lexis and grammar to deploy.

2.7.3. Low or Uneven Participation

Per Tuan and Mai (2015), another problem that is faced by students and teachers alike is the lack of opportunities of practice during the speaking class. Most especially, in large groups, time is merely adequate for few learners to speak at the cost of others; this is likely to impinge on the level of those who do not often participate communicatively. Accounting for this, Ur (1996) advocated that this barrier stems from the propensity of some learners to be in charge of the

whole talk as part of their personality. Obviously, practitioners are required in, such situations, to manipulate students' participation and provide all the learners with equal chances to speak.

2.7.4. Mother Tongue Use

It is a matter of fact that the mother tongue cannot be overlooked in the process of foreign language learning in general and foreign language speaking in particular (Butzkamm, 2003; Ellis, 2015; Zhao, 2019). In the context of barriers to speaking, Ur (1996) indicated that most learners have the propensity to use their native language to express themselves as it is effortless by nature. Therefore, the inability to maintain the use of the target language (the foreign language) by students is undoubtedly a huge challenge for teachers to deal with. Teachers, in this respect, should work on minimizing the use of the mother tongue in parallel with supporting the use of the target language even if learners complain about its difficulty.

2.8. Factors Affecting Learners' Achievement in Speaking

Germane to the study of learners' achievement in speaking is the analysis of the most prominent factors that have a say in the performance of students. This is tenable by dint of the probe that in order for teachers to enhance the speaking ability of their learners, they first ought to be completely aware of what issues are underpinning the final production of learners' speech (Thornbury, 2013). In this regard, the factors that affect learners' speaking are, in broad terms, of a cognitive, social, and affective nature (Burns, 2019). In an attempt to demonstrate these factors, Tuan and Mai (2015) proffered a set of five major factors that are directly linked to learners' achievement in speaking. This set includes: performance conditions, listening ability, topical knowledge, feedback during speaking activities, and affective factors.

2.8.1. Performance Conditions

The first factor that has a say in learners' achievement in speaking is the aggregate of circumstances in which the speaking endeavor is undertaken. These conditions have proved substantial in influencing the quality of learners' speaking performance to a great extent. For further details, Nation and Newton (2009) demarcated the most significant performance conditions to be considered by students and teachers.

- Planning: it is a crucial phase in conducting speaking tasks. This stage is said to be of paramount importance in determining the quality of learners' performance. A good case in point is that planning aids at enhancing the levels of fluency, accuracy, and grammatical complexity. As such, it is of essence for teachers to consider the significance of planning in the learning process and focus on adopting it in their teaching practices and speaking tasks in particular. .

- Time Pressure: the issue of time allocated to the completion of a speaking task is undoubtedly an influencing factor in SA. Obviously, having sufficient time enables learners to organize their thoughts and pay attention to the linguistic features of their output such as grammar and lexis. Ergo, in order for teachers to secure satisfying performance on the part of learners, they are required to allocate convenient time to the tasks they offer.

- Amount of Support: it is a matter of fact that speaking requires the interaction with interlocutors to whom messages are transmitted. In this regard, the listener is deemed a source of support for the speaker, and the extent to which this support is demonstrated affects the performance of learners. Be it by the teacher himself or the other learners, support to the speaker can be fostered through the enhancement of supportive strategies like asking directive questions and providing enough wait time.

- Standard of Performance: by standard of performance, it is referred to the expected level to be reached by the learner while performing the speaking task. In other words, it is the set of criteria that the performance of the learner ought to meet. In this respect, the difficulty or the simplicity of the task requirements has a crucial role to play in learners' achievement. The more demanding the task is, the more pressure is put on the learner, and the more affected is his performance. Teachers are, therefore, compelled to set a standard of performance that is compatible with learners' needs and levels.

2.8.2. Listening Ability

According to Yavuz and Celik (2017), "Listening skills have been a great concern for language teaching theoreticians and teachers since it is regarded as one of the prior conditions of oral output in language learning process" (p.9). Differently put, learners' listening ability is believed to be a crucial contributor to the enhancement of speaking skills as it is a source of exposure that students rely on to build their communicative competence. Similarly, Shumin (2010) advocated that listening is the activity that precedes speaking and sustains it with what is needed to be completed. In this sense, it is posited that speakers do naturally respond to oral messages that they comprehend; this makes their listening abilities pivotal as they are not normally able to react to utterances that they cannot understand.

2.8.3. Topical Knowledge

As stated by Tuan & Mai (2015), topical knowledge signifies the speaker's knowledge of adequate information pertinent to the topic being discussed. It epitomizes the source of thoughts that speaker strives to express through the use of spoken instances of language. Huang et al. (2018) described topical knowledge as "the knowledge repertoire with which individuals produce

and interpret language” (p. 30). This is to denote the significance of this type of knowledge as an inherent element in the performance of learners. In the same way, Bachman and Palmer (1996) argued that topical knowledge, coupled with other factors of language knowledge and affective schemata, is a pivotal constituent of speakers’ performance; it has a determinant role to play as learners with larger topical knowledge are likely to perform more effectively than those with little knowledge of the topic.

2.8.4. Feedback during Speaking Activities

Feedback is a quite significant part of language teaching as it serves deterring learners from using the language incorrectly (Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013; Oliver & Mackey, 2003). By dint of this significance, feedback received much attention as regards its impact on learners’ speaking performance. According to Harmer (2006), the provision of feedback to learners is a daunting task for teachers as it should be carried out without breaking down the flow of communication. That is to say, teachers are required to be aware of when and how to offer feedback avoiding correcting mistakes each time the learner commits them. It is therefore argued that learners’ performance in speaking can greatly be affected by the extent to which the teacher is adept at selecting the most convenient manner and timing of error correction

2.8.5. Affective Factors

The last factor that is said to have substantial bearings on learners’ achievement in speaking encompasses a multiplicity of elements that has an affective nature (Burns, 2019). Per Krashen (1982; as cited in Tuan & Mai, 2015), the major affective variables that can commonly be attached to learners’ performance in speaking are: motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety.

- Motivation: it plays a vital role in speaking performance. Motivated learners are likely to get involved in speaking interaction and, in turn, develop their speaking ability. Demotivated students, on the other hand, are believed to have more barriers to the enhancement of their speaking skill as the desire to improve is lacking.
- Self-Confidence: speaking is an activity that requires learners to possess high levels of self-confidence. Being confident allows the learner to take risks and push output without concentrating on the reaction of their classmates or the teacher. Practicing the input contributes to enhancing the speaking skill.
- Anxiety: it is a determining factor of learners' performance in speaking. It is argued that learners with high levels of anxiety commonly encounter difficulties in achievement in speaking. These negative feelings interfere with students' ability to express themselves and use the appropriate instances of language to do so.

2.9. Assessing Speaking

As a result of the variety of factors that creates the impression on how good is someone's speaking, the assessment of such a crucial skill proves to be surrounded with complexity. Targeting the provision of accurate scores of student's performance, assessors have employed various procedures attempting to achieve consensus over the best methods as to how speaking should be assessed (Brown, 2001; Brown, 2005; Luoma, 2004). In this respect, Thornbury (2013) indicated that the process of assessing speaking is much more complicated than the assessment of grammar or written instances of the language. This is due to the fact that speaking tests are not effortlessly feasible as they are time consuming, disrupting by nature, and lacking consensus in terms of criteria. Thornbury (2013) maintained that testers hold assorted perspectives as to what

criteria should be set for speaking tests, which results in difficulties that are less encountered in written grammar tests.

Ginther (2012) argued that coming into grips with the assessment of speaking entails drawing attention to its major methods, scales and raters. They maintained that a clear method of assessment should be clarified in order for information about learners' performance to be clearly elicited. According to Thornbury (2013), there are two main types of assessment that are utilized in judging learners' speaking performance: holistic assessment and analytical assessment. The former refers to the type of assessment wherein the assessor provides a given score that gauges the performance upon an overall performance. Conversely, the latter refers to the type of assessment wherein the assessor proffers a score for various components of the whole performance. Examples of these components include: grammar and vocabulary, pronunciation, discourse management, and interactive communication.

It is of essence to demarcate the major types of speaking performance tasks on the basis of which the procedures of assessment are undertaken. To this end, it is worth referring to Brown (2006) who advocated that oral production does mainly fall within one of the subsequent categories.

- Imitative: the aim of oral production within this category is to mimic certain instances of spoken language, be it a word, a phrase, or sentence. Focus is merely attributed to the phonetic level at the expense of the test taker's ability to convey meaning or to take part in effective communicative interactions.

- Intensive: it refers to the production of short stretches targeting the demonstration of command over the relationships linking the utterances underlying the produced stretch; these relationships

can be of a grammatical, lexical, or phonological nature. Common tasks that make up the core of this type of speaking include: reading aloud, dialogue completion, picture-cued tasks, in addition to directed response tasks.

- Responsive: Tests that are designed to assess learners' ability of responsive speaking entail a minimum of interaction. That is to say, a speaking prompt is deployed as a stimulus to which the test taker responds in the form of short talks and comments. The use of such prompts is meant to ensure the authenticity of the utterances to which learners respond correspondingly.

- Interactive: just like responsive speaking, interactive speaking requires the inclusion of interaction within the tasks. Nonetheless, the latter is demarcated from the former on the basis of the length and complexity of interactions. Within this category, interactions might involve several participants and various exchanges in the same interaction. These exchanges serve two main functions which are conveying specific information (transactional) or maintaining social relationships (interpersonal) (Brown, 2005)

- Extensive (Monologue): it incorporates oral production that takes the form of storytelling, oral presentations, and speeches. In tests that include monologues, interaction is as minimized as possible; listeners are preferably not allowed to take part through speaking in order for the test-taker's ability to maintain extensive speaking to be assessed. What characterizes the type at issue is the need for deliberate planning that the learner carries out prior to the actual performance of monologues as part of their test.

Central to the foregoing is the assessors' quest for yielding scores that can be commonly described as dependable. In this regard, Luoma (2004) asserted that a variety of qualities are inherently associated with effective tests of speaking including reliability, validity, and

practicality. First, the speaking test should be reliable in the sense that the scores elicited are consistent if the test is duplicated several times. To ensure reliability, raters are engaged in training sessions in order for them to enhance their competence as regards yielding reliable scores. Second, validity is another characteristic that underpins dependable speaking ratings. A speaking test is labeled as valid when it is meaningful to what the learners have been taught; simply put, students cannot be assessed in skills and competencies that have not been accounted for in the teaching phase. Third, speaking tests, as it is the case with all types of tests, must be practical. This is mainly related to the availability of resources that enables the test to take place including practical materials and appropriate time allocation.

Conclusion

As speaking embodies the language skill that reflects language performance the most, this chapter set out to unravel the major issues that are pertinent to SA. Throughout the chapter, the speaking skill was addressed to emphasize its intricate nature by means of accounting for its major components including grammar pronunciation vocabulary fluency and comprehension. Further, in this chapter, attention was ascribed to the teaching of speaking as a language skill to EFL learners. This allowed exploring the variety of processes involved in the cycle of teaching speaking paying heed to the most fundamental principles and activities that make up the teaching-learning process as a whole. Across the sections of the chapter, the major factors that have bearings on the learning of speaking were scrutinized; these factors vary between what is cognitive and affective in nature. Ultimately, it was attempted to highlight the main difficulties learners encounter in learning speaking in addition to most prominent strategies and factors pertinent to the assessment of SA.

CHAPTER THREE

Understanding Emotional Intelligence: A Theoretical Overview

Introduction	67
3.1. Definition of EI	67
3.2. Models of EI	70
3.2.1. Ability Models	70
3.2.1.1. Salovey and Mayer’s Original Model.....	70
1.2.1.1.1. Appraisal and Expression of Emotions	72
3.2.1.1.2. Regulation of Emotions.....	72
3.2.1.1.3. Utilization of Emotions	73
3.2.1.2. Salovey and Mayer’s Revised Model.....	73
3.2.1.2.1. Perceiving Emotions.....	75
3.2.1.2.2. Using Emotions to Facilitate Thought.....	75
3.2.1.2.3. Understanding Emotions	76
3.2.1.2.4. Managing Emotions	76
3.2.2. Mixed Models of EI	77
3.2.2.1. Bar-On’s Emotional-Social Intelligence Model.....	77
3.2.2.1.1. Intrapersonal Skills	78
3.2.2.1.2. Interpersonal Skills	78
3.2.2.1.3. Adaptability	79
3.2.2.1.4. Stress Management	79
3.2.2.1.5. General Mood	80
3.2.2.2. Goleman’s Model	80
3.2.2.2.1. Self-Awareness.....	83
3.2.2.2.2. Self-Management.....	83
3.2.2.2.3. Social Awareness	84
3.2.2.2.4. Relationship Management	84
3.2.3. Trait Emotional Intelligence Models	85
3.3. Measuring EI	88
3.3.1. Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT)	89
3.3.2. Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT).....	90
3.3.3. Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i)	91
3.3.4. Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue)	93
3.4. Developing EI.....	94

3.5. EI in Higher Education.....96

3.6. EI, Language Learning, and PSA: A Review of Previous Studies.....97

Conclusion.....106

Introduction

It cannot be denied that the everlasting process of generating knowledge is based upon the human thirst for exploring the major factors that contribute to a better life. In this regard, the concept of intelligence is widely prone to examination as an inherent factor leading to success in general. To the same end, the role that emotions play cannot be overlooked they have determinant bearings on the process of reaching any given purpose regardless of the area in which one operates. The emergence of the concept of emotional intelligence (EI, henceforth), which draws upon both intelligence and emotions, is believed to be of substantial significance amongst scholars and researchers in the field of psychology as it is associated with various aspects of life that they continually seek to enhance. By the same token, it is necessitated to account for the theoretical grounds on the basis of which EI stands through reviewing its literature from a diversity of standpoints. This is achieved by means of introducing the concept and its major theories of conceptualization and measurement in addition to examining its significance in higher education and language learning as part from the present study as a whole.

3.1. Definition of EI

Notwithstanding the fact that much attention is accorded to the concept of EI (Zeidner et al., 2009), it is still obfuscated for one to proffer an undisputable definition of this construct. Matthews and Zeidner (2018) described EI to be subsumed within those concepts which one is likely to find easier to recognize than to define clearly. Casting light on the term per se, Freshman and Rubino (2002) reported that the term was officially coined in 1990 by the psychologists Salovey and Mayer who are commonly deemed as the founding fathers of the construct of EI that can be somewhat described as scientific. However, this does not by any means imply that

Salovey and Mayer were the first to use the term as it was utilized in precedent philosophical and religious texts without a scientific basis and referred to as a mere ability of controlling feelings (Matthews & Zeidner, 2018).

The emergence of the concept of EI is the corollary outcome of longitudinal research and psychological practice stirred by dissatisfaction, among psychologists and researchers, with conventional views of intelligence as an essential human ability (Zeidner et al., 2009). This is clearly illustrated in the revolutionizing book written by David Goleman (1996) *“Emotional Intelligence: why it can matter more than IQ”*. This book allowed for the spread of tentative tries to introduce EI as a psychological construct which merits equal, if not more, attention to traditional intelligence that is embodied in intelligence quotient (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000).

As put by Stein (2009), a variety of definitions are linked to EI as different psychologists perceive it from a multiplicity of perspectives. According to Salovey and Mayer (1990), EI is known as “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 actions” (p.9). This pioneering definition suggests that EI is not confined to a given person’s ability to manage their feelings merely; it rather transcends to bring within its limits the ability to monitor others’ feeling. Together, these abilities are said to be invested in guiding actions and behaviors towards the better. In their attempt to reach a more comprehensive definition, Salovey and Mayer (1997) extended their views about EI to render it involve a capacity of perceiving emotions that is inherently linked to the ability of assimilating emotions and the information they carry with the purpose of managing them effectively. In this respect, it seems tenable to emphasize the probe that EI can be deemed an encompassing term under which fall several abilities, namely emotions perception, emotions assimilation and emotions management.

In line with Mayer and Salovey's premise, David Goleman (1995) provided a list of features which describe EI as a combination of abilities. These include:

- The ability of recognizing and handling feelings;
- The ability of contriving to avoid being overwhelmed by emotions;
- The ability of motivating oneself to perform at the highest levels;
- The ability of sensing others' feelings and harnessing relationships with them.

Goleman summed up the foregoing in their description of EI 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" (1998, p. 317). In light of this, it can be deduced that the major figures who contributed to labeling the construct of EI agree on its being of a multidimensional nature subsuming a variety of capacities and competencies that coalesce to form it as a whole.

In Bar-On's view, EI is, for the most part, that type of intelligence which includes a set of non-cognitive competencies, abilities and skills which in, a direct way, have bearings on persons' capacities to adapt to environmental needs and challenges (2006). By this, Bar-On suggests that it is mandatory to bring into the limelight the role of EI as a required attribute in humans' everlasting process of coping with the environment in which they live. This view is congruent with what the previously mentioned scholars posited in the sense that it ensures the multidimensionality with which the construct, at issue, is characterized.

In a working definition which merges the aforementioned accounts, it is plausible to perceive EI as a human attribute that involves the capacity of recognizing one's and others' feelings, controlling and managing emotions, using emotions to build social relationships, and

motivating to manage and emotions . It is, thus, a set of competencies that can be utilized for coping with environmental difficulties and building strong relationships amongst people.

3.2. Models of EI

It is indicated in the precedent section that EI intelligence can be defined in a variety of ways depending on the various angles through which it is perceived. This, in turn, suggests the existence of several models that attempt to cater for the conceptualization of the construct. As such, the literature concerned with it generated three salient categories of models that are commonly known as ability models, mixed Model, and trait models.

3.2.1. Ability Models

Much that is known about the ability model of EI was yielded in the 1990s by means of a sequence of articles authored by the progenitors of this model named Salovey and Mayer (Mayer et al., 1999). These articles allowed for the conceptualization of EI as a cognitive ability that is treated akin to any other human cognitive ability and that is basically contingent on the processing of information carried through emotions (Fiori & Vesely-Maillefer, 2018).

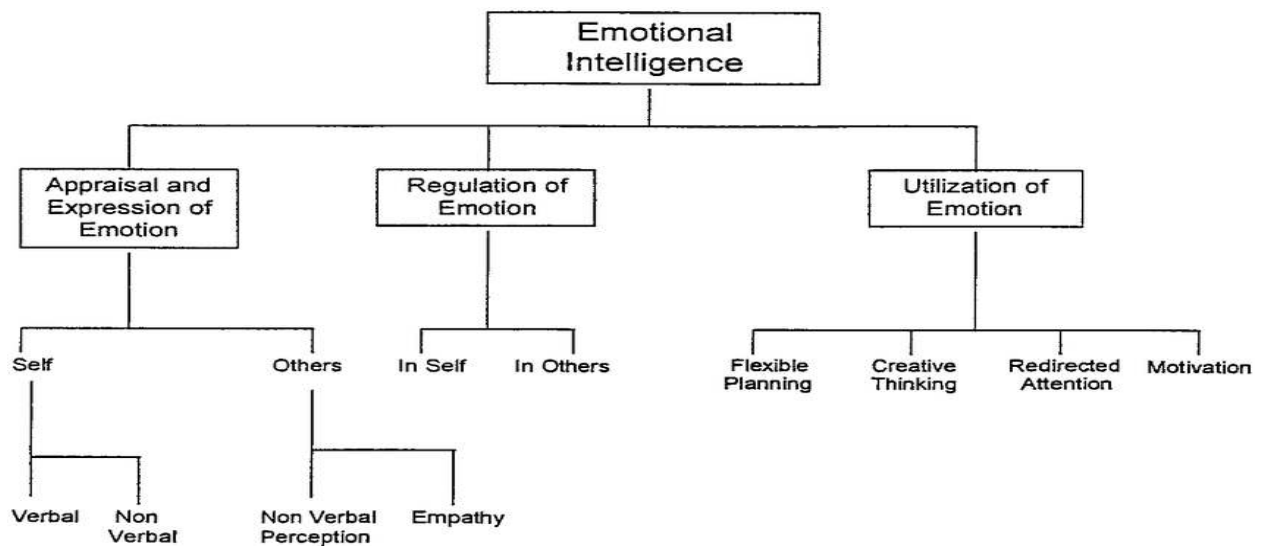
3.2.1.1. Salovey and Mayer's Original Model

Salovey and Mayer's original model is commonly construed as a first attempt to conceptualize EI by means of drawing on what the literature prolifically proffered as regards the concepts of emotions and intelligence (Neubauer & Freudenthaler, 2005). As such, this model represents a vital reference in the studies of EI, and that is why it requires being brought into play so often.

According to Mayer and Salovey (1990), EI is made up of a set of mental processes which convey emotional information that is utilized by people to manage their behaviors. In these pioneering figures' words, "The mental processes include: a) appraising and expressing emotions in the self and others, b) regulating emotion in the self and others, and c) using emotions in adaptive ways". (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p. 190-191). This is meant to demarcate the three main areas around which revolve the abilities of emotionally intelligent people, namely, expressing emotions, regulating emotions and using emotions. For illustration purposes, **Figure.5** is deployed.

Figure 5

Conceptualization of Emotional Intelligence



Note. From "Emotional Intelligence," by P, Salovey and J. Mayer, 1990, *Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, 9(3), p. 190. <https://doi.org/10.2190/DUGG-P24E-52WK-6CDG>. Copyright 1990

1.2.1.1.1. Appraisal and Expression of Emotions

As major processes that are inherently subsumed within EI, appraisal and expression of emotions imply their involvement in both oneself and others. That is to say, this pair of dimensions is concerned with the abilities of understanding and clearly demonstrating emotions that a person can feel in addition to those perceived in the people around them (Bitmiş & Ergeneli, 2014). In this regard, the aforementioned processes rely on several media through which they are undertaken. These media, in turn, depend on the level at which the expression and appraisal of emotions take place: in oneself or in others. As for the former, the means can be verbal, which entails the use of language to express and appraise emotions, or non-verbal, which mainly occurs through communication channels that imply the use of non-linguistic features such as facial expressions instead of language (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). As regards the latter, expressing and appraising emotions in others is contingent on non-verbal perception of emotions and empathy. By way of elaboration, non-verbal perception of emotions in others is deemed an essential element in the process of interpersonal cooperation allowing for alleviating barriers to the operation of communicating feelings amongst people. In turn, empathy holds a vital position among the attributes of emotionally intelligent behaviors being key to one's ability to experience the feelings of others when they are adequately understood (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

3.2.1.1.2. Regulation of Emotions

Just like the appraisal and expression of emotions, regulating emotions is not confined to the self merely; it is, also, meant to cover the regulation of others' emotions. Regulating one's mood generally takes place automatically, but there exist some situations that necessitate a set of meta experiences of the mood that occur consciously with the aim of maintaining positive moods

and minimizing the negative ones (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). As far as others are concerned, the main point lies in the ability of affecting other's moods and changing their reactions into desired ones (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). A good case in point is the impact exerted by teachers on their students being able to generate motivation amongst the least motivated learners; this ability is hence a typical characteristic of emotionally intelligent individuals.

3.2.1.1.3. Utilization of Emotions

This area rotates around the facility of making use of emotions in the process of problem solving wherein individuals diverge as regards their ability to harness emotions and orient their use towards the better (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). This ability is characterized by a multiplicity of merits as it enables one to generate future plans, integrate cognitive material better, focus on extremely pressing needs, and finally motivate performance in high stake tasks (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

As put by Neubauer and Freudenthaler (2005), individuals who are said to possess a high level of EI are, in turn, known as being more flexible in terms of their utilization of emotions. This is mainly due to the fact they are adept at flexible planning, creative thinking, redirecting attention, and motivation.

3.2.1.2. Salovey and Mayer's Revised Model

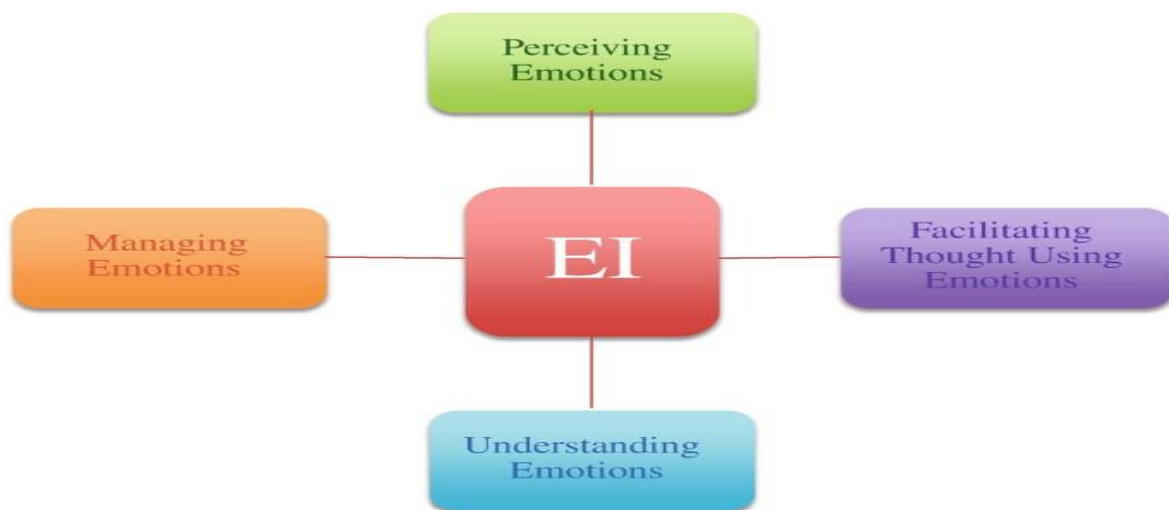
The continuous studies undertaken by Salovey and Mayer as regards the concept of EI brought about the provision of a revised model in 1997 known as the "Four Branch Model of Emotional Intelligence" (**Figure 6**). This model draws upon the original one and adds to it some further refinements that are, for the most part, embodied in the addition of what is termed "thinking about emotion" (Neubauer & Freudenthaler, 2005). This novel conceptualization

served at confining EI to being a pure mental ability that is clearly distinguishable from conventional social-emotional traits such as the Big Five personality traits and the likes of it (Neubauer & Freudenthaler, 2005).

Within the premise of the four-branch model, EI is deemed an aggregate of four main abilities whose existence is a prerequisite for one to be labeled as emotionally intelligent. These abilities are: perceiving emotion, using emotions to facilitate thought, understanding emotions, and managing emotions (Mayer et al., 2004).

Figure 6

The Mayer and Salovey (1997) Four-Branch Model of Emotional Intelligence (EI) Abilities



Note. From Emotional Intelligence as an Ability: Theory, Challenges, and New Directions In K. V. Keefer, J. D. A. Parker, & D. H. Saklofske (Eds.), Emotional intelligence in education: Integrating research with practice, p. 26, by M. Fiori and A. Vesely-Maillefer, 2018, Springer. Copyright 2018.

3.2.1.2.1. Perceiving Emotions

Central to this branch is the ability to get into grips with the variety of emotions that one senses in voices, faces, pictures, and so forth. In addition to that, this branch includes the ability of perceiving one's emotional states as a bedrock in order for processing emotional information to occur efficiently (Salovey & Grewal, 2005).

As put by Mayer and Salovey (1997), the branch of perceiving emotions in the self and in others epitomizes the most essential element around which the construct of EI revolves. The residue of branches, though equally important, cannot be taken into earnest consideration if the process of perceiving emotions does not operate effectively.

3.2.1.2.2. Using Emotions to Facilitate Thought

Within this branch, attention is attributed to the ability of exerting palpable impact upon cognitive processes through the use of emotions. In other words, this branch entails making use of the most convenient emotions as one way to help people manipulate high order cognitive tasks such as inductive and deductive reasoning, decision making, and problem solving (Papadogiannis et al., 2009).

According to Keefer et al., (2018), it is tenable to acknowledge that those who are endowed with the skill of using emotions tend to set within priority the cognitive activities that better suits their emotional states. Besides, they are likely to undertake given alterations at the level of their mood to fit given situation in the course of their pursuit of contextual adaptation.

3.2.1.2.3. Understanding Emotions

As suggested by the terminology, understanding emotions is the branch that brings into play the ability to comprehend feelings in an adequate manner. It sets out to allow one to demarcate amongst the assorted relationships that exist among feelings (Salovey & Grewal, 2005). Hence, it is of essence to mention that this ability enables people to recognize even the slightest differences among the various emotional states which they often undergo.

Papadogiannis et al. (2009) advocated that understanding emotions does not merely concern itself with the comprehension of emotions and the relationships that conjoin them. Instead, it is further extended to subsume the facility of recognizing alterations and transitions through which certain emotions go. Simply put, the ability under consideration helps provide a clear picture as regards how a given emotional state evolves through time; consequently, this leads one to cope with those transitions in a more efficient way.

3.2.1.2.4. Managing Emotions

The fourth branch that constitutes Mayer and Salovey's model, managing emotions, is precisely devised as a means that enables people to achieve emotional growth (Neubauer & Freudenthaler, 2005). As such, this ability proves to be of paramount importance as it acts as a final step which complements the three preceding abilities.

As posited by Salovey and Grewal (2005), managing emotions refers to the ability of regulating emotions in the self and the other; it is that type of ability which aids at controlling emotions in difficult situations wherein much of feelings expression is at issue. Added to this, emotionally intelligent people, being equipped with this ability, have a natural propensity to

affect the emotions of others towards adopting more controlled emotions and avoiding losing temper or reacting in aggressive manners.

3.2.2. Mixed Models of EI

Of note, the mixed models of EI diverge from the ones labeled as ability models from the perspective that the mixed models are likely to adhere to a socio-emotional approach to the conceptualization of EI (Weinberger, 2002, as cited in Punia et al., 2015). As stated by Ugoani et al. (2015, p. 968), “mixed models of emotional intelligence combine mental ability with personality characteristics such as optimism and well-being”. That is to say, they tend to consider the personality attributes of individuals rather than orienting all the focus towards cognitive abilities. This is accounted for in further details within the following sections.

3.2.2.1. Bar-On’s Emotional-Social Intelligence Model

In the words of Bar on, the founding father of the Bar-On’ s model, “According to this model, emotional-social intelligence is an array of interrelated emotional and social competencies and skills that determine how effectively individuals understand and express themselves, understand others and relate with them, and cope with daily demands, challenges and pressures” (Bar-On, 2010. p, 57). This is to denote that the conceptualization of EI in the view of the Bar-On’s model is based upon the interrelation of a multiplicity of competencies and skills that are labeled as both emotional and social. The core idea of this model emphasizes the significance of these skills and competencies in coping with the different environmental demands as they allow for the expression of oneself in addition to the understanding and relating with others.

According to Fernández-Berrocal and Extremera (2006), Bar-On’ s model of emotional-social intelligence is perceived as a construct that is comprised of a set of emotional and

personality traits that come together to interact effectively within individuals. The fact that emotional-social intelligence merges between cognitive abilities and personality traits underscores the probe that “ Bar-On’s (1997) theoretical approach to EI is wider and more comprehensive than Mayer and Salovey’s model (1997).” (Fernández-Berrocal & Extremera, 2006. p, 8). This allows for the appearance of various standpoints that make use of different models considering the strengths that characterize each model at the expense of another.

Bar-On’s model sets out to come into grips with what is behind the probe that individuals that are endowed with EI are likely to perform better than others (Punia et al., 2015). In so doing, this model generates five factors that constitute emotional-social intelligence which are, in turn, divided into fifteen sub factors (Fernández-Berrocal & Extremera, 2006). These factors are intrapersonal skills, interpersonal skills, adaptability, stress management, and general mood.

3.2.2.1.1. Intrapersonal Skills

As the first factor of emotional-social intelligence, the term ‘intrapersonal skills’ refers to those skills which allow for the efficient recognition of one’ s emotions in addition to their effective management (Campayo-Muñoz et al., 2020). As such, being linked to oneself, the intrapersonal skills which are subsumed under this factor are: regard, self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, and self-actualization (Fernández-Berrocal & Extremera, 2006) . The whole of these skills serves at better understanding and management of the emotions within individuals themselves without the interruption of others.

3.2.2.1.2. Interpersonal Skills

As indicated through the term per se, interpersonal skills, unlike the intrapersonal skills, have to do with one’s relation with others. According to Duffy et al. (2004, p. 497), these skills

“focus on the effect of communication on another person”; they act as means through which one can recognize other emotions and, resultantly, be able to bond well with them. In the context of Bar-On’s emotional social intelligence, empathy, social responsibility, and interpersonal relationship make up the sub factors of interpersonal skills with which people known as emotionally intelligent are adequately equipped (Fernández-Berrocal & Extremera, 2006).

3.2.2.1.3. Adaptability

In its broadest sense, adaptability is referred to as individuals’ capacity to cope with novel circumstances and situations. It is the ability that permits to regulate emotions, cognition and behavior in an adaptive way reacting to unfamiliar situations (Martin, 2010, as cited in Martin, 2012). Bar-on introduced adaptability as the third factor of paramount importance in his theory of emotional social intelligence. This factor is meant to include three skills that enable people to cope with the emotional circumstances they encounter on a daily basis, namely reality testing, flexibility, and problem solving (Fernández-Berrocal & Extremera, 2006).

3.2.2.1.4. Stress Management

Stress management is an encompassing term under which falls a multiplicity of skills that act as a means through which people can deal with negative emotions and relieve themselves from any potential sources of stress (Kenny, 2001). In this respect, the domain of EI adopts stress management as a capacity which characterizes people with high levels of emotional-social intelligence. These people are endowed with two major subdivision of stress management known as stress tolerance and impulse control.

3.2.2.1.5. General Mood

As the last, but not least, factor in Bar-On's framework, general mood comprises two main sub dimensions that are optimism and happiness. Together, they have an impact on the ways in which an individual reacts to situations that require emotional and social intelligence (Fernández-Berrocal & Extremera, 2006). This is consonant with what is posited by Morris (1989) who indicated that moods have considerable bearings on the alteration of cognitive and emotional responses to various circumstances that entail certain levels of emotional-social intelligence.

3.2.2.2. Goleman's Model

According to Goleman (2000), this model is construed as a mixed model under the auspices of Mayer, Salovey and Caruso who argued that it combines a mixture of personality attributes and cognitive abilities. By dint of this, Goleman's model is generally accounted for amongst the models that are deemed mixed in addition to the well-known one presented by Bar-On.

In its inception, Golemans' model emerged in 1998 as the culmination of intensive studies carried out by its progenitor Daniel Goleman. These studies resulted in the conceptualization of EI as a multi-faceted dexterity that involves twenty five competencies organized in five main clusters. These clusters were identified as follows (Boyatzis et al., 2000):

- The Self Awareness Cluster: this cluster involves three vital competencies termed emotional awareness, accurate self-assessment, and self-confidence;
- The self-Regulation Cluster: as the second cluster introduced by Goleman, self-regulation includes self-control, conscientiousness, trustworthiness, adaptability, and innovation;

- The Motivation Cluster: it is made up of commitment, initiative, achievement drive and optimism as its building blocks;
- The Empathy Cluster: understanding others, developing others, service orientation, leveraging diversity, and political awareness stand as the competencies which constitute the empathy cluster.
- The Social Cluster: the last group includes influence, communication, conflict management, leadership, change catalyst, building bonds, collaboration and cooperation, and, finally, team capabilities.

The five clusters model represented Goleman's early attempts of conceptualizing EI. Subsequently, with the support of statistical studies undertaken by Boyatzis in 2000, Goleman proffered a refined version of his model that is made up of four major domains instead of five; they comprised a whole of twenty competencies rather than twenty-five as explained in the original model. These four domains are known as: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management (Goleman, 2001).

Table 2*Goleman 's Four Domains Model of Emotional Intelligence*

	Self (Personal Competence)	Other (Social Competence)
Recognition	Self-Awareness . Emotional Self Awareness . Accurate Self-Assessment . Self Confidence	Social Awareness . Empathy . Service Orientation . Organizational Awareness
Regulation	Self-Management . Emotional Self Control . Trustworthiness . Conscientiousness . Adaptability . Achievement Drive . Initiative	Relationship Management . Developing Others . Influence . Communication . Conflict Management . Visionary Leadership . Catalyzing Change . Building Bonds . Teamwork and Collaboration

Note. From An EI-Based Theory of Performance In C. Cherniss, & D. Goleman (Eds.), *The Emotionally Intelligent Workplace*, p 28, by D. Goleman, 2001, Jossey-Bass. Copyright 2001.

As demonstrated in **Table 2**, this model involves a variety of competencies that fall within two major categories: personal and social. As for the former, it is concerned with the competencies that revolve around oneself being totally based on the domains of self-awareness and self-management. As regards the latter, it is meant to cover the competencies that are relied

on in dealing with others. As such, it requires the residue of the two domains which are social awareness and relationship management.

3.2.2.2.1. Self-Awareness

Self-awareness is a term that is used to signify the capacity of determining, processing, and storing information about oneself in order to use this information to one 's favor (Morin, 2011). As indicated by Goleman et al. (2008), the domain of self-awareness entails three major competencies:

- Emotional Self Awareness: recognizing inner feelings and their impact on behavior.
- Accurate Self-assessment: being able to determine strengths and weaknesses as far as emotions are concerned.
- Self-Confidence: having a certain level of self-assurance and a tendency to embrace difficult challenges.

3.2.2.2.2. Self-Management

Goleman (2001) acknowledged self-management as the second domain in his refined model categorizing it under the so-called personal competence. Just like self-awareness, the competencies which fall under self-management serve at dealing with emotional issues that concern oneself merely. These competencies, are according to Goleman et al. (2008), introduced as follows:

- Self-Control: the ability to strive against undesired emotions and rendering them useful;
- Transparency: clarity and integrity with regard to admitting one's beliefs and thoughts;

- Adaptability: the ability to cope flexibly with new challenges maintaining focus;
- Achievement Drive: the ability of setting attainable goals as an inner incentive to hard work;
- Initiative: the ability to stir oneself to engage in challenges without a sense of deterring hesitation;
- Optimism: the ability to maintain a sanguine view about aims to be achieved.

3.2.2.2.3. Social Awareness

Social awareness is the first domain that pertains to the social competence which is the competence utilized in dealing with others. This domain is deemed vital as it reflects the need for awareness, not of the self only, but of the people surrounding and their assorted emotional states (Goleman, 2001). Social awareness is, under the authority of Goleman et al. (2008), an umbrella term that includes three crucial competencies.

- Empathy: the ability to decipher the hidden emotional signals in others and to deal effectively with people of various backgrounds;
- Service Orientation: the ability to generate a suitable emotional climate that ensures that people reach the ultimate satisfaction together;
- Organizational Awareness: the ability to spot the most important elements that maintain relationships among organizations and to be in control of them.

3.2.2.2.4. Relationship Management

The second domain that constitute the social competence in Goleman's model is relationship management (Goleman, 2001). The significance of this domain stems from the fact

that it contains more competencies than the rest of the domains; it includes eight subdivisions organized as follows (Goleman et al., 2008).

- Developing others: assisting people to achieve their goals and discover their strengths and weaknesses in addition to providing them with constructive feedback.
- Influence: having the capacity to impact others' decisions through engagement and persuasion.
- Communication: creating various channels of communication that allows for the process of transmitting and receiving information.
- Conflict Management: coming into terms with the feelings and perspectives of all sides of the conflict and attempting to find out satisfying solutions.
- Visionary Leadership: the ability to lead effectively on the basis of foreseeing the repercussions of given behaviors.
- Change Catalyst: the ability to embrace change and to support it in spite of the risks and the potential barriers to implementing new ideas.
- Building Bonds: the ability to build strong relationships with others demonstrating a sense of agreeableness.
- Teamwork and Collaboration: showing readiness towards collaborative work and having the necessary qualities to maintain efficient teamwork.

3.2.3. Trait Emotional Intelligence Models

Accounting for the theory of trait emotional intelligence (TEI), it is of essence to draw a distinction between trait TEI and ability emotional intelligence (AEI) as they embody two major premises that conceptualize the construct differently. Austin (2004) maintained that proponents

of AEI perceive EI as an ability necessitating a set of cognitive operations in order for one to process given emotional information. Conversely, in TEI, EI is deemed a dispositional tendency akin to personality traits conceptualizations that support human differences.

Following Petrides and Furnham (2000), TEI is part of the personality framework being originally based upon cross-situational consistencies in behavior and accounting for various personality variables like optimism and empathy. This is to underscore that the nature of TEI is far removed from information processing models as it neglects the probe of its being composed of cognitive abilities. In this regard, TEI is commonly defined as “a constellation of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies and measured via the trait emotional intelligence questionnaire” (Petrides, 2010, p. 137). Through this definition, Petrides, the pioneering figure of TEI theory, emphasizes the concept of self-perception as another means to demarcate this theory from the residue of AEI models.

In the same vein, a prominent defining characteristic of TEI is the emphasis upon subjectivity in the domain of EI. That is to say, an emotional response that can be regarded as adaptive and convenient for a given individual within a given social and cultural environment is not necessarily acceptable for another (Keefer et al., 2018).

According to Petrides (2009, as cited in Petrides et al., 2016), TEI is made up of fifteen facets that fall within four major factors known as the TEI factors whose combination constitutes the global TEI level of individuals. The fifteen trait facets of EI are distributed through the four factors of TEI as follows (Petrides & Mavroveli, 2020):

- Well-Being: self-esteem, happiness, optimism
- Self-Control: emotion regulation, impulse control, stress management

- Emotionality: empathy, emotion perception, emotion expression, relationships.
- Sociability: emotion management, assertiveness, social awareness

Figure 7

The 15 TEI Facets and their Corresponding Factor



Note. From “Measured and Self-estimated Trait Emotional Intelligence in a UK Sample of Managers,” by A. Siegling et al., 2014, *Personality and Individual Differences*, 65, p. 61, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2014.01.027>. Copyright 2014.

As shown by **Figure 7**, two facets that are labeled as TEI facets which are self-motivation and adaptability are not incorporated within any of the four factors. Nevertheless, they are still considered in the process of global TEI measurement (Siegling et al., 2014).

3.3. Measuring EI

The process of measuring EI constitutes one of the most prominent controversies that are linked to the field of EI. According to Ciarrochi et al. (2001), EI tests are of two main kinds: performance tests and self-report questionnaires (**Table 3**). In this respect, ability models of EI rely on performance tests whose answers are evaluated on the basis of pre-determined criteria. At the other extreme, trait models make use of questionnaires that involve people reporting their EI level estimation by means of self-perception.

Table 3

Differences between Performance Tests and Self-report Questionnaires

Performance Tests	Self-Report Questionnaires
- Assess actual EI - Time consuming as they necessitate a lot of observation to ascertain the measurement - Neglect individuals' ability to perceive their EI - Objective as performance is measured based on individuals' abilities - Overlap with traditional intelligence measures	- Assess perceived EI - Less time consuming as they allow people to proffer their perception concisely - rely heavily on individuals' ability to perceive their EI - Subjective as people might manipulate their responses to show a good picture of themselves - Overlap with personality traits measures

Note. Adapted from Measuring Emotional Intelligence. In J. Ciarrochi, J. P. Forgas, & J. D. Mayer (Eds.), *Emotional intelligence in everyday life: A scientific inquiry*, by J. Ciarrochi et al., 2001, The Psychology Press. Copyright 2001.

According to O'Connor et al. (2019), the following EI scales are likely to be examined in the literature concerned with EI as they incorporate the measurement of the major facets of the construct.

3.3.1. Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT)

The MSCEIT is a performance test that is utilized to measure the general level of in addition to the level of four branches that represent the four known abilities: perceiving emotions, using emotions, understanding emotions and managing emotions (Maul, 2012). These branches are basically assessed by means of what is called tasks wherein two tasks are devoted to assess each of the aforementioned branches in the way below (Parker et al., 2009):

- Perceiving emotions is assessed through faces and pictures tasks that involve the identification of the extent to which emotions are expressed in a given picture of a face;
- Using emotions to facilitate thought is assessed through facilitation and sensations tasks that require the respondent of the MSCEIT to match sensory experiences with moods;
- Understanding emotions is assessed through changes and blends tasks that entail the testing of the ability of understanding emotional transitions and having a rich vocabulary to describe them;
- Managing emotions is assessed through emotional management and emotional relations tasks that allow for the measurement of the respondents' ability to maintain, repair, and generate emotions to fit appropriate circumstances.

Further, Parker et al. (2009) proffered a comprehensive description of the test under consideration through the provision of its factor structure as shown in **Table 4**. Notably, the framework of the test dissects the four branches into two main areas. The first of the two is

known as experiential EI including the perceiving emotions branch and the facilitating thought branch, while the second area is termed strategic EI subsuming the branch of understanding emotions and the branch of managing emotions.

Table 4

MSCEIT Factor Structure

Total Emotional intelligence			
Area 1		Area 2	
Experiential Emotional Intelligence		Strategic emotional Intelligence	
Branch 1 Perceiving Emotions	Branch 2 Facilitating Thought	Branch 3 Understanding Emotions	Branch 4 Managing Emotions
-Task A Faces	-Task B Facilitation	-Task C Blends	-Task D Emotion Management
-Task E Pictures	-Task F Sensations	-Task G Changes	-Task H Emotional Relations

Note. From Assessing Emotional Intelligence: Theory, Research, and Applications, p. 46, by J. Parker et al., 2009, Springer US. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-88370-0>. Copyright 2009.

3.3.2. Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT)

The SREIT is a self-report test that is deployed to measure EI on the basis of the four-branch model of EI. It was originally developed by Schutte et al.(1998) (Craparo, 2014). As

stated by Brackett and Mayer (2003), the test at hand is of a single factor nature as shown by the factor analysis that was conducted by the founders of the test to result in a thirty-three items test. Hence, test endeavors to assess one's ability to discriminate, monitor, and use feelings in an effective manner.

As far as scoring is concerned, respondents to the SREIT are asked to examine the thirty-three statements provided within the test and respond through expressing their agreement to the statement on a 5-point Likert scale. The minimum value "1" represents total disagreement with the statement, while the maximum value "5" is used to present total agreement (Brackett & Mayer, 2003). In the same vein, accounting for the characteristics of the SREIT, Craparo (2014) indicated that this test has a good internal consistency and test-retest reliability.

3.3.3. Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i)

The Bar-On emotional quotient inventory is a self-report test that is developed in congruence with the framework of the Bar-on model of emotional-social intelligence. Thus, it is developed with the aim of assessing the five major components of EI as perceived by Bar-On conceptualization of the construct. The test, therefore, sets out to measure: 1) intrapersonal, 2) interpersonal, 3) adaptability, 4) stress management, and 5) general mood in addition to the sub dimensions of each component (Grubb & McDaniel, 2007). The description of these components and their subscales is demonstrated in **Table 5**.

Table 5*EQ-i Composite Scales and Subscales*

Composite/subscale	Description of subscale: ability to...
EQ-i total (TOTAL)	
Intrapersonal (INTRA)	
Emotional self-awareness (ES)	Recognize and understand one's feelings
Assertiveness (AS)	Express feelings, beliefs and thoughts and defend one's rights in a non-destructive manner
Self-regard (SR)	Be aware of, understand, accept, and respect oneself
Self-actualization (SA)	Realize one's potential capacities
Independence (IN)	Be self-directed and self-controlled in one's thinking and actions and to be free of emotional dependency
Interpersonal (INTER)	
Empathy (EM)	Be aware of, to understand, and to appreciate the feelings of others
Interpersonal relationship (IR)	Establish and maintain mutually satisfying relationships that are characterized by emotional closeness and by giving and receiving affection
Social responsibility (SR)	Demonstrate oneself as a cooperative, contributing, and constructive member of one's social group
Adaptation (ADAPT)	
Problem solving (PS)	Identify and define problems as well as to generate and implement potentially effective solutions
Reality testing (RT)	Assess the correspondence between what is subjectively experienced and what objectively exist
Flexibility (FL)	Adjust one's emotions, thoughts, and behavior to changing situations and conditions
Stress management (STRE)	
Stress tolerance (ST)	Withstand adverse events and stressful situations without 'falling apart' by actively and positively coping with stress
Impulse control (IC)	Resist or delay an impulse, drive, or temptation to act
General mood (MOOD)	
Happiness (HA)	Feel satisfied with one's life, to enjoy oneself and others, and to have fun
Optimism (OP)	Look at the brighter side of life and to maintain a positive attitude, even in the face of adversity

Note. From *Assessing Emotional Intelligence: Theory, Research, and Applications*, p. 46, by J.

Parker et al., 2009, Springer US. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-88370-0>. Copyright 2009.

The EQ-i is an inventory that constitutes 133 items in the form of declarative statements. The respondents are asked to value the extent to which a statement describes them on a 5-point scale, starting from 1: “not true of me” to 5: “true of me” (Dawda & Hart, 2000). This allows to measure 15 subscales of EI with a high internal consistency and with a good fit to the EQ-i wherein each conceptual component of the model is measured through 7-9 items (Brackett & Mayer, 2003).

Of note, there exist several forms of emotional quotient inventory that are shortened in nature. Examples of these include: EQ-i: 125 that is made up of 125 items instead of 133 and the EQ-i Short that is composed of 51 items and used in cases where detailed assessment is not a purpose. The ubiquity of this inventory is epitomized in the fact that, in addition to its short versions, it was translated into a wide range of languages in almost 15 countries around the world (Wood et al., 2009)

3.3.4. Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue)

The TEIQue is one of the most prevalent measures of EI. It was first introduced by in an attempt to make up for the shortcomings of the preceding self-report measures that lacked clarity as regards their conceptual frameworks (Freudenthaler et al., 2008). In this regard, Andrei et al.(2014) maintained that the nature of the TEIQue allows for conceptualizing EI as a personality trait that is embedded in hierarchies of multiple levels. Ergo, it can be concluded that IT stands as a tenable embodiment of the trait theory, especially that several research findings indicated that EI is strongly associated with other constructs when operationalized with the TEIQue in comparison with other self-report tests (Martins et al., 2010, as cited in Andrei et al., 2014).

In essence, the TEIQue, which was translated into 15 languages, is basically devised with a hierarchical structure to measure global TEI and the four of factors of TEI (well-being, sociability, self- control and emotionality) in addition to the 15 facets included within these factors. This is undertaken by means of 153 items that constitute the last version of the questionnaire (Petrides, 2009).

3.4. Developing EI

In spite of the escalated interest that surrounds the construct of EI and its measurement, certain paucity is highlighted with regard to the process of developing it in individuals and aiming at proffering a unified profile to describe those who are deemed emotionally intelligent (Watkin, 2000). As such, an overarching question comes to the fore as to whether EI can be learned and developed allowing for the emergence of different probes that advocate the possibility of its promotion (Boyatzis, 2001) . In this respect, Serrat (2017) argued that even though some people are naturally equipped with emotional skills more than others, EI competencies can be promoted provided that one is intrinsically motivated and willing to practice and receive constructive feedback.

Germane to the foregoing is the account provided by Dulewicz and Higgs (2004) who underscored that EI can be developed according to much of the literature related to EI field. They further explained that a variety of programs have been designed in order to help people improve their EI competencies despite that consensus is not reached with regard to the stage of life in which EI trainings are more effective. In this line of thought, Goleman (1996, as cited in Dulewicz & Higgs, 2004) revealed that the optimal span of life in which EI interventions are better undertaken is childhood. This denotes that the effectiveness of trainings is not confined to

their quality merely; instead, it is also contingent on the age of trainees as one fundamental element with considerable bearings on the outcomes of interventions.

Shedding light on training programs, it is of paramount importance that designers of such programs are heedful to a number of factors. Bagshaw (2000) accounted for three major factors that are significantly needed in any EI training program in order for it to be effective. These factors are:

- ✓ *Readiness of Participants*: given that EI trainings might invoke a variety of emotions on the part of the trainees, it is recommended that trainers are aware of any potential participants' weaknesses by means of preliminary one-to-one sessions.
- ✓ *Awareness of the Utility of EI at Work*: from the outset, there should be a consensus on the contribution of EI competencies in participants' jobs. This enables trainers to orient their focus towards the most needed competencies using concrete examples.
- ✓ *Continuous Reinforcement*: as it is integrated in most areas of life, EI should be emphasized through continual improvement. Trainings, as such, are believed to be more effective if they are not confined to a limited period of time and reinforced adequately.

Therefore, trainers are required to be adept facilitators in order for them to offer open discussions about emotions, bearing in mind that training programs aim at eliciting inner feelings and catering for the best ways to manage them. Further, they are called upon to be endowed with certain counseling skills as this permits to expand their role to engage in conversations with participants rather than delivering exercise passively (Bagshaw, 2000).

3.5. EI in Higher Education

Central to the continual discussion and research about EI is the issue of the role that it might play in the field of higher education given the significance of the latter in the developments of whole individuals. As such, questions are raised as to whether the domain of EI proves useful in higher education bringing about the provision of a bulk of research in this regard. For a start, Vandervoort (2006) argued that the integration of EI classes into higher education has positive bearings on the career of university students in the same way it has on pupils of primary and secondary school as revealed by Cohen (1999, as cited in (Vandervoort, 2006).

In the same vein, Parrish (2015) examined the role of EI in higher education from a somewhat different angle accounting for its relevance to academic leadership . This researcher indicated that based on previous study such as (Bryman 2009; Coates & Anderson 2007), EI is proven to have certain impact on higher education by being linked to effective academic leadership amongst college students. This is clearly illustrated in the findings which suggest that the latter is affected by the presence or absence of empathy that is considered one of the most vital competencies of EI (Parrish, 2015).

When it comes to teaching in the context of higher education, EI is construed as vital for the enrichment of lecturers to be in control of situations wherein the use of EI competencies is necessary especially that self-confidence, a prerequisite for the success of lecturers in their job, is one of these competencies (Devis-Rozental, 2018). In line with this, another reason that supports a need for resorting to EI training programs for lecturers is that developing EI competencies is likely to result in lecturers' job satisfaction and wellbeing on the basis that it was found to be a predictor of positive life outcomes (Vesely et al., 2013, ascited in Devis-Rozental, 2018) . Hence, these accounts permit to emphasize the rationale for the incorporation of EI improvement

at the university level regarding that this touches upon offering better circumstances for both students and educators with the ultimate aim of a better academic achievement.

3.6. EI, Language Learning, and PSA: A Review of Previous Studies

As EI embodies a major variable in the study of a whole, it is of essence to examine the literature that links this construct to the previously discussed variables of the study, namely WA and SA. In this section, an attempt is carried out to explore the most prominent studies that tackled the issue of EI in language learning with particular emphasis on those studies addressing PSA, precisely. This is deemed helpful for highlighting the potential gaps that underpin these studies and that are meant to be addressed by the current study. In addition, the results of these studies are utilized in the discussion of the current research findings, underscoring the similarities and differences that might emerge due to various factors.

Although the link between emotions and second language learning is a thorny issue that holds an essential place in the quest for unraveling the process of language learning, a dearth is felt in linking the latter to EI as a clearly defined construct. Pishghadam (2009) asserted that merely few research attempts are exerted to come into terms with the nature of the relationship that might link language learning and EI. That is to say, although EI is proven to be a predictor of different aspects of life, its impact on language learning is not adequately catered for.

Amongst the studies that accounted for the aforementioned relationship is the one conducted by Zarezadeh (2013). In this tentative, it was aimed at bringing into play any potential impact of EI on the language learning process. Consequently, the findings of the study indicated that EI has a significant impact on language learners' achievement; students who are equipped

with high levels of EI are likely to perform better in language use if compared to students with low levels.

In the same way, according to Zafari and Biria (2014), it was found that EI is positively correlated with overall language strategy. Students with high scores in the EI test are likely to rely more on language learning strategies in the process of learning (Zafari & Biria, 2014) . Therefore, it is concluded that EI has positive bearings on language on the basis that it positively impacts the use of strategies that make the process easier. This is in conformity with what was stated by Taheri and Jadidi (2016) who revealed that Iranian EFL students' use of learning strategies is positively and significantly linked to EI competencies. Further, in a similar study, Afshar et al. (2016) indicated that the findings of their quantitative research revealed that L2 achievement among 138 Iranian students was strongly correlated with EI and language learning strategy use as well. As such, this allows for underscoring the probe that associates EI competencies to success in learning a foreign language in the light of what the literature has to offer as regards this issue.

Germane to the foregoing is the study conducted by Dewaele (2018) in which it was aimed at investigating the relationship between EI and teachers' love of English, attitudes towards their students and institution, self-reported classroom practices, enjoyment, and creativity. Among the major findings of this correlational study, it was revealed that the global EI of second language users is positively correlated with their language performance. Further, it was implicated that teachers can handle their emotions and their students' emotions effectively when they possess a sufficient level of EI; this results in the enhancement of the teaching process and consequently improves students' language performance.

Al-Otaibi and Alshaikhai (2023) carried out a qualitative study to explore Saudi teachers' perceptions of the role of EI in influencing EFL classroom practices. The findings of study demonstrated that teachers held positive perceptions of the effect of EI on their pedagogical practices. They elucidated that EI skills are deployed by teachers as a means through which they can elicit information about their learners and utilize this information as a basis for teaching to reach the objectives of the course. Hence, the study underscored the significance of EI as an influential factor in the teaching process.

Within the same context, Abdolrezapour and Tavakoli, (2012) were interested in investigating the relationship between EI and language skills. In their study they limited the scrutiny of this relationship to achievement in reading comprehension. The research endeavored to explore whether enhancing students' EI levels can result in the improvement of their reading comprehension achievement. The quantitative findings of revealed that students whose EI was improved scored higher in the reading comprehension test in comparison with those who did not receive any treatment. This helped the researchers to conclude the existence of a positive impact of EI on EFL learners' reading comprehension.

In a cross cultural study, Al-Obaydi et al. (2022) deployed a qualitative approach to explore teachers' perceptions of the importance of EI in effective EFL teaching and learning. This was undertaken in different contexts of research that are Iraq and Czech Republic. The results of the study showed a disparity of teachers' perceptions depending on the context of the study. Most of the Iraqi participants underscored the significance of EI advocating that it embodies a pivotal element for classroom management. Contrariwise, the majority of Czech teachers indicated that the construct do not hold an essential place in ensuring an effective process of

language teaching and learning. This mismatch of perceptions is justified in the view of the authors of the article by the cultural differences that characterize the Iraqi and Czech contexts.

EFL learners willingness to communicate is another language learning element whose relationship with EI was examined in a study conducted by Dastgoshadeh and Javanmardi (2021). The findings of the study revealed the existence of a significant correlation between students' EI and their willingness to communicate in the foreign language. In the same vein, Oz (2015) tackled the same research aim in a Turkish context. The results of the correlation analysis demonstrated that EI levels of the study participants were significantly correlated with their levels of willingness to communicate in English which is a foreign language for the Turkish students. In an Algerian context, the foregoing results were supported by a the study conducted by Hoadjili and Bouaziz (2021) who investigated the relationship between EI and willingness to communicate among 45 EFL students at Biskra University. This correlational study revealed the existence of a moderate positive relationship between the variables at issue and recommended, as a result, the integration of EI skills in the field of foreign language teaching.

Shao et al. (2013) carried out an exploratory study to examine the relationship between the levels of EI of 510 Chinese EFL learners and foreign language anxiety. Among the most captivating findings of the study is that EI is strongly associated to English achievement and self-rated English proficiency. In this regard it was shown that foreign language anxiety played a mediating role in associating EI and self-rated English proficiency. Consequently, it was recommended that much recognition should be attributed to the emotional factors having bearings on the learning of English.

Focus is, in turn attributed to the relationship between EI and the productive skills of language learners, specifically. As such, Genç et al. (2016) were among the researchers who

investigated the relationship under consideration, relying on the EQ-i as an instrument to measure students' EI. The results of the study showed that EI competencies are effective in students' achievement in both skills. By way of elaboration, it was found that the speaking skill is mainly affected by the subscales of interpersonal and stress management while the competencies of stress tolerance and impulse control have the major impact on the achievement in writing.

In the same way, Pishghadam (2009) stated that EI is significantly correlated with language learners' success in the productive skills of language learning. In their quantitative study, they maintained that the speaking skill is mostly linked to intrapersonal, interpersonal and general mood competencies. On the other hand, it was revealed that the writing skill is mainly affected by two major EI competencies which are stress management and adaptability; these competencies are construed, according the author as prerequisites in order for language learners to become good writers. In terms of association, these results are in accordance with those of the study conducted by Zarezadeh (2013) who in turn, asserted that students' levels of EI are significantly associated with their achievement in both productive skills.

Ultimately, Afshar and Rahimi (2016) explored the relationship between EI and the speaking ability of 150 Iranian EFL students. The speaking ability was measured by means of the descriptor of IELTS speaking test while EI was measured using Bar-On inventory. In the findings of the study, it was highlighted that a significant association linked EI and speaking ability. In the same way, Chen and Zhang (2022) explored the power of EI to predict achievement in speaking. The results of regression analysis showed that indeed EI is a significant predictor of the overall speaking skill of seventy two Chinese EFL learners.

Table 6*Summary Table of Previous Research Studies*

Title	Author/Year	Aim	Method	Findings
The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Language Learning Strategy Use.	Zafari and Biria (2014)	Relationship between emotional intelligence with overall language strategy	Correlational study	EI is positively correlated with overall language strategy
The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Learning Strategies among Iranian EFL Learners	Taheri and Jadidi (2016)	Relationship between emotional intelligence with language strategy use	Correlational study	EFL students' use of learning strategies is positively and significantly linked to EI competencies
The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and EFL Learners' Achievement in Reading Comprehension	Abdolrezapour and Tavakoli, (2012)	the relationship between EI and language skills	Quasi-experimental study	Students whose EI was improved scored higher in the reading comprehension test in comparison with those who did not receive any treatment
Emotional Intelligence as a Predictor of EFL Learners' Willingness to Communicate.	Dastgoshadeh and Javanmardi (2021)	Relationship between students' EI and their willingness to communicate in the foreign language	Correlational study	Significant correlation between students' EI and their willingness to communicate in the foreign language
Emotional Intelligence as A Predictor of L2 Communication	Oz (2015)	Relationship between students' EI and their willingness to communicate in the foreign language	Correlational study	EI levels of the study participants were significantly correlated with their levels of willingness to

				communicate in English
Deciphering the Effective Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Willingness to Communicate in English as a Foreign Language Class.	Hoadjili and Bouaziz (2021)	relationship between EI and willingness to communicate among 45 EFL students at Biskra University	Correlational study	Significant correlation between students' EI and their willingness to communicate in the foreign language
The Effect of Emotional Intelligence and Self-Efficacy Awareness on EFL Teachers' Pedagogical Practices: A Qualitative Study in the Saudi EFL Context	Al-Otaibi and Alshaikhai (2023)	Saudi teachers' perceptions of the role of EI in influencing EFL classroom practices	Qualitative interviewing	Teachers held positive perceptions of the effect of EI on their pedagogical practices.
A Qualitative Exploration of Emotional Intelligence in English as Foreign Language Learning and Teaching: Evidence from Iraq and the Czech Republic	Al-Obaydi et al. (2022)	Teachers' perceptions of the importance of EI in effective EFL teaching and learning in an Iraqi and Czech context	Cross cultural qualitative study	Iraqi participants underscored the significance of EI advocating that embodies a pivotal element for classroom management Czech teachers indicated that the construct do not hold an essential place in ensuring an effective process of language teaching and learning.
An Exploration of Chinese EFL Students' Emotional Intelligence and	Shao et al. (2013)	the relationship between the levels of EI of 510 Chinese EFL learners and	Correlational study	EI is strongly associated to English achievement and self-rated

Foreign Language Anxiety		foreign language anxiety		English proficiency
Iranian EFL Learners' Emotional Intelligence, Learning Styles, Strategy Use, and their L2 Achievement	Afshar et al. (2016)	Relationship among EI, L2 achievement and strategy use	Correlational study	L2 achievement among 138 Iranian students was strongly correlated with EI and language learning strategy use
The Relationship between Trait Emotional Intelligence and Experienced ESL/EFL Teachers' Love of English, Attitudes towards Their Students and Institution, Self-Reported Classroom Practices, Enjoyment and Creativity	Dewaele (2018)	relationship between EI and teachers' love of English, attitudes towards their students and institution, self-reported classroom practices, enjoyment and creativity	Correlational study	EI of second language users is positively correlated with their language performance
The Effect of Emotional Intelligence in English Language Learning	Zarezadeh (2013)	impact of EI on the language learning process	Correlational study	Students who are equipped with high levels of EI are likely to perform better in language use if compared to students with low levels
Reflective Thinking, Emotional Intelligence, and Speaking Ability of EFL Learners: Is there a Relation?	Afshar and Rahimi (2016)	between EI and the speaking ability of 150 Iranian EFL students	Correlational study	Significant association linked EI and speaking ability
Trait Emotional	Chen & Zhang	the power of EI	Regression	EI is a

Intelligence and Second Language Performance: A Case Study of Chinese EFL Learners	(2022)	to predict achievement in speaking	Analysis	significant predictor of the overall speaking skill of seventy two Chinese EFL learners.
A Quantitative Analysis of the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Foreign Language Learning	Pishghadam (2009)	relationship between EI and the productive skills of language learners	Correlational study	EI competencies are effective on students' achievement in both skills
The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Productive Language Skills	Genç et al. (2016)	relationship between EI and the productive skills of language learners	Correlational study	EI competencies are effective on students' achievement in both skills

Table 6 represents a summary of the aforementioned studies that are linked to the major topic of the current thesis. It is worth mentioning that although the relationship between EI and language learning lent itself to a variety of empirical studies, dearth is still felt as regards the issue. As illustrated, it can be deduced that only few studies addressed the relationship between EI and PSA directly, most of the studies linked the two concepts indirectly by accounting for the relationship of EI with various factors that affect PSA such strategy use and foreign language anxiety. Further, other studies explored the relationship of EI to overall foreign language achievement instead of productive skills precisely. Methodologically speaking, in most of the studies that dealt with the relationship between EI and PSA, correlation analysis was utilized in all the studies, except for the study of Chen and Zhang (2022) that deployed regression analysis to infer the research findings. Further, most of the studies accounted for the issue of students' EI

and its impact on PSA and scarce studies highlighted the role of teachers' EI making, to the knowledge of the researcher, an under-researched issue. Besides, it can be noted that qualitative studies that target students' and teachers' perceptions are scarce in spite of their significance in the thorough exploration of any topic. When it comes to context, it can be noticed that only one study is conducted in the context of Algeria which implies a dearth in research of the current topic in the Algerian context. These gaps are purported to be catered to through the research design associated with the present study that is explained in the subsequent chapter.

Conclusion

By means of this chapter, light was cast upon EI as it is discussed in the literature. Reviewing the latter, much is elaborated about the construct by revealing the main theories and conceptualization linked to it. A variety of premises were brought into play in an attempt to confine the concept to a given framework without being able to do so. Ability, trait, and mixed theories found agreement in the multidimensionality of the construct in spite of the contradicting principles they hold about the conceptualization of EI competencies. Nevertheless, EI is presented as a concept that is associated with positive psychology and related to success in various aspects of life including academic achievement. Following this line of thought, much recognition should be accorded to the issue of EI development as it was indicated in this chapter that the competences of EI can be learned and improved through interventions. This theoretical background is deemed helpful in the course of achieving the current research aims.

CHAPTER FOUR

Research Methodology

Introduction	107
4.1. Research Design.....	107
4.1.1. Mixed Method Research	107
4.1.2. Concurrent Triangulation Design	108
4.1.3. Rationale for the Selected Design	110
4.2. Data Collection Instruments	112
4.2.1. Quantitative Research Instruments	112
4.2.1.1. The EI-PSA Regression Test.....	112
4.2.1.1.1. Scores of the EI Test.....	112
4.2.1.1.3. Scores of the Writing Exam.....	113
4.2.1.1.2. Scores of the Speaking Exam	114
4.2.1.2. Students' Questionnaire A	115
4.2.1.2.1. Description of Questionnaire A.....	116
4.2.1.2.2. Piloting Questionnaire A	118
4.2.1.2.3. Administration of Questionnaire A	119
4.2.1.3. Students' Questionnaire B	119
4.2.1.3.1. Description of Questionnaire B	119
4.2.1.3.2. Piloting Questionnaire B.....	120
4.2.1.3.3. Administration of Questionnaire B	121
4.2.2. Qualitative Research Instruments	121
4.2.2.1. Writing Teachers' Interview.....	121
4.2.2.1.1. Description of Writing Teachers' Interview	122
4.2.2.1.2. Piloting Writing Teachers' Interview.....	123
4.2.2.1.3. Administration of Writing Teachers' Interview	123
4.2.2.2. Speaking Teachers' Interview	124
4.2.2.2.1. Description of Speaking Teachers' Interview.....	124
4.2.2.2.2 Piloting Speaking Teachers' Interview	125
4.2.2.2.3. Administration of Speaking Teachers' Interview	125
4.3. Research Participants	126
4.3.1. In the Quantitative Part	126
4.3.2. In the Qualitative Part	126
4.4. Analysis of Quantitative Data	127

4.5. Analysis of Qualitative Data.....	129
4.5.1. Framework Analysis.....	129
4.5.1.1. Familiarization	130
4.5.1.2. Identifying a thematic framework.....	131
4.5.1.3. Indexing	133
4.5.1.4. Charting	135
4.5.1.5. Mapping and Interpretation	137
4.6. Ethical Considerations	137
Conclusion.....	138

Introduction

The precedent chapters proffered an overall view of the main variables with which the study at issue is concerned. Together, the three chapters epitomize the theoretical background that serves guiding the fieldwork of the research. In order to get into terms with the proposed field work, this chapter is devised to bring into play the major constituents of the methodology and research design deployed in the present study. To this end, it lends itself to accounting for the nature of the research design for which it was opted. Further, the research tools, sampling procedures, and ethical considerations are catered for throughout this chapter in details.

4.1. Research Design

A research design is broadly defined as “a procedure for collecting, analyzing, and reporting research” (Creswell et al., 2010, p.163). It is construed as an essential pillar in every study whose selection is contingent upon certain factors. These latter include: the nature of the topic to be accounted for, the particularity of the study aims, the availability of the necessary resources that serve applying a given design, in addition to the limitations of the study (Panke, 2018; Wahyuni, 2012) . In light of this, the current research adheres to a concurrent triangulation mixed method design.

4.1.1. Mixed Method Research

Mixed methods is an approach to research designs which involves the combination of both the qualitative and the quantitative approaches to data collection and analysis within a single research (Johnson et al., 2007; Greene, 2006; Mertens, 2003; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). According to Newman et al.(2003), adhering to such set of qualitative and quantitative procedures enables the researcher to account for the posed research questions in a more effective

manner compared with the use of each type independently. That is to say, it can be regarded as a methodological solution to compensate for the inevitable shortcomings with which both types are characterized.

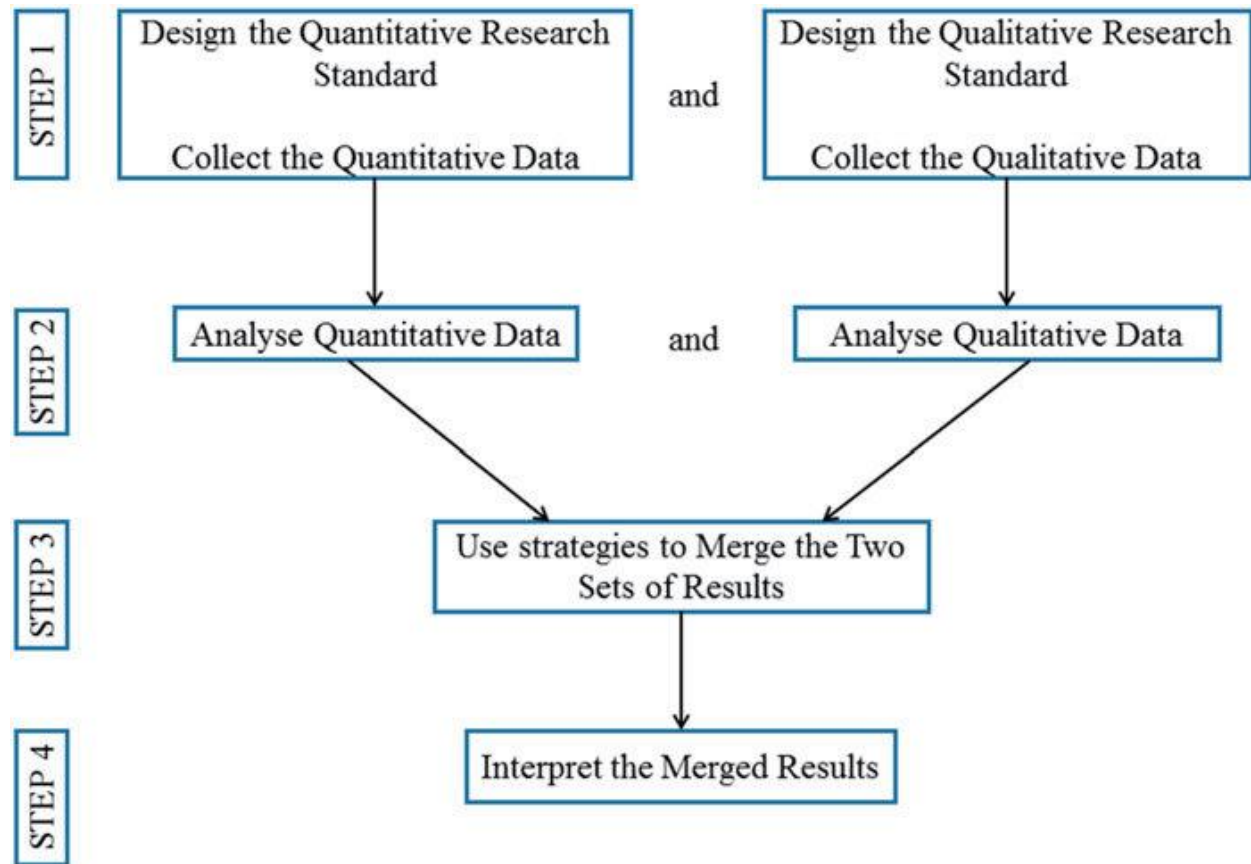
When it comes to the advantages that researchers perceive in the use of mixed method designs, a variety of merits are ascribed to the mixture of qualitative and quantitative approaches within the same research program. In this respect Mackey and Bryfonski (2018) advocated that a mixed method study offers a profound understanding of the topic under investigation thanks to the diversity of approaches embedded within it. Moreover, it is construed as an efficient tool to be used in exploring issues and phenomena that are described as under researched and hard to analyze.

4.1.2. Concurrent Triangulation Design

As maintained by Creswell (2014), this type of mixed designs is generally looked upon as the most ubiquitous among all the models of mixed method designs. Just as indicated by the term *per se*, the concurrent design entails the simultaneous, but separate, collection of quantitative and qualitative data. The convergent triangulation design is demarcated from the rest of convergent designs such as the embedded since in this design, qualitative and quantitative data are weighed equally. The concern of the researcher in this case rotates around eliciting the two types of data with equal importance attributed to each (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011)

Figure 8

Procedures of Implementing a Convergent Design



Note. From *Designing and Conducting Mixed Methods Research*, by J Creswell and V. Plano Clark, 2011, SAGE Publications. Copyright 2011.

As illustrated by **Figure 8**, the application of the convergent design occurs systematically pursuing four major steps. In the first of these, the collection of quantitative and qualitative data takes place sporadically but within the same phase. In the second step, the researcher analyses the collected data of both kinds wherein the analysis of each type does not totally interfere with the analysis of the other. Subsequently, an appropriate strategy is utilized in

third step to coalesce the results obtained from the precedent analysis of data. Simply put, the qualitative and quantitative results are brought together with the purpose of catering for the research questions. In the final step, the researcher embarks on the interpretation of the results that have been fused into each other (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, Fetters et al., 2013).

According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), the convergent design is generally prone to much adoption among researchers by dint of the fact that it enjoys a multiplicity of strengths. These advantages include:

- It is characterized by an intuitive nature. This design is based upon mixing the quantitative and qualitative approaches to research that are logically leading to robust results in comparison with the use of a single approach.
- This design offers the research the opportunity to gain time in the collection of the required data as it takes place within a single phase.
- The independence in the analysis of qualitative and quantitative data secures that each type of analysis is undertaken efficiently without being affected by the other type.

4.1.3. Rationale for the Selected Design

Bringing the procedures of the convergent mixed method design into the context of the present study, it is worth underscoring the rationale for which this design (**Figure 9**) is deemed suitable for the research aims. Since the study targets exploring the role of students' and teachers' EI in the students' PSA, a variety of data is required to fully investigate the suggested issue. To begin with, the potential predictive power of EI necessitates the use of a quantitative test that involves the quantitative measurement of the variables involved in the study. In the same vein, given the convenient sample of participants, a quantitative approach is also believed to be

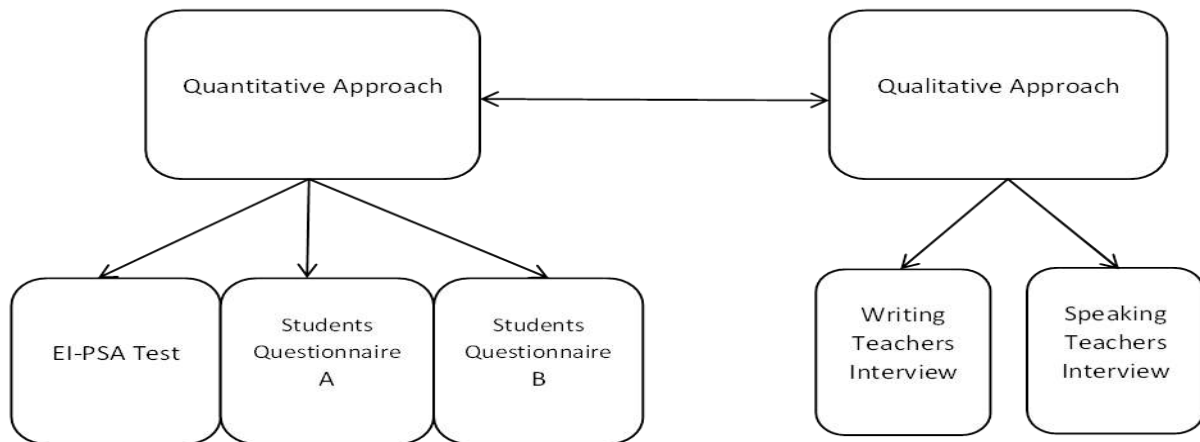
suitable to account for students' attitudes towards the role of their EI and their teachers' EI in productive skill achievement.

In parallel, given the significance of teachers as participants in the study, and given their limited number, a qualitative approach is opted for to profoundly come into grips with teachers' attitudes towards the topic at issue. Eventually, by dint of the fact that both types of data serve the same aim, a comparison of these is undertaken to account for any sort of divergence.

As for triangulation in the present research, it is clearly epitomized in the involvement of distinct sources of data. The triangulation of data in this regard stems from the reliance on more than a single source of data, be it the instruments or the participants. As for the former, the use of a regression test, questionnaires, and interviews guarantees the variability of the data elicited. As for the second, involving students, writing teachers, and speaking teachers as informants of the study is believed to bring about diversity at the level of data as well

Figure 9

Design of the Study



4.2. Data Collection Instruments

Given the nature of the selected research design, the set of data collection instruments diverges in the approach each instruments approach between what is quantitative and what is qualitative. On the basis of this, each category is accounted for separately and explained in details as follows.

4.2.1. Quantitative Research Instruments

4.2.1.1. The EI-PSA Regression Test

The EI-PSA regression test (**Appendix A**) was run to explore the potential predictive relationship that might conjoin students' EI and their achievement in speaking and writing. To this end, this test, in turn, makes use of students' scores that are pertinent to the major variables, namely the scores of the EI test, the scores of the writing exam, and the scores of the speaking exam (the test made use of the scores of writing and speaking exams which were not run by the researcher).

4.2.1.1.1. Scores of the EI Exam

In order to measure the students' EI, the TEIQue – Short Form (SF) was deployed. The TEIQue-SF is a 30 item questionnaire that is designed to measure global EI (Petrides & Furnham, 2000). To get the whole of the thirty items, two items of each of the fifteen facets of the full form are selected (Dåderman & Kajonius, 2022).

The TEIQue-SF is devised in the form of 30 statements that describes different personal traits. The respondents demonstrate the extent to which they agree with each statement on a seven- point Likert scale. This ranges from 'strongly disagree' represented by point 1 to 'strongly

agree' represented by point 7. To measure EI, the responses of all items are summed and divided by the total number of items that is thirty.

Of note, according to Laborde et al. (2016), the TEIQue-SF was subjected to validation demonstrating strong psychometric properties and validity to measure EI. Further, this test proves to be a viable alternative for the long version of the TEIQue especially when the administration of the latter is not feasible.

4.2.1.1.3. Scores of the Writing Exam

Students' scores of the sixth semester exam were utilized in the EI-PSA regression test wherein the researcher was not involved in the design of the writing exam. For description purposes, the exam required the students to write a five paragraph essay to discuss the topic chosen by the assessor As such, the students were asked to deliver an exploratory essay in which they tackle the issue of the effects of employing technological tools in students learning. One hour and a half was the time allocated for students to finish the essay.

Table 7

Scoring Key of the Writing Exam

The criterion	The correspondent maximal mark
Word Selection	2
Logical Ideas	4
Punctuation	2
Grammar	4
Explanation and Exemplification	4
Presentation	2
Spelling	2
Total	20

4.2.1.1.2. Scores of the Speaking Exam

Students' scores of the sixth semester exam were utilized as part of the present study. It is worth mentioning that the speaking exam was originally run by the teacher of oral expression in the department of English and not by the researcher.

For details, the speaking exam was conducted in the form of an interview between the teacher and the student. As regards the content of the questions that made up the interview, the students are asked to select one of the cards provided to them by the teacher. Each card carries a certain topic that is not totally new for the students. That is to say, the topics are already accounted for during the whole semester so that in the test the students are not faced with a completely unfamiliar topic which might impinge on their language performance.

The topics that the exam incorporated drew upon different fields including, education, politics, sciences, social phenomena and general culture. These included:

- 1- Climate change
- 2- Online teaching
- 3- The experience of learning different languages
- 4- Artificial intelligence
- 5- Feminism in Algeria
- 6- English over French in Algeria
- 7- Cultural transmission via Social media
- 8- Parenting in the current era

9- Unemployment and illegal immigration

10- Algerian Universities vs. International Universities

Table 8

Scoring Key of the Speaking Exam

The criterion	The correspondent maximal mark
Grammar	2
Pronunciation	4
Fluency	4
Comprehension	3
Clarity of ideas	4
Explanations	2
Accent	1
Total	20

4.2.1.2. Students' Questionnaire A

The questionnaire is a useful data collection tool that is widely used by researchers in the field of social and human sciences (Dörnyei, 2003). As put by Kothari (2004), the questionnaire, as a data collection method, is excessively relied on amongst researchers in different fields as it is characterized by the following merits.

- Low cost: delivering a questionnaire generally does not require the researcher to use high cost means especially when compared to other methods such as lab experiments.
- Free of Bias: through questionnaires, the research is able to avoid what is known as the interviewer bias. This is mainly because the respondents are allowed to report their answers independently and without the interference of an interviewer that might affect their answers.

- Time availability: respondents to questionnaire are not necessarily obliged to answer the questionnaire on the spot; rather, they are allowed to take time in order for them to produce accurate responses.
- Reaching the respondents: unlike interviews, participants in the questionnaire method can take part without being met face to face. Questionnaires can be sent to a large number of respondents via various means including emails and different social media platforms.
- Large samples: due to their utility, questionnaires tend, by nature, to be administered to large samples. This is believed to help eliciting results that are dependable and can be generalized in comparison with studies wherein the sample is limited.

4.2.1.2.1. Description of Questionnaire A

This questionnaire (**Appendix B**) is specifically devised to cater for the students' attitudes towards the role of students' EI competencies in PSA. To achieve this, the questionnaire was divided into six major sections wherein each section is concerned with a different angle that serves the general aim of the questionnaire.

The first section, background information, is made up of two questions. It aims at exploring the students' background in terms of gender and age as part of coming into terms with details about the respondents of the questionnaire.

The second section is composed of four closed ended questions that set out to highlight the students' viewpoints as regards the construct of EI. As such, this section targets determining how the students' perceive the main competencies involved in the construct in addition to its significance for success in life and academic achievement.

The third section is designed to account for the students' standpoints regarding achievement in the writing skill. To this end, it contains three fundamental questions to examine how the students view WA in terms of difficulty, the major traits of good writing, in addition to the most influential factors that interfere with achievement.

The fourth section is composed of three questions that were specifically devised to tackle the students' attitudes towards SA. Just as it is the case with WA, the questions address attitudes towards the difficulty of achievement in speaking as well as the major constraints and factors that have bearings on it.

The fifth section of the questionnaire is directly concerned with the students' attitudes towards the role of students' EI competencies in WA. En route of this, the students are presented with a series of statements to which they respond expressing the degree to which they agree with each statement on a five point scale starting from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). These statements revolve around the importance of each EI competency in helping students to produce pieces of writing that characterized by the traits of good writing. Added to this, the statements are concerned with role of the competencies in alleviating the difficulties that students encounter in their attempt to fulfill WA. For more details, each of the adopted competencies is associated with nine statements that reflect achievement in writing. As such a whole of 45 statements is devised in this section.

The sixth section in the questionnaire tackles the significance of students' EI in SA. It pursues the same procedure utilized in section five. The participants are asked to express the degree to which they agree with the proposed statements on a five point scale. The importance of each of the five competencies for SA is examined through catering for its significance in reducing

the students' difficulties in addition to rendering the factors affecting it of a positive outcome. This is to be attained through attributing nine statements to each competency.

4.2.1.2.2. Piloting Questionnaire A

Piloting the research instruments is an essential step of any research (Kothari, 2004). The pretest of a designed research tool allows the researcher to come into terms with the feasibility of the instrument. Further, this step enables the researcher to exert modifications on the instrument with aim of alleviating the explored deficiencies that piloting succeeds in demonstrating. The questionnaire was sent to 18 third year students who were selected in a purposive way. This sample included students with varied averages in the fifth semester. Six students got an average that ranges between 7.00 and 10.00. Further, six students got an average that ranges between 10.00 and 13.00. Finally, the remaining six students got an average that ranges between 13.00 and 16.00. The participants of this pilot study were asked to read the questionnaire and provide comments on it highlighting the problems and inconveniences they might encounter when responding to the questionnaire.

This step allowed for collecting information on the feasibility of the questionnaire by checking a diversity of elements including response rate, clarity of questions, completion time, and overall feasibility evaluation. It was revealed that the response rate was high as seventeen students completed the whole questionnaire (94%). As for the clarity of the questions, students did not face problems in understanding the questions and the instructions governing the questionnaire. The students took an average time of 24 minutes to finish the questionnaire which can be considered as an optimal time for answering a questionnaire that is involved in a PhD research. As far as the overall feasibility evaluation, the questionnaire was considered feasible on the whole as it does not include barriers to its completion.

4.2.1.2.3. Administration of Questionnaire A

The questionnaire was designed on Google Forms and the link was shared with the participants via posting it on a Facebook group that is already joined by the overwhelming majority of third year students. The process of receiving the answers lasted for a total of 27 days.

4.2.1.3. Students' Questionnaire B

4.2.1.3.1. Description of Questionnaire B

This questionnaire (**Appendix C**) sets out to unravel the students' attitudes towards the role of teachers' EI competencies in PSA. It is divided into two main sections that are directly pertinent to fulfill the questionnaire aims. Of note, in the current questionnaire, the students were not asked to provide background information as only those who took part in responding to Questionnaire A were asked to fill in this questionnaire. This makes the background information applies to both questionnaires.

The first section aims at exploring how the informants view the importance of teachers' EI in influencing the factors leading to WA. The students are presented with a series of statements to which they respond expressing the degree to which they agree with each statement on a five point scale starting from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). These statements revolve around the importance of each EI in helping students to produce pieces of writing that are characterized by the traits of good writing. Added to this, the statements are concerned with role of the competencies in alleviating the difficulties that students encounter in their attempt to reach WA. For more details, each of the adopted competencies is associated with nine statements that reflect achievement in writing. As such a whole of 45 statements is devised in this section.

The second section in the questionnaire is concerned with the significance of teachers' EI in students' SA. The participants are asked to express the degree to which they agree with the proposed statements on a five point scale. The importance of each of the five competencies for SA is examined through catering for its significance in reducing the students' difficulties in addition to rendering the factors affecting it positive. This is to be attained through attributing nine statements to each competency.

4.2.1.3.2. Piloting Questionnaire B

The questionnaire was sent to 21 third year students who were selected in a purposive way. This sample included students with varied averages in the fifth semester just like the procedure utilized in piloting questionnaire 'A'. This sample included students with varied averages in the fifth semester. Seven students got an average that ranges between 7.00 and 10.00. Further, seven students got an average that ranges between 10.00 and 13.00. Finally, the remaining seven students got an average that ranges between 13.00 and 16.00. The participants of this pilot study were asked to read the questionnaire and provide comments on it highlighting the problems and inconveniences they might encounter when responding to the questionnaire.

The procedure utilized to examine the utility of Questionnaire A was duplicated in piloting questionnaire B. The response rate was 100% as all the selected students completed the questionnaire. No understanding issues were reported by the students as far as the clarity of questions is concerned. Further, the time required to finish the questionnaire was about 15 minutes as an average time. Finally, the overall feasibility evaluation demonstrated that the questionnaire was ready for administration to the participants.

4.2.1.3.3. Administration of Questionnaire B

The questionnaire was designed on Google Forms and the link was shared with the participants via posting it on Facebook group that the overwhelming majority of third year students. The process of receiving the answers lasted for a total of two weeks

4.2.2. Qualitative Research Instruments

4.2.2.1. Writing Teachers' Interview

As maintained by King and Horrocks (2010, p. 3), “Undoubtedly, interviewing is the most commonly used method of data collection in qualitative research, and this familiarity has advantages for us as researchers”. This is to underscore that within the qualitative approach to research, interviewing proves to hold an essential place encouraging researchers to adopt it as a prominent research instrument.

Central to qualitative interviewing is the use of semi structured interviews. This type of interviews involves the use of a set of prepared questions that are predetermined by the research to tackle the major issues of their research; nevertheless, the interviewer has a certain freedom in using follow-up questions as a way of reacting to the interviewer response and to seek more information on the basis of it (Adams, 2015; Mueller & Segal, 2015; Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003). According to Wilson (2014), the prevalence of the use of semi-structured interviews as a major instrument of qualitative analysis is mainly due to a number merits. These include:

- First, due to its interactive nature, they allow for the exploration of issues that are not originally addressed by the researcher when designing the interview;

- Second, they are well suited for facilitating the analysis of complicated phenomena by means of asking follow up questions of clarification;
- Third, throughout the course of interviewing, the respondent might digress from the main aim of the question. The flexible nature of Semi structured interviews supports the redirection of interactions to serve fulfilling the research aims;
- Finally, since they involve a set of prepared questions to guide the interview, semi structured interviews require less training to be conducted in comparison with one required for conducting unstructured interviews.

4.2.2.1.1. Description of Writing Teachers' Interview

This semi structured interview (**Appendix D**) addresses teachers of written expression in the department of English at the University Centre of Mila. It purports to proffer a set of insightful glimpses into the teachers' attitudes towards the role of EI in WA. In congruence with the fundamental aims of the current study, the interview is not confined to exploring the role of students' EI in WA merely; rather, it is, also, concerned with the role of teachers' EI as well.

The interview is composed of three main sections. Two questions are devoted to the first section dealing with the teachers' background information. This includes the degree each teacher holds in addition to the years of experience spent teaching at university. The second section of the interview is meant to come into terms with the way the teachers perceive the relationship between students' EI competencies and achievement in the writing skill. To this end, six open questions are involved tackling the issue from multiple angles. The third, and final, section in the present interview consists of six open-ended questions just like the previous one. It essentially sets out to explore how teachers' EI influences their students' WA as the interviewees look on it.

4.2.2.1.2. Piloting Writing Teachers' Interview

In order to collect information on the feasibility of this interview, it was delivered to two writing teachers who are included within the participants in the interview. The teachers were asked to read the interview and provide their views as regards a number of factors including the length, the clarity of the questions, and the extent to which the questions address the aim of the interview. The teachers agreed that the interview can be described as feasible since its length is suitable, the questions address the aim of the interview. In the meantime, they suggested that the major concepts involved in the interview, namely EI and WA should be defined during the interview so that the participants can deeply grasp the questions and proffer sufficient information accordingly.

4.2.2.1.3. Administration of Writing Teachers' Interview

Conducting the interview relied on face-to-face meetings with the teachers in addition to online meetings via Google Zoom Meetings. In either ways, the interviewees were first introduced to the context of the study along with the research aims in general and the aims of the interview in particular. To guide this interview, teachers were offered a short definition of EI and a brief description of the major competencies that are adopted in the research. As for the duration, the 11 interviews ranged between 31 minutes to 43 minutes depending on the amount of information each respondent was able to offer.

Table 9

Duration of Writing Teachers' Interviews

Participant	Duration (min)
P 1	38. 26

P 2	31.44
P 3	40.09
P 4	40.55
P 5	37.23
P 6	32.15
P 7	43.03
P 8	37.00
P 9	41.22
P 10	40.44
P 11	40.55

4.2.2.2. Speaking Teachers' Interview

4.2.2.2.1. Description of Speaking Teachers' Interview

This semi structured interview (**Appendix E**) addresses teachers of oral expression in the department of English at the University Centre of Mila. It purports to explore the teachers' perceptions of the role of EI in SA. Of course, the interview is targets not only the role of students' EI in WA, but also the role of teachers' EI as well.

The interview is composed of three main sections. Two questions are devoted to the first section dealing with the teachers' background information. This includes the degree each teacher holds in addition to the years of experience spent teaching at university. The second section attempts to come to terms with how the teachers' perceive the relationship between students' EI competencies and achievement in the speaking skill. The third section in the present interview consists of six open-ended questions aiming at exploring the way teachers' EI influences their students' WA as the interviewees look on it.

4.2.2.2.2 Piloting Speaking Teachers' Interview

The interview was delivered to two speaking teachers to obtain their opinions regarding the quality of the interview in terms of relevance, structure and length. The teachers demonstrated no barriers to the administration of the interview underscoring that the concept of EI must be explained to every interviewee as it might not be clear for all the teachers. This remark proved easy to handle given that the nature of the interview is semi structured allowing for the explanation and elaboration on questions during the interview.

4.2.2.2.3. Administration of Speaking Teachers' Interview

Conducting the interview relied on face-to-face and online meetings with the participants. The interviewees were first introduced to the context of the study along with the research aims in general and the aims of the interview in particular. Further, they were provided with a short definition of EI and a brief description of the major competencies that are adopted in the research. As for the duration, the 11 interviews ranged between 29 minutes and 40 minutes.

Table 10

Duration of Speaking Teachers' Interviews

Participant	Duration (min)
P 1	39. 12
P 2	36. 33
P 3	32.23
P 4	29.56
P 5	40.14
P 6	29.33
P 7	30.22
P 8	31.15
P 9	33.44
P 10	35.23
P 11	40.00

4.3. Research Participants

4.3.1. In the Quantitative Part

The participants of study who took part in the EI-PSA regression test, the students' questionnaire 'A' and the students' questionnaire 'B' were 117 third-year EFL students at the University Centre of Mila. As for the sampling technique, convenience sampling was relied on to come up with this sample to represent the whole population that was made up of 157 students as a whole.

Table 11

Demographics of Participants in the Quantitative Part of the Study

Gender	N	%
Male	31	26
Female	86	74
Age	N	%
18-21	99	85
22-25	14	12
Over 25	4	3

4.3.2. In the Qualitative Part

The participants of the study that contributed to the qualitative data collection were different participants depending on the data collection tool with which they were approached. Conveniently selected (as not all the teachers of writing and speaking were available to take part in the interview), eleven teachers of writing and eleven teachers of speaking were interviewed through writing teachers' interview and the speaking teachers' interview, respectively.

Table 12*Demographics of Participants in the Qualitative Part of the Study*

Writing Teachers' Interview		
Gender	N	%
Male	3	27
Female	8	73
Degree	N	%
Master	2	18
Magister	1	9
PhD	8	73
Experience	N	%
1- 4 years	3	27
5-10 years	7	64
Over 10 years	1	9
Speaking Teachers' Interview		
Gender	N	%
Male	4	36
Female	7	64
Degree	N	%
Master	4	36
Magister	1	9
PhD	6	55
Experience	N	%
1- 4 years	4	36
5-10 years	7	64
Over 10 years	0	0

4.4. Analysis of Quantitative Data

To analyze the quantitative data, Statistical Package of Social Science (SPSS 26) was utilized to run the necessary tests and provide the appropriate statistics depending on the constituents of each quantitative research instrument.

With regard to The EI-PSA regression test, simple linear regression was utilized to test the potential predictive relationship that might link students' EI levels, measured by the TEIQue, and their scores in the exams of writing and speaking.

For the students' Questionnaires (A+B), descriptive statistics were used to analyze the students' responses depending on the nature of the questions. Of note, both questionnaires incorporated a whole of 20 scales (10 scales included in each). In this respect, the reliability of scales was measured by means of Cronbach Alpha Coefficient estimating the internal consistency in both questionnaires. According to Tavakol and Dennick (2011) , the acceptable values of this factor range between .7 and .95. Accordingly, the scales of students' questionnaire 'A' obtained a Cronbach Alpha Coefficient of .786 while the scales of students' questionnaire 'B' obtained a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of .709. This indicates acceptable reliability.

The scales were analyzed on a five point Likert scale through the calculation of the mean of each item and the average mean of the whole scale to determine the nature of the students' attitudes pertinent to each scale. As for the mean ranges deployed to decide on the participants' attitudes, the following scheme was utilized. These mean ranges, which are used to decide on whether the attitudes are negative or positive, are commonly used among researchers to analyze five-point Likert scales. Studies using this scheme include (Bosch et al., 2022; Chanwaiwit, 2019)

- **1 - 1.80** for strongly disagree (Negative Attitude)
- **1.81 - 2.60** for disagree, (Negative Attitude)
- **2.61 - 3.40** for neutral, (Neutral Attitude)
- **3.41 - 4.20** for agree, (Positive Attitude)
- **4.21 - 5** for strongly agree (Positive Attitude)

4.5. Analysis of Qualitative Data

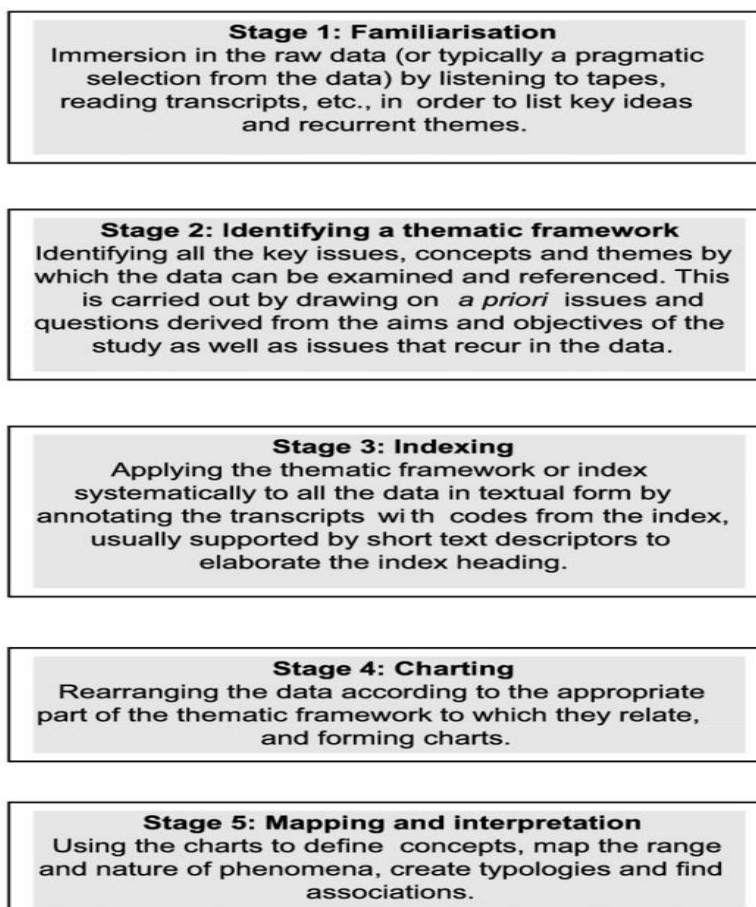
In order to analyze the qualitative data pertinent to the present study, it was opted for the framework analysis to analyze the data elicited from both the writing teachers' interview and the speaking teachers' interview.

4.5.1. Framework Analysis

Framework analysis is a method of qualitative analysis that sets out to proffer specific answers to specific questions about specific population; it is based on the combination of inductively and deductively driven themes to form a framework that guides the process of analysis (Ritchie & Spencer, 1994). This method allows for the researcher to carry out the identification, description, and interpretation of the major themes underlying the data set and organizing them into an organized structure of categories known as the framework (Gale et al., 2013). In simple terms, Goldsmith (2021) asserted that "Framework analysis consists of two major components: creating an analytic framework and applying this analytic framework" (p. 2061). That is to say, the main aim of this method revolves around the creation of a thematic framework in which the data are incorporated in consonance with the category in which they fit. To this end, the analysis process is undertaken through five major stages: familiarization, identifying a thematic framework, indexing, charting, mapping and interpretation (Ritchie & Spencer, 1994).

Figure 10

Stages of Framework Analysis



Note. From Do Educational Psychologists “Walk the Talk” When Consulting? By E. Kennedy et al., 2008, *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 24(3), p. 174. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02667360802256733>. Copyright 2008.

4.5.1.1. Familiarization

This is typically the initial phase of any given qualitative framework analysis. It entails immersion in the data on the part of the researcher in order for them to gain a global overview of

the major thoughts underpinning the presented data (Ritchie et al., 2003). Familiarization is deemed a crucial step in the entire process that involves reviewing the major objectives of the study and the research questions to guide the preliminary scrutiny of data. In so doing, the researcher is able to note the recurrent themes across the dataset, and merge them into the predetermined research aims to result in devising a thematic framework in the next stage (Ritchie et al., 2003).

In analyzing both the writing teachers' interview and the speaking teachers' interview, the transcripts of the interviews were reviewed with the aim of exploring the recurrent ideas that are linked to the original objectives of the whole study. The reviewing stage indicated that the major aims (the importance of students' EI in WA and SA in addition to the importance of teachers' EI in WA and SA) of the interview were addressed in a somewhat detailed manner as they were highly underscored while interviewing the teachers. Hence, a second review was undertaken to analyze the aspects of importance of EI by determining categories only to explore the major skills and competencies that it might foster in the students as part of improving their PSA then setting them into categories.

4.5.1.2. Identifying a thematic framework

This stage makes use of the recurrent themes identified in the familiarization phase in addition to the topic guide that is controlled by the major research aims. These themes are subsumed within broad categories to constitute the overall framework (Ritchie et al., 2003).

In this phase, focus was attributed to the generation of abstract concepts that underpin the framework and against which the data set is indexed and interpreted in the final report of the analysis. It is worth mentioning that the familiarization phase revealed that the students' EI and

teachers' EI have two categories of impact on the PSA of learners: direct and indirect. By the former, it is meant that EI competencies result in fostering PSA by directly enhancing the output of learners. As for the indirect category, EI has significance in improving a set of skills and competencies in learners which they, in turn, use to enhance their performance in writing and speaking. Further, those skills and competencies (components) are further classified into sub categories.

Of note, the framework utilized in the analysis process is developed on the basis of the factors related to achievement in language productive skills. In this respect, the framework utilized in analyzing both kinds of interviews was the same on the grounds that the study aims and the research questions to be answered by both interviews are of the same nature. Further, the literature as regards achievement in both skills demonstrated similarity in the general aspects of achievement conjoining both skills. In addition, the structure of the interviews was the same with slight changes to fit the targeted skill in accordance with the participants. The familiarization phase showed similarity in the general themes of the interviews with potential disparities at the level of components.

Table 13

Identified Framework for Analysis of Interviews

Major theme	Category	Components
Aspects of importance of student' EI in PSA	Direct / indirect	
Aspects of importance of teachers' EI in PSA	Direct / indirect	

Table 14*Semantic Coding of Framework Categories*

Major theme	Category	Semantic Coding
Aspects of importance of student' EI in PSA	Direct	EI has an impact on the production of language
	Indirect	EI has an impact on the factors that lead to a better production of language
Aspects of importance of teachers' EI in PSA	Direct	Teachers' EI has an impact on the production of language
	Indirect	Teachers' EI has an impact on the factors that lead to a better production of language

4.5.1.3. Indexing

Indexing in this context refers to the operation of checking whether the raw data in the transcripts fit into the themes that make up the theoretical index. Simply put, the researcher examines in details every passage in the transcripts and decides upon the category in which it conveniently falls (Ritchie et al., 2003).

In this phase, the previously identified framework was applied to the whole dataset of both the writing teachers' interview and the speaking teacher interview. It was mainly conducted to assign the determined components to the corresponding sub categories. Checking the data allowed for the refinement of the framework as a set of subcategories was identified. The framework was elaborated even further as shown in **Table 15**. As for the process of indexing, linking the constituents of framework and the dataset was carried out by pen and paper in which each participant's transcript was used as a unit of analysis whose data are situated in the its appropriate category / sub category.

Table 15*Refined framework of Analysis of Interviews*

Major theme	Category	Sub category	Components
Aspects of importance of student' EI in PSA	Direct / Indirect	Linguistic/Cognitive Psychological/ Affective	
Aspects of importance of teachers' EI in PSA	Direct / Indirect	Linguistic/Cognitive Rapport/ Affective	

Of note, the coding process to determine the components was based on lexical and semantic coding; it is demonstrated in **Table 16**.

Table 16*Coding of Framework Sub categories*

Major theme	Category	Coding
Aspects of importance of student' EI in PSA	Linguistic	The impact of EI on the linguistic competence of students
	Cognitive	The impact of EI on the skills and abilities linked to mental processes that help in the production of language.
	Psychological	The impact of EI on traits that are involved within the psychology of the learner which have effect on language production.
	Affective	The impact of EI on skills and abilities related to learners emotional state which have bearings on language production.
Aspects of importance of teachers' EI in PSA	Linguistic Support	The impact of teachers' EI on the production of language and the linguistic competence

		related to each skill.
	Cognitive	The impact of teachers' EI on the skills and abilities linked to mental processes that help in the production of language
	Rapport	The impact of teachers' EI on factors that contribute to the enhancement of student-teacher rapport and impact the production of language
	Affective	The impact of teachers' EI on skills and abilities that make up learners' emotional state and have bearings on language production.

4.5.1.4. Charting

The main thrust of this phase is the reduction of text into summarized thematic charts that are easy to handle and to better illustrate the data within their correspondent categories in the framework (Ritchie et al., 2003). In this step, data were ordered in a table of matrix where the rows of the table include the constituents of the framework while the columns include the units of analysis that is are the 11 participants of each interview. The process of charting was conducted in a pen and paper method.

Table 17*Chart of the Writing Teacher's Interview*

			P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8	P9	P10	P11
Aspects of importance of student' EI in SA													
	Direct aspects	Linguistic aspects											
		Cognitive Aspects											
	Indirect aspects	Psychological Aspects											
		Affective aspects											
Aspects of importance of teachers' EI in SA													
	Direct aspects	Linguistic support											
		Cognitive support											
	Indirect aspects	Rapport support											
		Affective support											

Table 18*Chart of the Speaking Teacher's Interview*

			P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8	P9	P10	P11
Aspects of importance of student' EI in WA													
	Direct aspects	Linguistic aspects											
		Cognitive Aspects											
	Indirect aspects	Psychological Aspects											
		Affective aspects											
Aspects of													

importance of teachers' EI in WA													
	Direct aspects	Linguistic support											
		Cognitive support											
	Indirect aspects	Rapport support											
		Affective support											

4.5.1.5. Mapping and Interpretation

The final phase is also known as “synthesizing data”. As the terminology suggests, it is the stage wherein the analyst reviews the thematic charts and endeavors to elicit meaning out of the entire data set. This results in the final version of the thematic framework that is the basis of the qualitative analysis conducted in accordance with the research aims and questions (Ritchie et al., 2003). The mapping and interpretation of the current analysis is presented in the findings of the qualitative findings of the study in the next chapter.

4.6. Ethical Considerations

According to Cacciattolo (2015), there is a number of ethical principles that should be present in every research project and of which every research must be totally aware prior to the beginning of their study. These include: consent, voluntary participation, privacy and confidentiality. Throughout the entire process of data collection, these ethical tenets that guide research were adhered to as part of ensuring the transparency and integrity of the current study. This touches upon both the quantitative and qualitative parts of the study. All the participants of the study including the students and teachers were provided with all the information needed about the study in which they are about to take part. In this respect, the participants were informed that

their participation is voluntary and that their contribution is deployed for research purposes only. Besides, anonymity was ensured as the students and teachers were not asked to provide their names. As for the confidentiality of the research, data were stored in a safe place to ensure their security. This helped proffering a clear picture as regards the research procedures pertinent to the study and facilitated the data collection process.

Conclusion

Throughout Chapter Four, the methodology deployed in the present research is presented in details. This involves the presentation of the research design that is of concurrent triangulation design incorporating an alliance of quantitative and qualitative approaches to the collection and analysis of data. The EI-PSA regression test, Students' questionnaire 'A' and students' 'questionnaire 'B' embody the quantitative part of the study whose analysis is approached through simple linear regression analysis for the test and descriptive statistics for both questionnaires. As for the qualitative part, the writing teachers' interview and the speaking teachers' interview are conducted and analyzed by means of a framework analysis method to yield a diversity of qualitative data that address the research questions. As such, this chapter sets the ground to the understanding of the research finding that are elaborated in the following chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

Quantitative Findings

Introduction	139
5.1. Findings from the EI-PSA	139
5.1.1. Normal Distribution of data	140
5.1.1.1. Normality of the EI Data	141
5.1.1.2. Normality of the WA Data	142
5.1.1.3. Normality of the SA Data	143
5.1.2. Regression Analysis of EI and WA	144
5.1.2.1. Checking the Assumptions of Simple Linear Regression.....	144
5.1.2.2. Regression analysis Coefficients and Equation	148
5.1.3. Regression Analysis of EI and SA	149
5.1.3.1. Checking the Assumptions of Simple Linear Regression.....	149
5.1.3.2. Regression analysis Coefficients and Equation	153
5.2. Findings from the Students Questionnaire' A	154
5.2.1. Section One: Background Information	154
5.2.3. Section Three: Students' Views of Writing Achievement.....	160
5.2.4. Section Four: Students' Views of Speaking Achievement	165
5.2.5. Section Five: Students' Emotional Intelligence and Writing Achievement	169
5.2.6. Section Six: Students' Emotional Intelligence and Speaking Achievement	177
5.3. Findings from the Students Questionnaire' B	184
5.3.1. Section One: Teachers' EI and Students' WA.....	184
5.3.2. Section Two: Teachers' EI and Students' SA	193
Conclusion.....	201

Introduction

Presenting the research findings in any given study embodies a fundamental step in research as it is the phase wherein answers to the research questions are proffered. As such, the current chapter concerns itself with the major quantitative findings that resulted out of applying the previously explained research design and the quantitative data collection tools. To this end, the findings are presented separately in accordance with the tool with which they were proffered. As such, the quantitative findings in this chapter subsume results obtained from the EI-PSA regression test, the students' questionnaire A, and the students' questionnaire B.

5.1. Findings from the EI-PSA

Table 19

Descriptives of the variables

		Statistic	Std. Error
EI	Mean	4.4052	.03426
	5% Trimmed Mean	4.3971	
	Median	4.3850	
	Variance	.137	
	Std. Deviation	.37061	
	Minimum	3.71	
	Maximum	5.20	
	Range	1.49	
	Interquartile Range	.48	
	Kurtosis	.392	.224
WA	Mean	10.2179	.23628
	5% Trimmed Mean	10.1811	
	Median	10.5000	
	Variance	6.532	
	Std. Deviation	2.55574	
	Minimum	5.50	
	Maximum	16.00	
	Range	10.50	
	Interquartile Range	4.00	

	Kurtosis	.148	.224
SA	Mean	12.0000	.19649
	5% Trimmed Mean	12.0000	
	Median	12.0000	
	Variance	4.517	
	Std. Deviation	2.12538	
	Minimum	8.00	
	Maximum	16.00	
	Range	8.00	
	Interquartile Range	3.50	
	Kurtosis	-.077	.224

Table 19 reveals the descriptives of the variables that are directly involved in the EI-PSA test, namely EI, WA, and SA. As indicated in this table, students' EI levels range between a minimum value of 3.71 and a maximum value of 5.20 with a mean of 4.4052. As such, this entails that the students' level of EI is deemed high as the mean surpasses 4. For the second variable, WA, the scores of the writing exam range between 5.50 and 16 with a mean of 10.22; this indicates that, on average, the students' scores exceeds the average score that is 10. As for SA, the scores range between 8 and 16 with a mean of 12; this demonstrates that the students' scores exceed the average score that is 10.

5.1.1. Normal Distribution of data

In order to test the normal distribution of the data of the three variables involved in the test, two types of tools are deployed: statistical and graphical. For the former, the statistical test to be utilized is the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test. For the latter, the histogram with normal curve is selected to assure normality graphically.

5.1.1.1. Normality of the EI Data

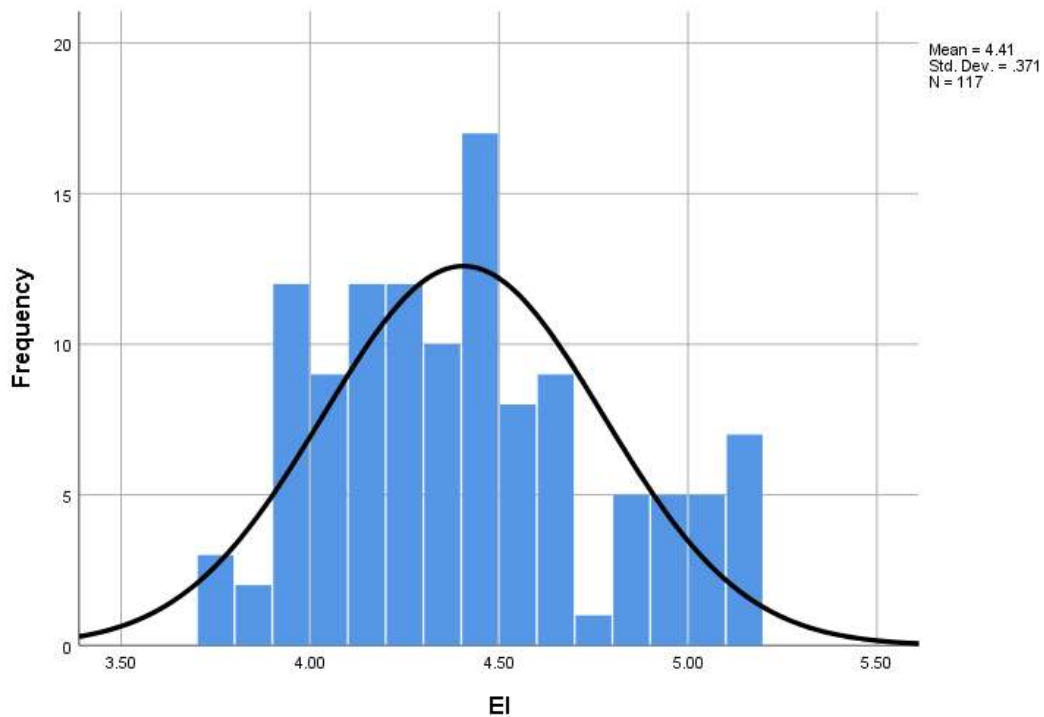
Table 20

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of EI Data Normality

Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			
	Statistic	df	Sig.
EI	.078	117	.080

Figure 11

Histogram of EI Data Normality



As shown by **Table 20**, the p value is greater than 0.05 ($p > 0.05$) which suggests that the data are normally distributed. This is supported upon interpretation of the histogram. As

demonstrated in **Figure 11**, the curve is approximately bell-shaped and roughly symmetric around the mean. Therefore, normal distribution is assumed.

5.1.1.2. Normality of the WA Data

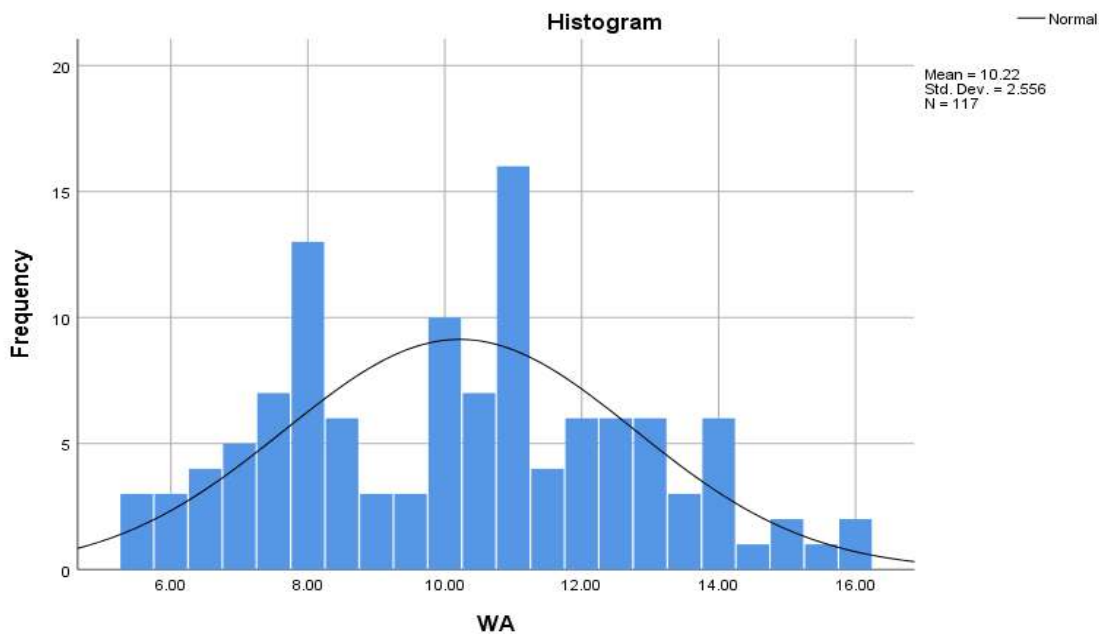
Table 21

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of WA Data Normality

Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			
	Statistic	df	Sig.
WA	.106	117	.006

Figure 12

Histogram of WA Data Normality



As shown by **Table 21**, the p value is greater than 0.05 ($p > 0.05$) which suggests that the data are normally distributed. This is supported upon interpretation of the histogram. As

demonstrated in **Figure 12**, the curve is approximately bell-shaped and roughly symmetric around the mean. Therefore, normal distribution is assumed

5.1.1.3. Normality of the SA Data

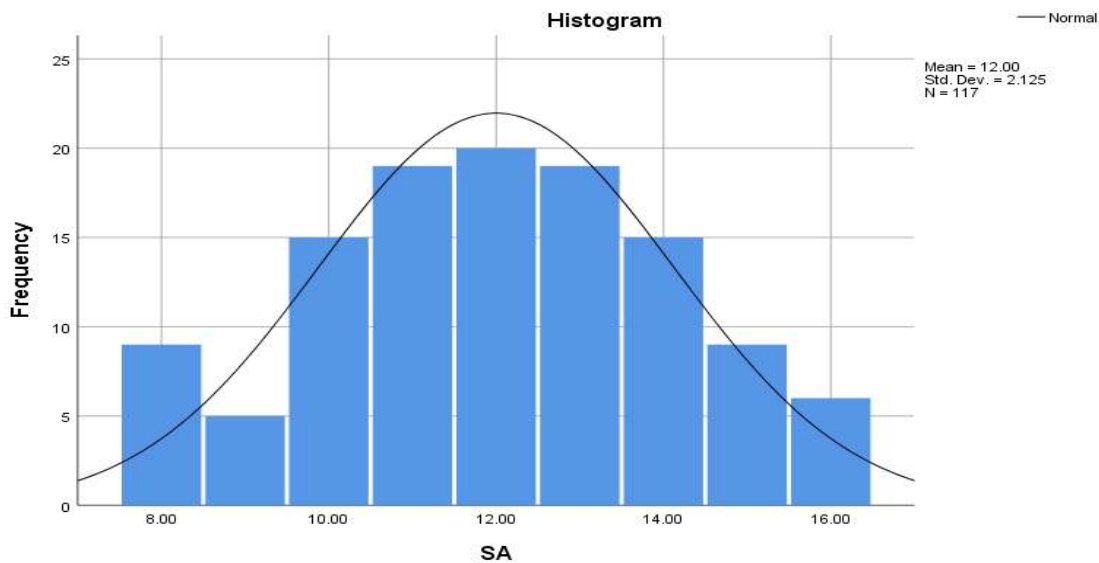
Table 22

Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of SA Data Normality

Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			
	Statistic	df	Sig.
SA	.100	117	.008

Figure 13

Histogram of SA Data Normality



As shown by **Table 22**, the p value is greater than 0.05 ($p > 0.05$) which suggests that the data are normally distributed. This is supported upon interpretation of the histogram. As

demonstrated in **Figure 13**, the curve is approximately bell-shaped and roughly symmetric around the mean. Therefore, normal distribution is assumed.

5.1.2. Regression Analysis of EI and WA

5.1.2.1. Checking the Assumptions of Simple Linear Regression

➤ Linearity

Figure 14

Simple Scatter with Line of WA by EI

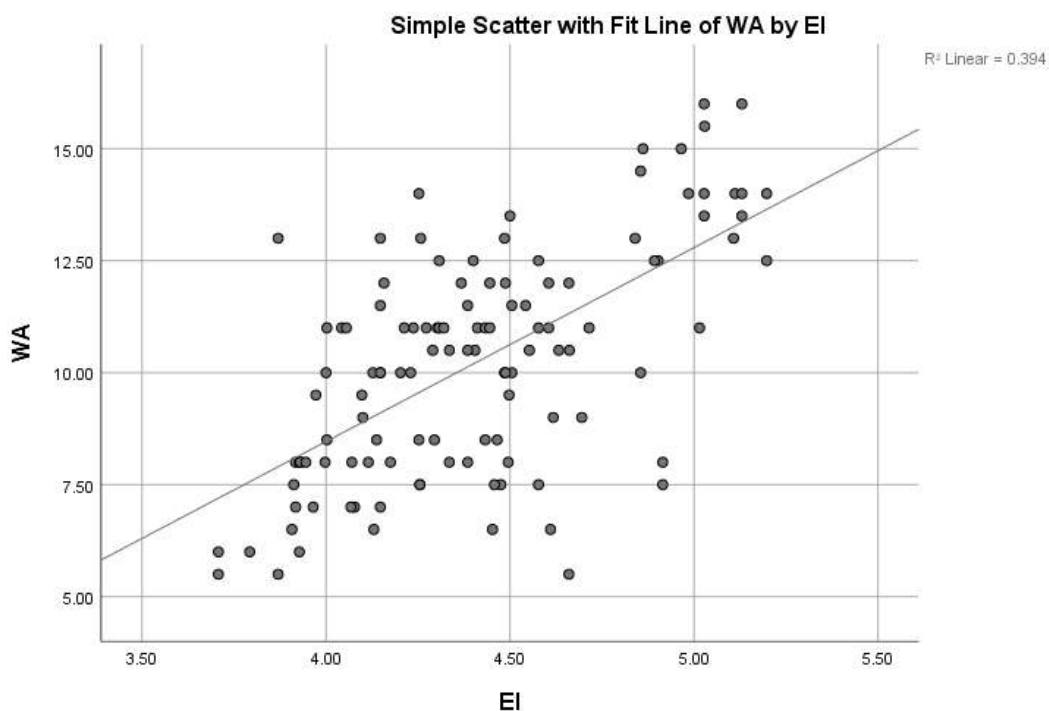


Figure 14 is a graphical representation of the relationship of the students' EI and achievement in the writing skill. As demonstrated, there is no curved pattern of data. The scatter points are clustered along the line of best fit creating a positive slope. The values of the response

tend to increase, on average, as the values of the explanatory variable increase. As such, the graph reveals the existence of a positive linear relationship conjoining the students' EI and WA. This linear relationship allows for conducting a simple linear regression analysis.

➤ **Absence of Extreme Outliers**

Table 23

Residuals Statistics of EI and WA Regression

Residuals Statistics^a					
	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	7.1981	13.6473	10.2179	1.60410	117
Residual	-5.82081	5.09856	.00000	1.98965	117
Std. Predicted Value	-1.883	2.138	.000	1.000	117
Std. Residual	-2.913	2.551	.000	.996	117

a. Dependent Variable: WA

Table 22 reveals the statistics of residuals on the basis of which the absence of extreme variables can be determined. As indicated, the minimum value of Std Residual (-2.913) is greater than -3, while the maximum value of Std Residual (2.551) is less than 3. This denotes that the data set does not include outliers. Hence, the principle of absence of extreme variables is satisfied.

➤ **Independence of observations**

Table 24

Model Summary of EI and WA Regression

Model Summary					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.628 ^a	.394	.389	1.99828	1.863

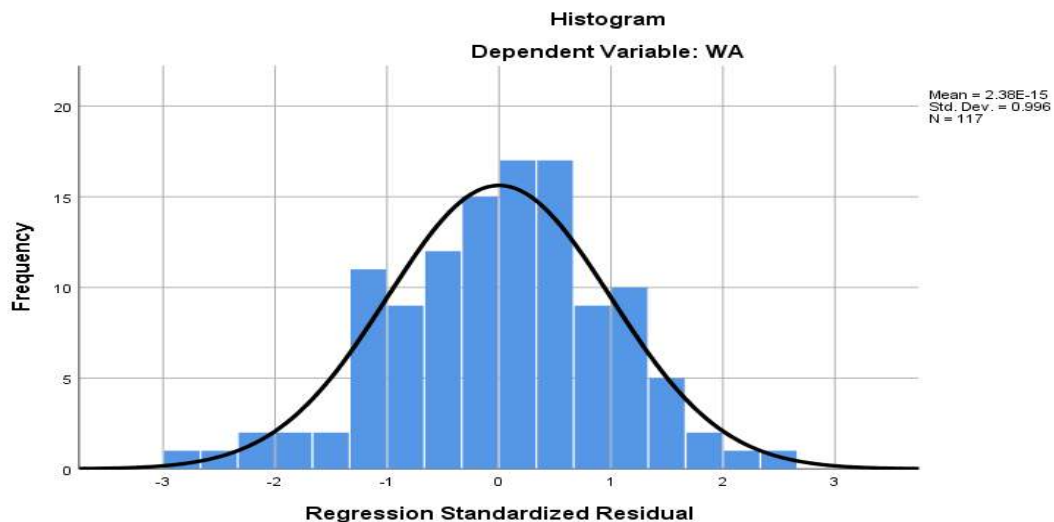
a. Predictors: (Constant), EI

Independence of observation is determined through the value of the Durbin-Watson; it is assumed when this value is within the range of 1.5-2.5. As revealed by **Table 24**, the Durbin Watson value is 1.863 which satisfies the principle of independence of observations.

➤ **Normality of Residuals**

Figure 15

Histogram of Normality of Residuals of EI and WA Regression

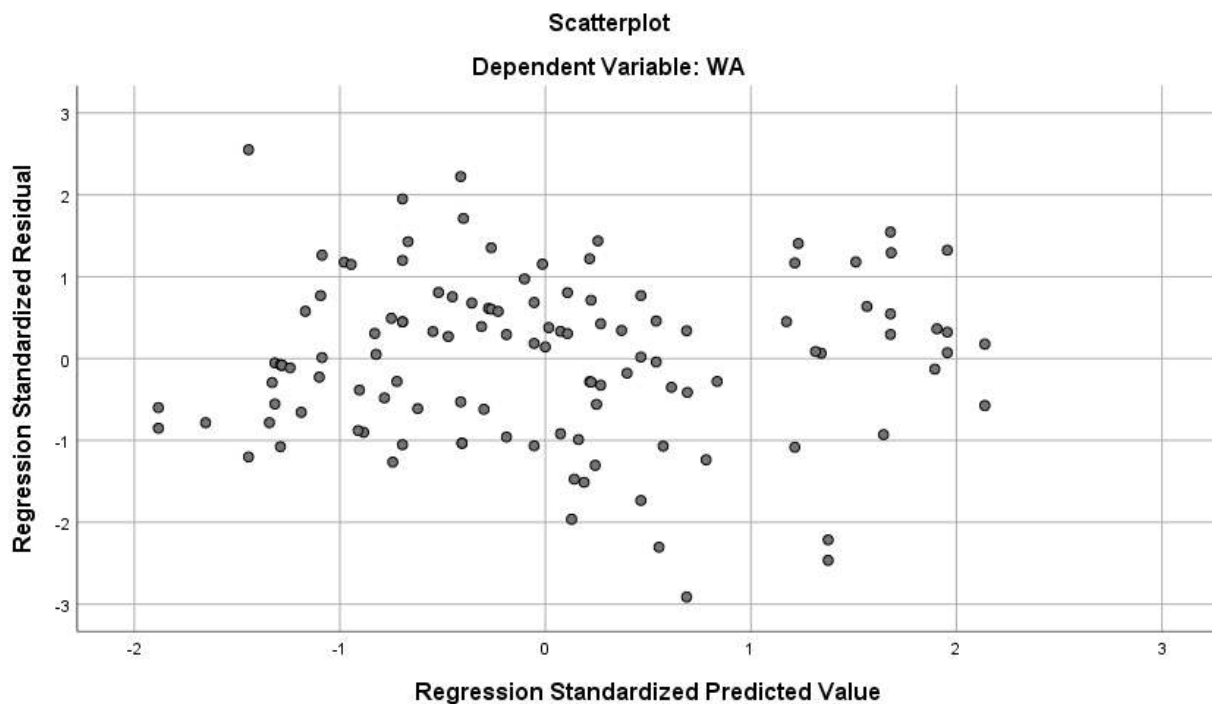


Upon interpretation of the histogram of standardized residuals, the line is bell shaped and roughly symmetric indicating normality. Therefore, the principle of normality of residuals is satisfied.

➤ **Homoscedasticity**

Figure 16

Scatterplot of Standardized Residuals versus Standardized Predicted Values of EI and WA Regression



The scatterplot of standardized residuals versus standardized predicted values is deployed to check homoscedasticity. **Figure 16** reveals the absence of any pattern in the distribution of the dots in the scatterplot. This signifies that the principle of homoscedasticity is satisfied.

5.1.2.2. Regression analysis Coefficients and Equation

Given that all the required principles of simple linear regression analysis are satisfied, the regression analysis coefficients and equation are brought to bear. Based on the model summary shown in **Table 25**, the R value is .628 which indicates the existence of a moderate correlation between the students' EI and writing scores. Further, the R squared value is .394 indicating that 39.4 % of the variance of the students writing scores is explained by their EI scores.

Table 26

ANOVA Results of EI and WA Regression

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	298.483	1	298.483	74.749	.000 ^b
	Residual	459.209	115	3.993		
	Total	757.692	116			

a. Dependent Variable: WA

b. Predictors: (Constant), EI

In order to check whether EI scores expect WA scores through this model better than it would by chance, the Sig value is examined. As shown in the ANOVA table, the Sig value is .000 and it is less than .05. This denotes that the regression model is significant.

Table 27

Coefficients of EI and WA Regression

Coefficients ^a						
		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	-8.849	2.213		-3.999	.000
	EI	4.328	.501	.628	8.646	.000

a. Dependent Variable: WA

The simple linear regression equation is in the form $Y = a + bX$

Y: the Value of the dependent variable score

a: the B value of B the constant under Unstandardized Coefficients

b: The B value of the independent variable under Unstandardized Coefficients

X: the value of the independent variable score

The regression equation of students' EI scores and WA is scores is:

$$\text{Predicted WA score} = -8.849 + 4.328 (\text{EI score})$$

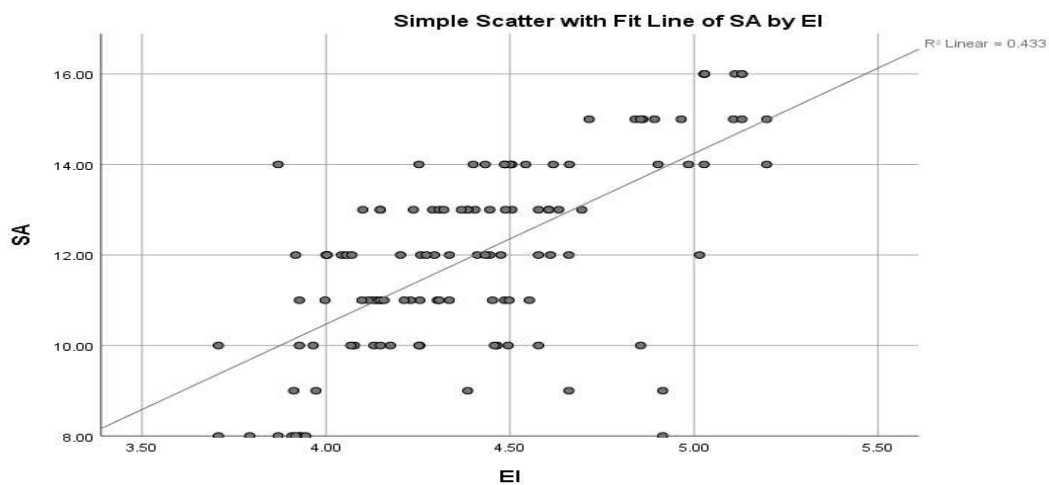
5.1.3. Regression Analysis of EI and SA

5.1.3.1. Checking the Assumptions of Simple Linear Regression

❖ Linearity

Figure 17

Simple Scatter with Line of SA by EI



As shown in **Figure 17**, the scatter points are clustered along the line of best fit creating a positive slope. The values of the response tend to increase, on average, as the values of the explanatory variable increase. As such, the graph reveals the existence of a positive linear relationship conjoining the students' EI and SA. This linear relationship allows for conducting a simple linear regression analysis.

❖ **Absence of Extreme Outliers**

Table 28

Residuals Statistics of EI and SA Regression

Residuals Statistics^a					
	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	9.3682	14.9886	12.0000	1.39796	117
Residual	-5.92302	4.01882	.00000	1.60092	117
Std. Predicted Value	-1.883	2.138	.000	1.000	117
Std. Residual	-2.684	2.499	.000	.996	117

a. Dependent Variable: SA

Table 27 reveals the absence of any extreme outliers in the data set. This is explained through the minimum value of Std residual that is greater than -3 and the maximum value of Std residual that is less than 3.

❖ Independence of observations

Table 29

Model Summary of EI and SA Regression

Model Summary					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.658 ^a	.433	.428	1.60787	2.108

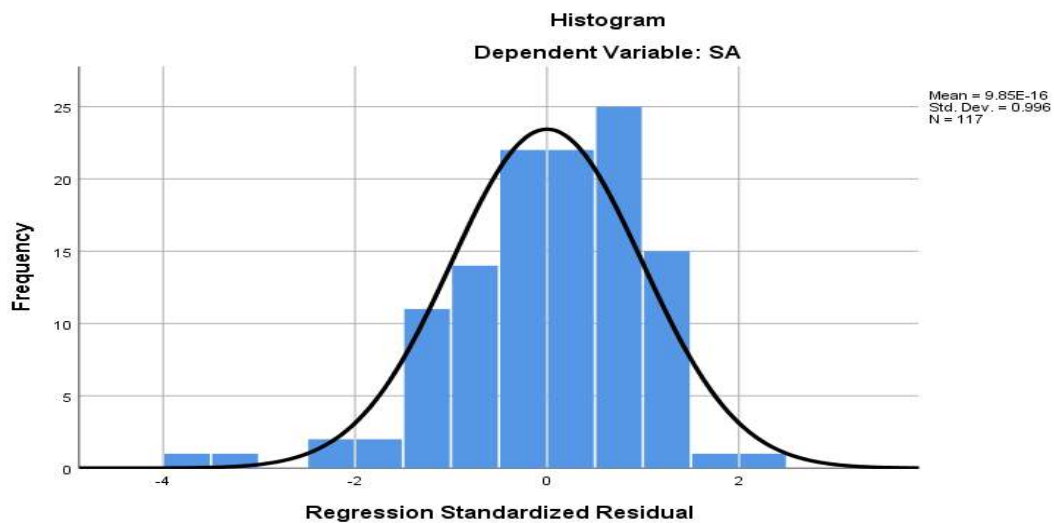
a. Predictors: (Constant), EI

Upon interpretation, the Durbin-Watson value displayed in **Table 28** is 2.108, which is within the range of 1.5 and 2.5. It is, as a result, deduced that the assumption of independence of observation is satisfied.

❖ Normality of Residuals

Figure 18

Histogram of Normality of Residuals of EI and SA Regression

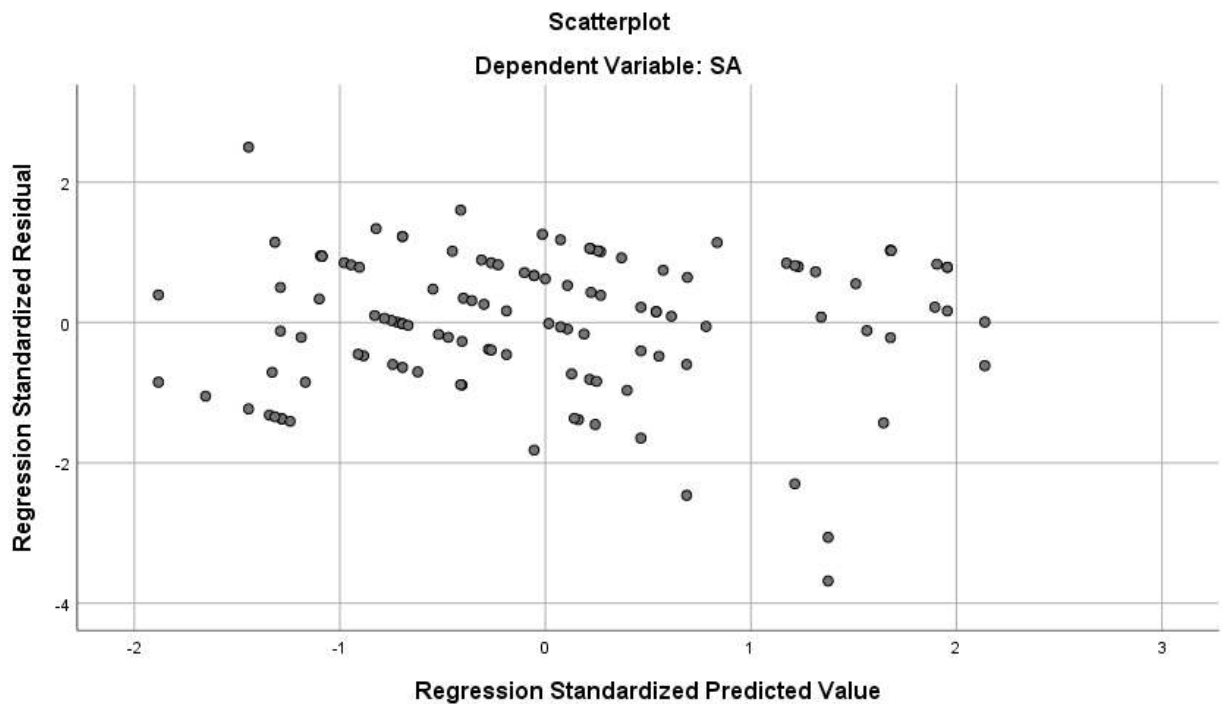


The line of the histogram of standardized residual is visualized in a bell shape and in approximate symmetry around the mean. This indicates the normality of residuals.

❖ Homoscedasticity

Figure 19

Scatterplot of Standardized Residuals versus Standardized Predicted Values of EI and SA Regression



As displayed in **Figure 19**, the points of the scatter plot of standardized predicted value against standardized residual do not follow any specific pattern. This entails that the assumption of homoscedasticity is satisfied.

5.1.3.2. Regression analysis Coefficients and Equation

Upon analysis of the model summary demonstrated in **Table 28**, a moderate correlation between the students' scores of EI and their scores of speaking is estimated ($R = .658$). In turn, the R squared value is .433 which indicates that 43.3% of the variance of the students speaking scores is explained by their EI scores.

Table 30

ANOVA Results of EI and SA Regression

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	226.698	1	226.698	87.689	.000 ^b
	Residual	297.302	115	2.585		
	Total	524.000	116			

a. Dependent Variable: SA

b. Predictors: (Constant), EI

The ANOVA table reveals that the regression model is significant as the Sig value (.000) is less than .05.

Table 31

Coefficients of EI and WA Regression

Coefficients ^a						
		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	-4.617	1.781		-2.593	.011
	EI	3.772	.403	.658	9.364	.000

a. Dependent Variable: SA

Based on the B values of unstandardized coefficients shown in **Table 30**, the regression equation of students' EI scores and SA is scores is:

Predicted SA score = -4.617 + 3.772 (EI score)

5.2. Findings from the Students' Questionnaire A

5.2.1. Section One: Background Information

The background information section involves the demographics of the participants in the questionnaire. The demographics are demonstrated in **Table 11 (Section 4.3.1)** as part of the presentation of the research participants in the quantitative part of the study.

5.2.2. Section Two: Students' Views about EI

Q1- According to you, being emotionally intelligent means that you can:

- a- Understand your own feelings
- b- Recognize other' feelings
- c- Control and regulate your emotions
- d- Use your emotions to build social relationships
- e- Motivate yourself to recognize and manage emotions
- f- All of the above

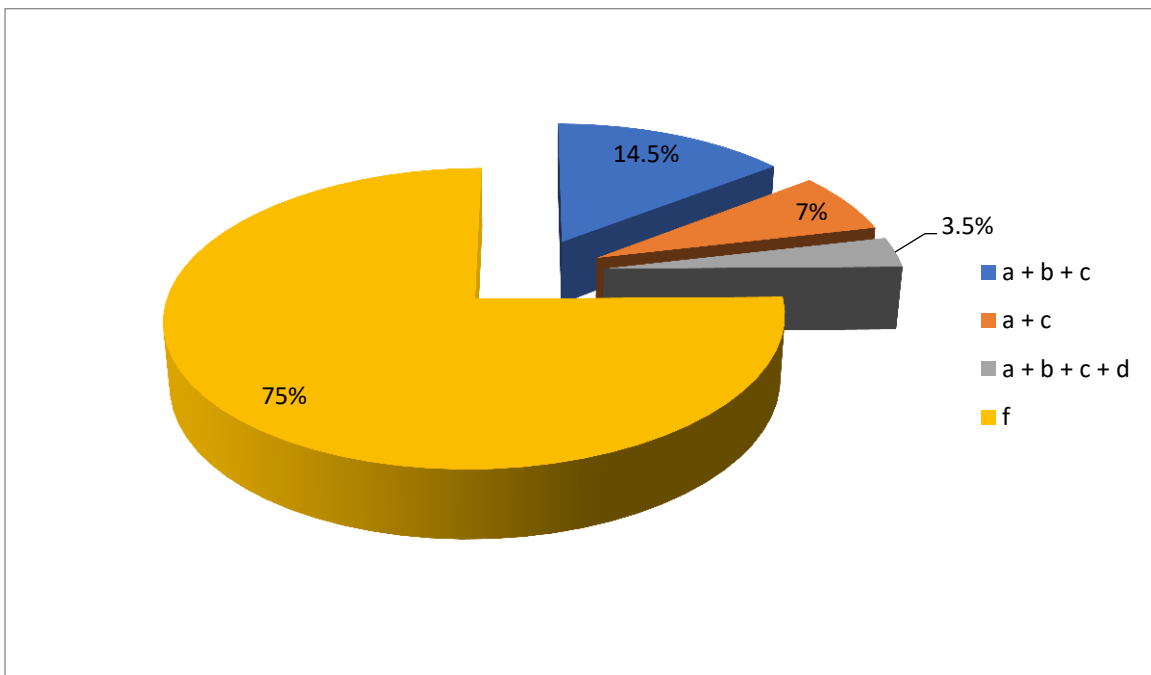
Table 32

Students' Viewpoints Towards the components of EI

Option	N	%
a + b + c	17	14.5
a + c	8	7
a + b + c + d	4	3.5
f	88	75
Total	117	100

Figure 20

Students' Viewpoints Towards the components of EI



The aim behind this question is to explore how students perceive EI as a concept with regard to its major constituents. It is demonstrated in **Table 31** that the majority of the participants opted for the choice “All of the above”, indicating that they perceive EI as a concept that incorporates all the suggested competencies, namely understanding one’ s feelings, recognizing others’ feelings, controlling emotions, using emotions to build social relationships, and motivating oneself to recognize and manage emotions. 17 students (14.5%) claimed that emotional intelligence is a whole of three major competencies that are understanding one’ s feelings, recognizing others’ feelings, and controlling emotions. Eight participants (7%) limited the construct to understanding one’s emotions and controlling them. 4 students (3.5%) opted for all the choices excluding only the competency of motivating oneself to recognize and manage emotions. In light of this, it can be concluded that on the whole, the students show awareness of the complexity of the concept of EI, denoting that it is a multifaceted concept that cannot be studied without reference to its underpinning competencies without neglecting the significance of any.

Q2- Which is more important for life success?

- Emotional Intelligence (EI)
- Traditional Intelligence (IQ)
- Of equal importance

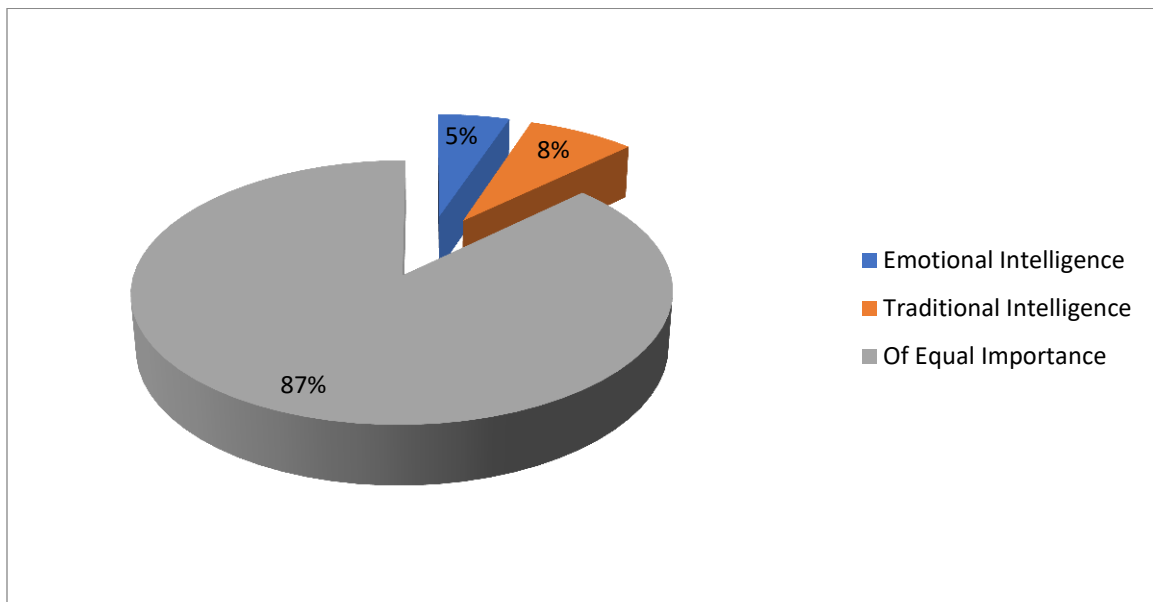
Table 33

Students' Viewpoints Towards the Importance of EI for Life Success

Option	N	%
Emotional Intelligence	6	5
Traditional Intelligence	9	8
Of Equal Importance	102	87
Total	117	100

Figure 21

Students' Viewpoints Towards the Importance of EI for Life Success



The second question in this section partially addresses the significance of EI as it is part of the global study aims. However, ahead of tackling this significance in PSA, it was opted for

exploring the students' attitudes towards the role of EI of in success in life in general in comparison to traditional intelligence (IQ). 5% of the informants claimed that EI is more important for life success, while 8% indicated that traditional intelligence lies ahead of EI when it comes to significance for life success. The overwhelming majority of the informants (87%) opted for of equal importance suggesting that both types are paramount. This indicates that the students acknowledged the importance of EI provided that it is sustained with certain levels of IQ.

Q3- How important is EI for academic achievement?

Very Unimportant - Unimportant - Undecided - Important - Very Important

Table 34

Students' Attitudes Towards the importance of EI for Academic Achievement

Option	N	%	Mean
Very Unimportant	0	0 %	4.41
Unimportant	0	0 %	
Undecided	0	0 %	
Important	68	58 %	
Very Important	49	42 %	

In this question, the importance of EI is further narrowed down to be concerned with academic achievement. This question addresses the students' attitudes towards the extent to which they perceive this significance on a scale of five points. As illustrated in **Table 33**, more than half of the participants opted for important while the rest opted for very important. As such the participants acknowledge the importance of EI in academic achievement (mean = 4.41).

Q5- How interested are you in developing your EI?

Very Uninterested- Uninterested- Undecided- Interested- Very Interested

Table 35

Students' Interest in Developing EI

Option	N	%	Mean
Very Uninterested	0	0 %	4.17
Uninterested	0	0 %	
Undecided	9	8 %	
Interested	79	67 %	
Very Interested	29	25 %	

This question attempts to bring into play the degree to which the students view the significance of developing one's EI competencies through questioning their interest in doing so. Based on the percentages of the suggested options (undecided= 8%; interested= 67%; Very Interested= 25%) and the value of the mean (4.17), it can be inferred that the students demonstrate considerable awareness of the need for developing their EI competencies. This mainly stems from their views towards the importance of these latter for their success in life and academic achievement as expressed in their responses to Q3 and Q4 of this section.

5.2.3. Section Three: Students' Views of WA

Q1- How do you perceive achievement in the writing skill?

Very Easy- Easy- Undecided- Difficult- Very Difficult

Table 36

Students' Attitudes Towards the Difficulty of WA

Option	N	%	Mean
Very Easy	0	0%	3.99
Easy	16	14 %	
Undecided	0	0%	
Difficult	66	56%	
Very Difficult	35	30%	

The aim behind devising this question is to explore the participants' perceptions of the difficulty of achievement in writing which constitutes a major variable in the present study. A variety of views were shown by the participants. On the one hand, a somewhat small proportion considered WA as an easy endeavor. On the other hand, the majority of the students viewed it to be far from easy with 56% opting for difficult and 30% opting for very difficult. With a mean of 3.99, it is deduced that the students perceive WA to be characterized with difficulty. This is mainly due to the complexity of traits and elements involved in the writing process as indicated in the second chapter of the present thesis.

Q2- In which of these traits of writing do you face problems?

a- Ideas

b- Word Choice

c- Sentence Fluency

d- Voice

e- Organization

f- Presentation

g- Conventions (grammar, spelling, punctuation ...)

h- All of the above

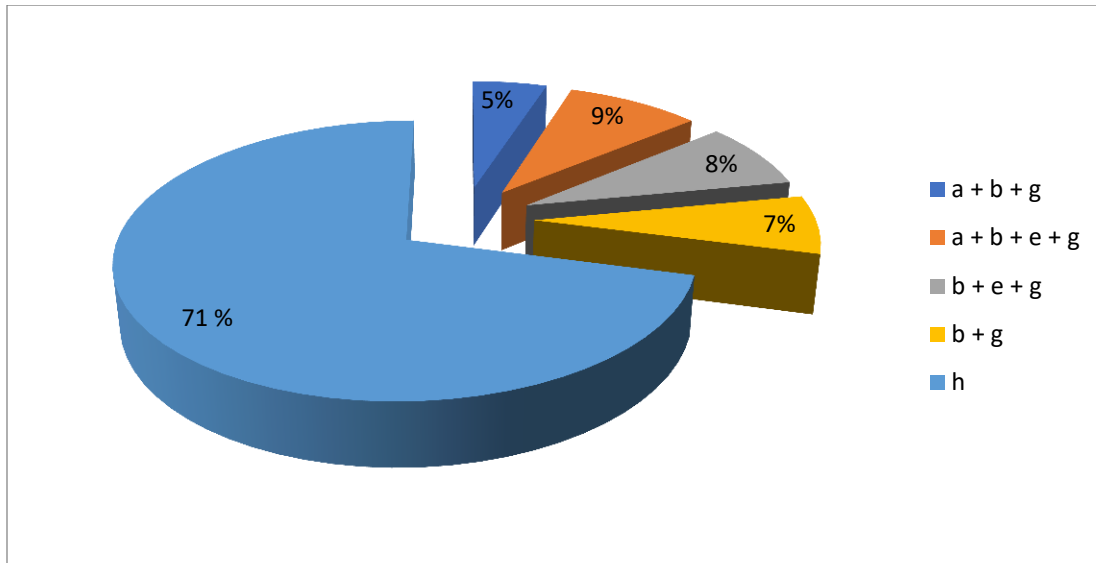
Table 37

Students' Viewpoints Towards the Difficulty of Writing Traits

Option	N	%
a + b + g	6	5 %
a + b + e + g	11	9 %
b + e + g	9	8 %
b + g	8	7 %
h	83	71 %
Total	117	100 %

Figure 22

Students' Viewpoints Towards the Difficulty of Writing Traits



This question addresses the traits of good writing that are likely to prove problematic for the students. Upon analysis of the frequencies of responses, several combinations of options were brought forth. The preponderance of the respondents (71%) opted for the choice “all of the above” denoting that the students perceive that all the traits of good writing pose difficulties for them in their attempt to produce good pieces of writing. As for the residue of participants, they claimed that only few of the traits can be considered are difficult to achieve in their writing. 5 % stated that encounter difficulties in ideas, word choice, and conventions. 9 % selected a combination of four traits that are ideas word choice, organization, and conventions. Further, 8 % of the informants considered word choice, organization and conventions to be hard to handle in writing. 7 students limited their choice to include only word choice and conventions. The set of responses collected through this question permits to confirm the difficulty of WA as most

students admitted that they encounter problems in producing writings that are characterized by all the required traits of good writing.

Q3- Which type of factors affects achievement in writing the most?

a- Psychological factors

b- Cognitive factors

c- Linguistic factors

d- All of the above

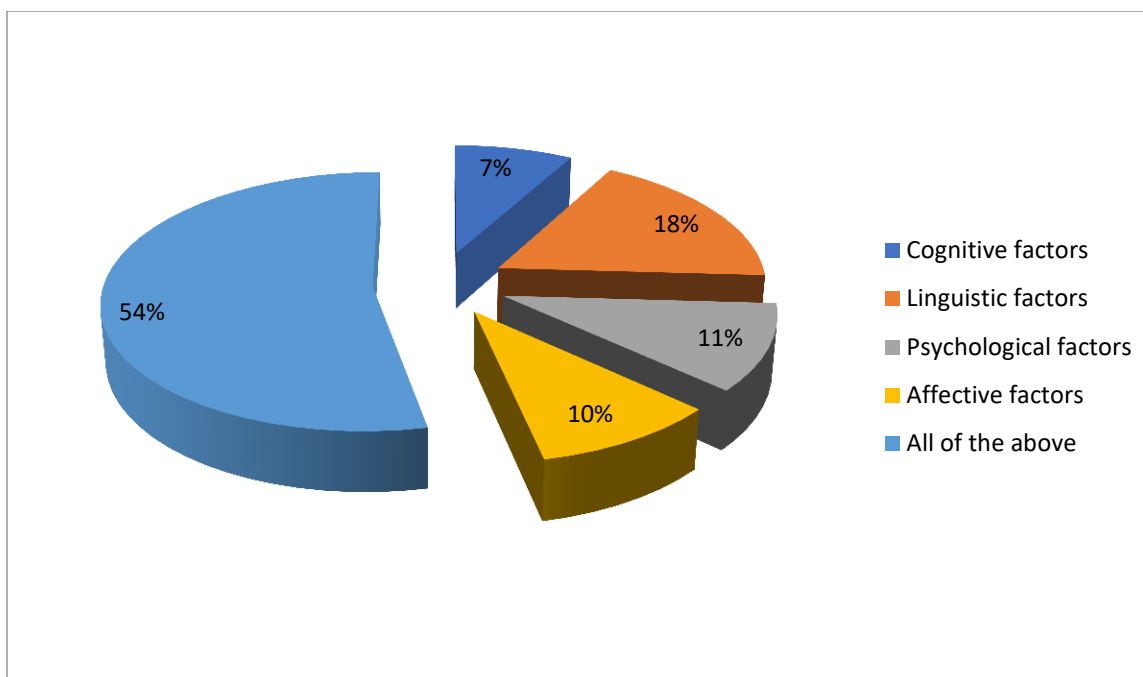
Table 38

Students' Viewpoints Towards the Factors Affecting WA

Option	N	%
Cognitive factors	8	7 %
Linguistic factors	20	18 %
Psychological factors	13	11 %
Affective factors	12	10 %
All of the above	64	54 %
Total	117	100

Figure 23

Students' Viewpoints towards the Factors Affecting WA



The main aim behind this question is coming to terms with the students' viewpoints regarding the most prominent factors that have bearings on their WA. To begin with, cognitive factors were seen by 7% of the students as the most influencing type in WA. A larger proportion (18%) viewed that the linguistic factors have a greater impact on students' performance in writing. Among the provided options, psychological factors and affective factors were selected by 11% and 10% of the participants, respectively. Option "d" which combines all types of factors was the most selected being ticked by 64 participants (54%). Therefore, this comes to highlight that students have a certain level of awareness of the multiple factors that affect their writing performance which again underscores the complexity of WA for EFL learners.

5.2.4. Section Four: Students' Views of SA

Q1- How do you perceive achievement in the speaking skill?

Very Easy- Easy- Undecided- Difficult- Very Difficult

Table 39

Students' Viewpoints Towards the Difficulty of SA

Option	N	%	Mean
Very Easy	6	5 %	3.30
Easy	39	33 %	
Undecided	0	0 %	
Difficult	57	49 %	
Very Difficult	15	13%	

Scrutinizing the difficulty of SA among the participants is the main incentive behind designing this question. The mean in this case equals 3.30 which means that the students' attitudes are neither positive nor negative in this regard. This is explained in the frequencies of responses obtained through this question. 5 % of the respondents indicated that SA is very easy. 33% viewed that they do not face many problems in SA as they opted for easy their choice. Contrariwise, the largest part indicated that achievement in speaking is difficult while 13 % deemed it very difficult. Consequently, it is worth emphasizing that evaluating the difficulty of SA lacks consensus among the students especially when compared to WA on whose difficulty most students agree.

Q2- What are the difficulties that you face in speaking?

a- Nothing to say

b- Inhibition

c- Mother tongue use

d- Not having the chance to speak

e- All of the above

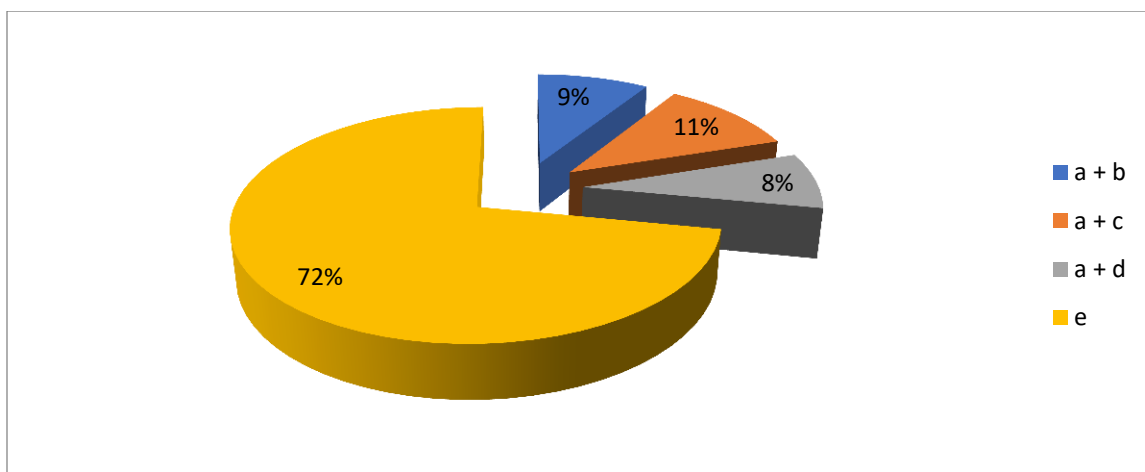
Table 40

Students' Viewpoints Towards the Barriers to SA

Option	N	%
a + b	11	9 %
a + c	13	11%
a + d	9	8 %
e	84	72 %
Total	117	100

Figure 24

Students' Viewpoints Towards the Barriers to SA



Central to exploring students' views towards SA is accounting for the main difficulties they tend to encounter in this endeavor. To this end, the present question is devised. The frequencies of answers revealed different viewpoints on the part of the students. The overwhelming majority of these latter (72%) stressed that all the provided difficulties are encountered on route of SA. As for the remainder of respondents, they limited those hindrances into different pairs. 11% opted for nothing to say and mother tongue interference, 9 % chose nothing to say and inhibition, and 8% selected nothing to say and not having the chance to speak. By way of explanation, it is elicited that in practice, the students are required to overcome a multiplicity of barriers to become to attain achievement in the speaking skill including the lack of ideas, inhibition and fear of speaking, first language interference, and lack of the opportunities of speaking and practice.

Q3- What are the factors that affect speaking achievement?

- a- Performance conditions
- b- Listening ability
- c- Topical knowledge
- d- Feedback during speaking
- e- Affective factors
- f- All of the above

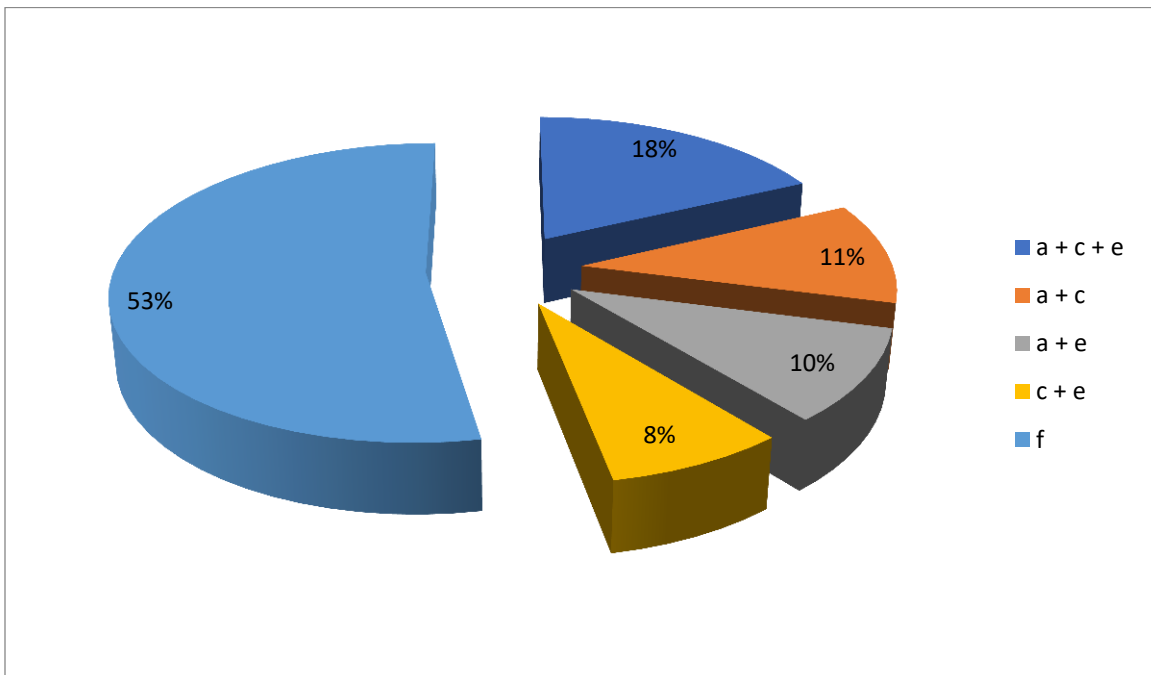
Table 41

Students' Viewpoints Towards the Factors Affecting SA

Option	N	%
a + c + e	21	18 %
a + c	13	11 %
a + e	12	10 %
c + e	9	8 %
f	62	53 %
Total	117	100

Figure 25

Students' Viewpoints Towards the Factors Affecting SA



The diverse factors that are likely to affect students' SA is put under scrutiny through this question. Upon analysis and as shown in **Figure 25**, more than half of the informants (53 %) revealed that their SA tends to be affected by all the suggested factors, namely performance conditions, listening ability, topical knowledge, feedback during speaking and affective factors. According to 18 % of the students, the factors that directly affect speaking are mainly performance conditions, topical knowledge and affective factors. Further, 11% opted for performance conditions and topical knowledge as the only salient elements to impinge on learners' speaking. As for the rest of the participants, twelve students selected the combination of performance conditions and affective factors, while nine students opted for the combination of topical knowledge and affective factors. Considering this, it is inferred that the students confirm the probe that SA entails the involvement of a set of assorted factors that are not related to the learner (listening ability, topical knowledge, and affective factors only, but to the surrounding conditions as well (performance conditions and feedback during speaking).

5.2.5. Section Five: Students' EI and WA

Table 42

Participants' Attitudes Towards the Role of Students' Understanding of Own Emotions in WA

understanding my emotions allows me to:	1		2		3		4		5		Total Scores	Mean Scores
	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)		
Come up with clear ideas to write	0	0	0	0	13	11	72	62	32	27	487	4.16
Organize my pieces of writing	6	5	13	11	22	19	55	47	21	18	423	3.61

well												
Select the appropriate words to write	11	9	22	19	24	21	33	28	27	23	394	3.36
Demonstrate my tone in the piece of writing	0	0	0	0	17	15	77	65	23	20	474	4.05
Maintain the fluency of my sentences	15	13	31	26	41	35	22	19	8	7	328	2.80
Maintain control over writing conventions (punctuation spelling ...)	11	9	12	10	56	48	28	24	10	9	365	3.11
Avoid psychological difficulties in writing	0	0	3	3	19	16	59	50	36	31	479	4.09
Avoid the linguistic difficulties in writing	6	5	17	15	44	38	38	32	12	10	384	3.28
Avoid the cognitive difficulties in writing	11	9	27	23	39	33	31	27	9	8	351	3.00
												3.49

This scale attempts to explore the students' attitudes towards the importance of students understanding of their own emotions in WA. This is through exploring its role in alleviating the problems of WA and favoring the factors that influence it. As indicated in **Table 41**, the students revealed that their attitudes towards the role of understanding one's feelings in students' WA are positive. This is inferred through the value of the mean of the whole scale (Mean= 3.49). The

students assured that understanding their own feelings is important for them to achieve certain traits of good writing, namely ideas (Mean =4.16) and voice (Mean= 4.05). Further, they assumed this competency to be significant in alleviating the variety of psycho-affective difficulties they face in writing (Mean= 4.09).

Table 43

Participants' Attitudes Towards the Role of Students' Understanding of Other's Emotions in WA

Recognizing what others feel helps me to:	1		2		3		4		5		Total Scores	Mean Scores
	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)		
Come up with clear ideas to write	2	2	8	7	11	9	30	26	67	57	506	4.32
Organize my pieces of writing well	12	10	24	21	41	35	29	25	11	9	354	3.02
Select the appropriate words to write	15	13	34	29	52	44	11	9	5	4	308	2.63
Demonstrate my tone in the piece of writing	5	4	12	10	53	45	33	28	14	12	390	3.33
Maintain the fluency of my sentences	19	16	32	27	40	34	22	19	4	3	311	2.65
Maintain control over writing conventions (punctuation spelling ...)	12	10	17	15	52	44	21	18	15	13	361	3.08
Avoid psychological difficulties in	3	3	10	9	22	19	33	28	49	42	466	3.98

writing												
Avoid the linguistic difficulties in writing	11	9	16	14	52	44	23	20	15	13	366	3.12
Avoid the cognitive difficulties in writing	7	6	14	12	33	28	48	41	15	13	401	3.42
												3.58

Upon analysis of the mean of this scale, the students demonstrated neutral attitudes towards the role of the competency of recognizing others' emotions in WA (Mean= 3.28). However, positive attitudes were ascribed to the role of this competency in strengthening the clarity students' ideas when producing a piece of writing (Mean= 4.32). Likewise, the students claimed that the capacity at issue in this scale holds an important role in minimizing the psychological hindrances in the course of producing effective writing (Mean=3.98).

Table 44

Participants' Attitudes Towards the Role of Students' Control and Management of Emotions in WA

Controlling and managing my emotions allows me to:	1		2		3		4		5		Total Scores	Mean Scores
	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)		
Come up with clear ideas to write	0	0	0	0	19	16	43	37	55	47	504	4.30
Organize my pieces of writing												

well	0	0	6	5	13	11	66	56	32	27	475	4.05
Select the appropriate words to write	3	3	9	8	20	17	56	48	29	25	450	3.84
Demonstrate my tone in the piece of writing	0	0	11	9	18	15	48	41	40	34	468	4.00
Maintain the fluency of my sentences	8	7	16	14	23	20	49	42	21	18	410	3.50
Maintain control over writing conventions (punctuation spelling ...)	11	9	22	19	41	35	32	27	11	9	361	3,08
Avoid psychological difficulties in writing	0	0	0	0	10	9	66	56	41	35	499	4.26
Avoid the linguistic difficulties in writing	3	3	5	4	9	8	59	50	41	35	481	4.11
Avoid the cognitive difficulties in writing	3	3	12	10	16	14	48	41	38	32	457	3.90
												3.89

Through this scale, the role of students' capacity to control and manage their emotions in WA is put into question. The students indicated that this capacity proves significant for most of the aspects pertinent to achievement in writing with a total mean of 3.89. In a more detailed account, the students agreed with eight out of nine items presented within this scale; they were

undecided with item 6 indicating that they are not sure about the role of controlling and managing emotions in the maintenance of command over writing conventions (Mean= 3.08).

Table 45

Participants' Attitudes Towards the Role of Students' Use of Emotions to Build Social Relationships in WA

Using my emotions to build relationships helps me to:	1		2		3		4		5		Total Scores	Mean Scores
	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)		
Come up with clear ideas to write	6	5	11	9	23	20	51	44	26	22	431	3.68
Organize my pieces of writing well	21	18	15	13	43	37	23	20	15	13	347	2.96
Select the appropriate words to write	33	28	33	28	36	31	13	11	2	2	269	2.29
Demonstrate my tone in the piece of writing	23	20	31	26	43	37	9	8	11	9	305	2.60
Maintain the fluency of my sentences	41	35	13	11	39	33	13	11	11	9	291	2.48
Maintain control over writing conventions (punctuation spelling ...)	27	23	19	16	46	39	17	15	8	7	287	2.45
Avoid psychological difficulties in writing	15	13	28	24	51	44	14	12	9	8	325	2.77

Avoid the linguistic difficulties in writing	19	16	9	8	60	51	18	15	11	9	344	2.94
Avoid the cognitive difficulties in writing	30	26	21	18	58	50	8	7	0	0	278	2.37
											2.72	

This scale is concerned with the importance of students' capacity to use their emotions to build social relationships. Upon analysis, the participants revealed that they agree with its significance in the production of clear thoughts to write (Mean = 3.68). As for the rest of items, the students showed undecided attitudes about the significance of the using emotions in WA. This is obtained through the analysis of the means of these eight items which range between 2.45 and 2.96. Regarding the whole scale, the students demonstrated neutral attitudes towards the role of using emotions to build social relationships in WA (Mean=2.72).

Table 46

Participants' Attitudes Towards the Role of Students' Motivation to Recognize and Manage Emotions in WA

Motivating myself to recognize and manage emotions helps me to:	1		2		3		4		5		Total Scores	Mean Scores
	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)		
Come up with clear ideas to write	5	4	12	10	14	12	66	56	20	17	435	3.71

Organize my pieces of writing well	13	11	29	25	41	35	21	18	13	11	343	2.93
Select the appropriate words to write	18	15	8	7	36	31	30	26	25	21	387	3.30
Demonstrate my tone in the piece of writing	8	7	15	13	11	9	64	55	19	16	422	3.60
Maintain the fluency of my sentences	22	19	31	26	42	36	13	11	9	8	307	2.62
Maintain control over writing conventions (punctuation spelling ...)	31	26	29	25	39	33	14	12	4	3	282	2.41
Avoid psychological difficulties in writing	10	9	16	14	23	20	41	35	27	23	410	3.50
Avoid the linguistic difficulties in writing	11	9	22	19	35	30	31	26	18	15	374	3.19
Avoid the cognitive difficulties in writing	8	7	12	10	33	28	49	42	15	13	402	3.43
												3.18

Students, in this regard, were questioned about the potential contribution of their capacity to motivate themselves to recognize and manage emotions in enhancing WA. As demonstrated above, the students revealed positive attitudes towards three items of the entire scale, namely item 1, item 4, and item 7. As such, they indicated that this capacity holds an important role to

play in generating clear ideas to write (Mean=3.71), demonstrating the students' tone throughout the piece of writing (Mean= 3.60), and avoiding psychological preclusions in writing (Mean= 3.50). In a global view, it is deduced that the students possess neutral attitudes towards the role of motivating themselves to recognize and manage emotions in assuring WA (Mean=3.18).

5.2.6. Section Six: Students' EI and SA

Table 47

Participants' Attitudes Towards the Role of Students' Understanding of Own Emotions in SA

understanding my emotions allows me to:	1		2		3		4		5		Total Scores	Mean Scores
	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)		
Find what to say	0	0	0	0	13	11	60	51	44	38	499	4.26
Avoid inhibition	0	0	3	3	19	16	55	47	40	34	483	4.12
Avoid using my mother tongue too much	13	11	22	19	42	36	23	20	17	15	360	3.07
Create chances for myself to speak	1	1	9	8	20	17	57	49	21	18	412	3.52
Speak fluently	10	9	15	13	33	28	30	26	29	25	404	3.45
Speak comfortably (make the speaking conditions positive)	0	0	0	0	9	8	68	58	40	34	481	4.11
Avoid mistakes of pronunciation and grammar while speaking	12	10	16	14	55	47	20	17	14	12	359	3.06

Enhance my listening ability	18	15	20	17	37	32	22	19	20	17	357	3.05
Enrich my topical knowledge	7	6	10	9	44	38	32	27	24	21	407	3.47
												3.56

The scale is devised to explore the students' attitudes towards the role of understanding emotions in SA. The majority of the participants supported the importance of this capacity in improving many aspects of SA. They demonstrated agreement with its significance for finding what to say (Mean=4.26), avoiding inhibition while speaking (Mean= 4.12), creating chances for one to speak, (Mean=3.52), and making the speaking conditions favorable (Mean= 4.11). In turn, despite that the students showed neutral attitudes towards the rest of items (the means range between 3.05 and 3.47), the attitudes towards the role of understanding emotions was positive with regard to the whole scale (Mean= 3.56).

Table 48

Participants' Attitudes Towards the Role of Students' Understanding of Other's Emotions in SA

Recognizing what others feel helps me to:	1		2		3		4		5		Total Scores	Mean Scores
	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)		
Find what to say	0	0	9	8	15	13	60	51	33	28	468	4.00
Avoid inhibition	0	0	0	0	9	8	64	55	44	38	503	4.29
Avoid using my mother tongue too much	13	11	19	16	43	37	22	19	20	17	368	3.14
Create chances for myself to	12	10	14	12	31	26	43	37	17	15	390	3.33

Speak												
Speak fluently	12	10	20	17	46	39	27	23	12	10	358	3.05
Speak comfortably(make the speaking conditions positive)	0	0	8	7	19	16	44	38	46	39	479	4.09
Avoid mistakes of pronunciation and grammar while speaking	13	11	12	10	39	33	23	20	20	17	346	2.95
Enhance my listening ability	10	9	17	15	40	34	25	21	25	21	389	3.32
Enrich my topical knowledge	10	9	15	13	33	28	30	26	29	25	404	3.45
												3.51

This scale purports to come into grips with the students' attitudes towards any potential contribution held by the capacity of recognizing other' emotions in SA. The participants demonstrated different views as regards the items suggested in the scale denoting different attitudes towards the role of the capacity at issue in enhancing the aspects of SA. They revealed neutral attitudes towards aspects like avoiding the use of the mother tongue (Mean= 3.14), creating chances for speaking, speaking fluently, avoiding mistakes of grammar and pronunciation, enhancing the listening ability, and enriching topical knowledge. Nevertheless, positive attitudes were revealed towards the rest of the elements, namely finding what to say (Mean=4.00), avoiding inhibition (Mean=4.29), and speaking comfortably (Mean=4.09). These latter resulted in rendering the attitudes of the whole scale in sum positive (Mean=3.51).

Table 49

Participants' Attitudes Towards the Role of Students' Control and Management of Emotions in

SA

Controlling and managing my emotions allows me to:	1		2		3		4		5		Total Scores	Mean Scores
	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)		
Find what to say	0	0	7	6	18	15	39	33	53	45	489	4.17
Avoid inhibition	0	0	0	0	14	12	42	36	61	52	515	4.40
Avoid using my mother tongue too much	10	9	9	8	25	21	43	37	30	26	425	3.63
Create chances for myself to speak	8	7	12	10	20	17	47	40	30	26	430	3.67
Speak fluently	13	11	13	11	43	37	30	26	18	15	378	3.23
Speak comfortably (make the speaking conditions positive)	0	0	2	2	0	0	46	39	69	59	533	4.55
Avoid mistakes of pronunciation and grammar while speaking	6	5	18	15	21	18	32	27	40	34	433	3.70
Enhance my listening ability	0	0	7	6	17	15	55	47	38	32	475	4.05
Enrich my topical knowledge	11	9	17	15	43	37	23	20	23	20	381	3.25
												3.85

The third capacity to be tackled within the current section is controlling and managing students' emotions. Among the nine suggested items the students expressed their agreement with seven statements and were undecided about Item 4 and item 9 only. That is to say, they demonstrated neutral attitudes towards the role of the capacity of controlling and managing emotions in making them speak fluently (Mean=3.23) and enriching their topical knowledge (Mean=3.25). As for the elements that are involved the students indicated that perceive an important role to play held by this capacity with the means ranging between 3.63 and 4.55. Entirely, the students believed that the capacity of controlling and managing their emotions is of great significance for them to achieve in speaking upon analysis of the scale statistics (Mean= 3.85).

Table 50

Participants' Attitudes Towards the Role of Students' Use of Emotions to Build Social Relationships in SA

Using my emotions to build relationships helps me to:	1		2		3		4		5		Total Scores	Mean Scores
	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)		
Find what to say	9	8	18	15	40	34	25	21	25	21	390	3.33
Avoid inhibition	2	2	5	4	33	28	37	32	40	34	459	3.92
Avoid using my mother tongue too much	20	17	20	17	41	35	20	17	16	14	343	2.93
Create chances for myself to speak	1	1	10	9	35	30	30	26	41	35	451	3.85
Speak fluently	19	16	24	21	39	33	20	17	15	13	339	2.89

Speak comfortably (make the speaking conditions positive)	0	0	3	3	18	15	37	32	59	50	503	4.29
Avoid mistakes of pronunciation and grammar while speaking	15	13	15	13	50	43	20	17	17	15	360	3.07
Enhance my listening ability	12	10	13	11	44	38	33	28	15	13	377	3.22
Enrich my topical knowledge	21	18	17	15	38	32	40	34	1	1	334	2.85
												3.37

Using emotions to build social relationships is the students' competency whose role in SA is scrutinized in this scale. As shown by the statistics, the students demonstrated positive attitudes towards the role of this capacity in avoiding inhibition (Mean=3.92), creating chances for one to speak (Mean = 3.85) and making the speaking conditions favorable (Mean = 4.29). As regards the rest of statements, the students showed undecided attitudes towards the six items with the means ranging between 2.85 and 3.33. Hence, the aggregate of attitudes pertinent to this scale as a whole were neutral (Mean= 3.37).

Table 51

Participants' Attitudes Towards the Role of Students' Motivation to Recognize and Manage Emotions in SA

Motivating myself to recognize and manage emotions helps me to:	1		2		3		4		5		Total Scores	Mean Scores
	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)		
Find what to say	6	5	12	10	23	20	39	33	37	32	440	3.76
Avoid inhibition	0	0	5	4	13	11	51	44	48	41	493	4.21
Avoid using my mother tongue too much	11	9	28	24	43	37	21	18	14	12	350	2.99
Create chances for myself to speak	8	7	8	7	18	15	44	38	39	33	449	3.83
Speak fluently	14	12	8	7	39	33	29	25	27	23	398	3.40
Speak comfortably (make the speaking conditions positive)	0	0	3	3	15	13	50	43	49	42	496	4.23
Avoid mistakes of pronunciation and grammar while speaking	14	12	9	8	42	36	30	26	22	19	388	3.31
Enhance my listening ability	20	17	7	6	35	30	25	21	30	26	389	3.32
Enrich my topical knowledge	19	16	11	9	31	26	37	32	19	16	377	3.22
												3.58

The final scale in the students' questionnaire 'A' concerns itself with the extent to which the capacity of motivating oneself to recognize and manage emotions can help in SA. According to the participants' responses, this capacity allows for them to find what to say (Mean= 3.76), avoid inhibition (Mean= 4.21), create chances for themselves to speak (Mean=3.83), and making the speaking conditions favorable (Mean= 4.23). The rest of the statements were reacted to by the students in an undecided manner. The students indicated neutral towards these statements (Means range between 2.99 and 3.43). With regard to the attitudes towards all the statements totally, they were positive (Mean= 3.58).

5.3. Findings from the Students' Questionnaire B

5.3.1. Section One: Teachers' EI and Students' WA

Table 52

Participants' Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers' Understanding of Own Emotions in WA

When my teacher has the capacity of understanding their emotions, this helps me to	1		2		3		4		5		Total Scores	Mean Scores
	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)		
Come up with clear ideas to write	14	12	22	19	37	32	21	18	23	20	368	3.14
Organize my pieces of writing well	16	14	6	5	45	38	22	19	28	24	335	2.86
Select the appropriate words to write	21	18	15	13	39	33	19	16	23	20	359	3.06

Demonstrate my tone in the piece of writing	20	17	8	7	40	34	25	21	24	21	376	3.21
Maintain the fluency of my sentences	18	15	10	9	43	37	9	8	37	32	388	3.31
Maintain control over writing conventions (punctuation spelling ...)	24	21	13	11	39	33	15	13	26	22	396	3.38
Avoid psychological difficulties in writing	10	9	1	1	16	14	44	38	46	39	466	3.98
Avoid the linguistic difficulties in writing	13	11	0	0	18	15	39	33	47	40	458	3.91
Avoid the cognitive difficulties in writing	15	13	3	3	26	22	36	31	37	32	428	3.65
												3.38

By means of this scale, it is attempted at unraveling how students perceive the role of teachers' capacity to understand their own feelings in WA. Upon analysis the students stated that this capacity proves to be helpful for them to alleviate the difficulties that they tend to encounter in writing. These difficulties are psychological (Mean=3.98), linguistic (Mean=3.91), and cognitive (3.65). In parallel, the students manifested neutral attitudes towards the role of teachers understanding of emotions in making students come up with clear ideas to write (Mean= 3.14), organize the pieces of writing well (Mean= 2.86), select the appropriate words to write (Mean=

3.06), demonstrate tone in the piece of writing (Mean= 3.21), maintain the fluency of sentences (Mean=3.31), and maintain control over writing conventions (Mean=3.38). On the whole, the students demonstrated a neutral attitude towards the significance teachers ‘understanding of their own feelings in WA (Mean= 3.38).

Table 53

Participants’ Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers’ Understanding of Other’s Emotions in WA

When my teacher has the capacity of understanding others’ feelings, this helps me to	1		2		3		4		5		Total Scores	Mean Scores
	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)		
Come up with clear ideas to write	0	0	0	0	29	25	42	36	46	39	485	4.14
Organize my pieces of writing well	13	11	0	0	22	19	47	40	35	21	442	3.77
Select the appropriate words to write	20	17	3	3	30	26	28	24	36	31	408	3.48
Demonstrate my tone in the piece of writing	19	16	6	5	41	35	18	15	33	28	391	3.34
Maintain the fluency of my sentences	18	15	10	9	38	32	21	18	30	26	386	3.29
Maintain control over writing conventions (punctuation spelling ...)	21	18	9	8	33	28	26	22	28	24	382	3.26
Avoid												

psychological difficulties in writing	10	9	2	2	21	18	44	38	40	34	453	3.87
Avoid the linguistic difficulties in writing	14	12	4	3	34	29	33	28	32	27	416	3.55
Avoid the cognitive difficulties in writing	12	10	8	7	26	22	33	28	38	32	428	3.65
												3.59

Through this scale the significance of teachers' capacity to recognize other feelings is put into question as far as WA is concerned. In response to this, the students demonstrated positive attitude towards the role of this capacity in enhancing five out of the nine suggested aspects that constitute WA. That is to say, the participants assured the importance of their teachers' capacity to understand others' emotions in helping them to produce clear ideas (Mean= 4.14), organize their pieces of writing (Mean= 3.77), and avoid the psychological (Mean=3.87), linguistic (Mean= 3.55), and cognitive (Mean= 3.65) difficulties in writing. As such, although the students' attitude towards the rest of the items was of a neutral nature (Means range between 3.26 and 3.48), their attitude towards the overall scale was positive (Mean= 3.59).

Table 54

Participants' Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers' Control and Management of Emotions in WA

When my teacher has the capacity of	1		2		3		4		5		Total Scores	Mean Scores
	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)		

controlling and managing emotions, this helps me to												
Come up with clear ideas to write	3	3	0	0	28	24	31	26	55	47	486	4.15
Organize my pieces of writing well	11	9	4	3	22	19	40	34	40	34	441	3.76
Select the appropriate words to write	22	19	13	11	39	33	30	26	13	11	350	2.99
Demonstrate my tone in the piece of writing	15	13	9	8	22	19	32	27	39	33	422	3.60
Maintain the fluency of my sentences	27	23	1	1	45	38	25	21	19	16	359	3.06
Maintain control over writing conventions (punctuation spelling ...)	22	19	8	7	44	38	27	23	16	14	358	3.05
Avoid psychological difficulties in writing	9	8	0	0	19	16	43	38	46	39	468	4.00
Avoid the linguistic difficulties in writing	15	13	2	2	49	42	33	28	18	15	388	3.31
Avoid the cognitive difficulties in writing	20	17	3	3	53	45	19	16	22	19	371	3.17
												3.45

How students perceive the role of their teachers' capacity to control emotions in favoring WA is questioned by means of the scale at hands. Upon analysis, the students' attitudes varied between what is positive and what is neutral depending on each item of the scale. As for the positive ones, they evolved around the importance of this capacity in helping the students to generate clear ideas (Mean=4.15), organize the pieces of writing (Mean= 3.76), demonstrate tone in writings (Mean=3.60), and avoid the psychological impediments of writing (Mean= 4.00) . As for the neutral ones, the respondents showed undecided attitudes towards the role of teachers' control over emotions in selecting the appropriate words (Mean= 2.99), maintain the fluency of sentences (Mean= 3.06), maintaining control over writing conventions (Mean= 3.05), avoiding the linguistic difficulties of writing (Mean= 3.31), and avoiding the cognitive difficulties of writing (Mean= 3.17). In light of this, the students attitude towards the role of this capacity in the whole scale was neutral (Mean= 3.45).

Table 55

Participants' Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers' Use of Emotions to Build Social Relationships in WA

When my teacher has the capacity to use emotions to build social relationships, this helps me to	1		2		3		4		5		Total Scores	Mean Scores
	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)		
Come up with clear ideas to write	9	8	0	0	23	20	35	30	50	43	468	4.00
Organize my pieces of writing	15	13	2	2	30	26	28	24	42	36	431	3.68

well												
Select the appropriate words to write	8	7	5	4	35	30	31	26	38	32	437	3.73
Demonstrate my tone in the piece of writing	10	9	0	0	33	28	34	29	40	34	445	3.80
Maintain the fluency of my sentences	14	12	5	4	40	34	26	22	32	27	408	3.48
Maintain control over writing conventions (punctuation spelling ...)	21	18	5	4	36	31	26	22	29	25	388	3.31
Avoid psychological difficulties in writing	14	12	2	2	23	20	37	32	41	35	440	3.76
Avoid the linguistic difficulties in writing	20	17	7	6	37	32	25	21	28	24	385	3.29
Avoid the cognitive difficulties in writing	20	17	5	4	41	35	27	23	24	21	381	3.25
												3.58

The fourth teachers' competency to be scrutinized through this scale is their capacity to use emotions to build social relationships; its potential contribution to students' achievement in writing is therefore put into question. As illustrated in the table above, the students agreed to more than half of the items that are presented in this scale. Hence, they held positive attitudes towards the teachers' capacity at issue indicating that it is of help as it allows them to come up

with clear ideas to write (Mean= 4.00), organize pieces of writing well (Mean= 3.68), select the appropriate words to write (Mean= 3.73), demonstrate tone in the piece of writing (Mean= 3.80), and elude the psychological hindrances of writing (Mean= 3.76). As far as the rest of items, the students demonstrated undecided attitudes towards the role of the teachers' capacity to use emotions to build relationships in enhancing the students' ability to maintain the fluency of sentences (Mean= 3.48), maintain control over writing conventions (Mean= 3.31), avoid the linguistic difficulties of writing (Mean= 3.29), and avoid the cognitive difficulties of writing (Mean= 3.25). All considered, the overall attitude of students with regard to the scale as a whole was positive (Mean= 3.58).

Table 56

Participants' Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers' Motivation to Recognize and Manage Emotions in WA

When my teacher has the capacity of motivating themselves to use emotions, this helps me to	1		2		3		4		5		Total Scores	Mean Scores
	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)		
Come up with clear ideas to write	28	24	9	8	37	32	23	20	20	17	349	2.98
Organize my pieces of writing well	25	21	13	11	45	38	11	9	23	20	332	2.83
Select the appropriate words to write	30	26	12	10	47	40	13	11	18	15	337	2.88
Demonstrate my tone in the piece												

of writing	18	15	4	3	25	21	28	24	42	36	423	3.61
Maintain the fluency of my sentences	28	24	16	14	40	34	13	11	20	17	332	2.83
Maintain control over writing conventions (punctuation spelling ...)	22	19	11	9	51	44	14	12	19	16	348	2.97
Avoid psychological difficulties in writing	16	14	6	5	20	17	34	29	41	35	429	3.66
Avoid the linguistic difficulties in writing	22	19	5	4	32	27	29	25	29	25	389	3.32
Avoid the cognitive difficulties in writing	21	18	5	4	36	31	25	21	30	26	389	3.32
												3.15

The last teachers' capacity to be linked to learners' achievement in writing is motivating oneself to use and manage emotions. Of the nine items of the scale, the students agreed to two items merely. They viewed that this capacity can help them to manifest a tone in their writings (Mean=3.61) and avoid the psychological difficulties of writing (Mean= 3.66). As regards the rest of items, the students were undecided about the potential ways through which teachers with this capacity can help them acquire the majority of traits of good writing or avoid the linguistic and cognitive difficulties of writing. As the means of the responses to these items range between 2.83 and 3.32, and considering the mean of the whole scale that equals 3.15, it is concluded that

the students hold neutral attitudes towards the role of teachers' capacity to motivate themselves to use emotions in students' WA.

5.3.2. Section Two: Teachers' EI and Students' SA

Table 57

Participants' Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers' Understanding of Own Emotions in SA

When my teacher has the capacity of understanding their emotions, this helps me to	1		2		3		4		5		Total Scores	Mean Scores
	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)		
Find what to say	14	12	0	0	36	31	35	30	32	27	422	3.60
Avoid inhibition	13	11	12	10	41	35	32	27	19	16	383	3.27
Avoid using my mother tongue too much	23	20	15	13	52	44	23	20	4	3	321	2.74
Create chances for myself to speak	17	15	9	8	49	42	30	26	12	10	362	3.09
Speak fluently	19	11	4	3	55	47	18	15	21	18	369	3.15
Speak comfortably (make the speaking conditions positive)	12	10	6	5	43	37	30	26	26	22	403	3.44
Avoid mistakes of pronunciation and grammar while speaking	31	26	14	12	49	42	23	20	0	0	298	2.54
Enhance my listening ability	15	13	4	3	36	31	34	29	28	24	407	3.47

Enrich my topical knowledge	21	18	14	12	41	35	25	21	16	14	352	3.00
												3.14

This scale addresses students' attitudes towards the role of their teachers' capacity to understand their own emotions in the SA of the learners. Among the nine statements underpinning the scale, the students reacted positively to the second item only that is avoiding inhibition (Mean=3.60). That is to say, the students hold positive attitudes towards the role of this capacity in making them avoid inhibition while speaking. Regarding the rest of items, the respondents showed undecided views of the contribution that it might have in enhancing their SA (means range between 2.54 and 3.47). Overall, it is deduced that the students hold a neutral attitude towards the role of teachers capacity to understand their own emotions in SA (Mean=3.14).

Table 58

Participants' Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers' Understanding of Other's Emotions in SA

When my teacher has the capacity of understanding others' feelings, this helps me to	1		2		3		4		5		Total Scores	Mean Scores
	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)		
Find what to say	12	10	7	6	33	28	29	25	36	31	454	3.88
Avoid inhibition	4	3	0	0	30	26	46	39	41	35	483	4.12
Avoid using my mother tongue too much	19	16	3	3	44	38	29	25	22	19	383	3.27

Create chances for myself to speak	12	10	0	0	26	22	29	25	50	43	456	3.89
Speak fluently	20	17	0	0	30	26	27	23	40	34	388	3.31
Speak comfortably (make the speaking conditions positive)	0	0	0	0	15	13	36	31	66	56	519	4.43
Avoid mistakes of pronunciation and grammar while speaking	9	8	3	3	22	19	35	30	48	41	461	3.94
Enhance my listening ability	16	14	11	9	31	26	26	22	33	28	400	3.41
Enrich my topical knowledge	20	17	7	6	43	37	30	26	17	15	368	3.14
												3.71

In the scale, it is aimed to get into terms with the significance of teachers' capacity to recognize others' emotions in relation to students' SA. The participants, in this regard, expressed their agreement with most of the suggested statements. They claimed that when teachers possess this capacity, it allows them to find what to say (Mean= 3.88), avoid inhibition (Mean= 4.12), create chances for themselves to speak (Mean= 3.89), speak comfortably (make the speaking conditions favorable) (Mean= 4.43), and avoid mistakes of pronunciation and grammar while speaking (Mean= 3.94). In parallel, the informants were undecided about the importance of the capacity in enhancing other aspects contributing to SA. Hence, they demonstrated neutral attitudes towards its role in avoiding too much use of the mother tongue (Mean=3.27), speak fluently (Mean=3.31), enhancing the listening ability (Mean=3.41), and enriching topical

knowledge (Mean=3.14). As for the scale as a whole, the students held positive attitudes towards the role of teachers capacity to recognize others' feelings in improving SA (Mean=3.71).

Table 59

Participants' Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers' Control and Management of Emotions in SA

When my teacher has the capacity of controlling and managing emotions, this helps me to	1		2		3		4		5		Total Scores	Mean Scores
	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)		
Find what to say	9	8	0	0	15	13	44	38	49	42	475	4.05
Avoid inhibition	2	2	2	2	12	10	40	34	61	52	507	4.33
Avoid using my mother tongue too much	16	14	9	8	36	31	26	22	30	26	396	3.38
Create chances for myself to speak	16	14	3	3	24	21	33	28	41	35	431	3.68
Speak fluently	12	10	7	6	29	25	34	29	35	30	424	3.62
Speak comfortably (make the speaking conditions positive)	8	7	0	0	16	14	31	26	62	53	490	4.18
Avoid mistakes of pronunciation and grammar while speaking	19	16	6	5	33	28	32	27	27	23	393	3.35
Enhance my listening ability	21	18	9	8	35	30	33	28	19	16	371	3.17

Enrich my topical knowledge	26	22	13	11	41	35	20	17	17	15	340	2.90
												3.62

The role of teachers' capacity to control and manage emotions in students' SA, as perceived by the participants of the study, is examined by means of this scale. The respondents' answers varied between what is undecided and what is positive. For the former, the students had neutral attitudes towards the significance of this capacity in avoiding mother tongue excessive use (Mean= 3.38), avoiding mistakes of pronunciation and grammar while speaking (Mean= 3.35), enhancing the listening ability (Mean= 3.17), and enriching the topical knowledge among learners (Mean= 2.90). As for the latter, the students reacted positively to the rest of items, indicating that teachers, when equipped with this capacity, help them to find what to say (Mean= 4.05), avoid inhibition (Mean= 4.33), create chances for themselves to speak (Mean=3.68), speak fluently (Mean=3.62), and speak comfortably (make the speaking conditions favorable) (Mean= 4.18). As a result of these positive attitudes, the global attitude of the students as regards the role of teachers' control and management of emotions was positive in nature (Mean=3.62).

Table 60

Participants' Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers' Use of Emotions to Build Social Relationships in SA

When my teacher has the capacity to use emotions to build social relationships,	1		2		3		4		5		Total Scores	Mean Scores
	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)		

this helps me to:												
Find what to say	10	9	7	6	12	10	39	33	49	42	461	3.94
Avoid inhibition	9	8	2	2	20	17	33	28	53	45	470	4.01
Avoid using my mother tongue too much	17	15	14	12	34	29	22	19	30	26	385	3.29
Create chances for myself to speak	13	11	6	5	25	21	27	23	46	39	438	3.74
Speak fluently	15	13	7	6	25	21	35	30	35	30	419	3.58
Speak comfortably (make the speaking conditions positive)	10	9	3	3	23	20	31	26	50	43	469	4.00
Avoid mistakes of pronunciation and grammar while speaking	25	21	11	10	34	29	26	22	21	18	358	3.05
Enhance my listening ability	15	13	2	2	27	23	34	29	39	33	431	3.68
Enrich my topical knowledge	23	20	12	10	38	32	30	26	14	12	351	3.00
												3.58

This scale is concerned with the fourth teachers' EI competency that is using emotions to build social relationships. Upon analysis of the informants' responses, the students revealed agreement with the majority of the scale items (6 out of nine). As such, they demonstrated positive attitudes towards the role of the competency at issue stating that it is deemed helpful for them to find what to say (Mean= 3.94), avoid inhibition (Mean= 4.01), create chances for

themselves to speak (Mean= 3.74), speak fluently (Mean= 3.58), speak comfortably (make the speaking conditions favorable) (Mean= 4.00), and enhance the listening ability (Mean= 3.68). For the residue of statements, the participants' responses were undecided as the students held neutral attitudes towards the role of the competency in avoiding the use of the mother tongue too much (Mean= 3.29), avoiding mistakes of pronunciation and grammar while speaking (Mean= 3.05), and enriching topical knowledge (Mean= 3.00). In spite of these neutral views, considering the entire scale, the students held a positive attitude towards the role of teachers' use of emotions to build social relationships in SA (Mean= 3.58).

Table 61

Participants' Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers' Motivation to Recognize and Manage Emotions in SA

When my teacher has the capacity of motivating themselves to use emotions, this helps me to	1		2		3		4		5		Total Scores	Mean Scores
	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)	(F)	(%)		
Find what to say	19	16	4	4	37	32	22	19	35	30	399	3.41
Avoid inhibition	17	15	6	5	21	18	31	26	42	36	426	3.64
Avoid using my mother tongue too much	17	15	8	7	42	36	23	20	27	23	386	3.29
Create chances for myself to speak	12	10	0	0	25	21	36	31	44	38	451	3.85
Speak fluently	22	19	6	5	35	30	24	21	30	26	385	3.29
Speak comfortably (												

make the speaking conditions positive)	11	10	10	9	29	25	26	22	42	36	432	3.69
Avoid mistakes of pronunciation and grammar while speaking	26	22	5	4	40	34	29	25	17	15	357	3.05
Enhance my listening ability	16	14	11	9	37	32	26	22	27	23	388	3.31
Enrich my topical knowledge	19	16	6	5	39	33	31	26	22	19	382	3.26
												3.42

This scale is the last scale in Students' questionnaire 'B' by means of which the importance of teachers' capacity to motivate themselves to use and manage emotions is examined. Among the nine items of the scale, the students agreed with merely three items. They indicated that this teachers' capacity helps the students to avoid inhibition (Mean= 3.64), create chances for themselves to speak (Mean= 3.85), and speak comfortably (make the speaking conditions favorable) (Mean= 3.69). Meanwhile, the informants demonstrated neutral attitudes towards the remainder of statements; they were unable to decide on the significance of the addressed capacity in aiding them to find what to say (Mean= 3.41), avoid using the mother tongue too much (Mean= 3.29), speak fluently (Mean=3.29), avoid mistakes of pronunciation and grammar while speaking (Mean= 3.05), enhance the listening ability (Mean= 3.31), and enrich the topical knowledge (Mean= 3.26). Given the overwhelming neutral attitudes towards the individual items, the attitude deduced of the scale as a whole was neutral (Mean= 3.42)

Conclusion

This chapter accounted for the most prominent findings that resulted out of the quantitative data collection tools deployed in the present study. The findings derived from each quantitative tool were demonstrated separately, namely the findings of the Ei-PSA regression test, the findings of Questionnaire ‘A’, and the findings of Questionnaire ‘B’. In this respect, the results showed insightful glimpses into the relationship between EI and learners PSA in addition to the students’ major attitudes towards the role of EI, both of students and teachers, in achievement in writing and speaking, equally. The summary and discussion of these findings are undertaken and presented in the final chapter of the study along with the qualitative findings that are explained in the subsequent chapter.

CHAPTER SIX

Qualitative Findings

Introduction	202
6.1. Findings of writing Teachers' Interview	202
6.1.1. Theme One: Aspects of Importance of Students' EI in WA.....	203
6.1.1.1. Direct Aspects.....	203
6.1.1.1.1. Linguistic Aspects.....	203
6.1.1.1.2. Cognitive Aspects	204
6.1.1.2 Indirect Aspects.....	205
6.1.1.2.1. Psychological Aspects.....	205
6.1.1.2.2. Affective Aspects	207
6.1.2. Theme Two: Importance of Teachers' EI in WA.....	208
6.1.2.1. Direct Aspects.....	208
6.1.2.1.1. Linguistic Support.....	208
6.1.2.1.2. Cognitive Support	209
6.1.2.2. Indirect Aspects.....	211
6.1.2.2.1. Rapport Support	211
6.1.2.2.2. Affective Support.....	212
6.2. Findings from the Speaking Teachers' Interview	213
6.2.1. Theme One: Significance of Students' EI in SA	213
6.2.1.1. Direct Aspects.....	214
6.2.1.1.1. Linguistic Aspects.....	214
6.2.1.1.2. Cognitive Aspects	215
6.2.1.2. Indirect Aspects.....	216
6.2.1.2.1. Psychological Aspects.....	216
6.2.1.2.2. Affective Aspects	217
6.2.2. Significance of Teachers' EI in SA.....	219
6.2.2.1. Direct Aspects.....	219
6.2.2.1.1. Linguistic Support.....	219
6.2.2.1.2. Cognitive Support	220
6.2.2.2. Indirect Aspects.....	221
6.2.2.2.1. Rapport Support	221
6.2.2.2.2. Emotional support.....	222
Conclusion.....	223

Introduction

As an essential part of the current study, the qualitative findings are placed in an equal position to the quantitative findings discussed in the precedent chapter. In this respect, the current chapter is concerned with the provision of the major findings that emerged out of the implementation of framework analysis; they target the teachers' perceptions of the significance of their EI and students' EI in contributing to PSA. As such, they are demonstrated in details and categorized on the basis of the research instrument used to collect it, namely the writing teachers' interview and the speaking teachers' interview. Of note, the discussion of each component in the framework is accompanied with excerpts from the charts used in the analysis as examples of teachers' quotations that support each component.

6.1. Findings of writing Teachers' Interview

Table 62

Final Map of Framework Analysis of the Writing Teachers' Interview

Theme	Sub theme	Category	component
Aspects of importance of students' EI in SA	Direct Aspects	linguistic	Accuracy
			Fluency
		Cognitive	Thought Fluidity
			Reasoning
	Indirect Aspects	Psychological	Self-Esteem
			Risk Taking
		Affective	Motivation
			Inhibition
Aspects of importance of Teachers' EI in SA	Direct Aspects	Linguistic Support	Command
			Rhetoric
		Cognitive Support	Logical Reasoning
			Comprehension
	Indirect Aspects	Rapport Support	Openness
			Communication
		Affective Support	Motivation
			Self-confidence

6.1.1. Theme One: Aspects of Importance of Students' EI in WA

6.1.1.1. Direct Aspects

6.1.1.1.1. Linguistic Aspects

- Command over Conventions

	P2	P4	P5
Command over Conventions	"I think these EI competencies directly influence the students' mastery of punctuation grammar and spelling"	"I believe that control over emotions helps the learners to pay attention to which punctuation mark to use, whether the word is misspelled and even to whether the sentence is syntactically acceptable or not. I can say that emotional intelligence is very positive for these elements of writing".	"... for example, if the student is anxious and feel stress, do you expect him to pay attention to a fragment in his sentence? Of course not."

The first sub component that the teachers brought to bear through their responses as part of the aforementioned linguistic aspects is command over writing conventions. The teachers recurrently emphasized that the students who can recognize, control, manage and use their emotions tend, in their opinion, to acquire an accumulated capacity to handle the intricacies of the writing conventions.

- Coherence and Cohesion

	P6	P9	P11
Coherence and Cohesion	"One of the biggest problems of my	"When a student of mine writes a	"... and of course without forgetting the

	learners is cohesion and coherence, and I think that part of it has to do with their psychological state. This is why I say that when they have this emotional intelligence, they can take cohesion and coherence into account”	coherent essay I automatically feel that he was not nervous in the exam”.	coherence and coherence of the essay”.
--	---	---	--

The second sub component within the linguistic category is what is termed coherence and cohesion. In their responses, the teachers reiterated the significance of these attributes for effective writing revealing that EI can be one the factors leading to their mastery among students. Simply put, the informants claimed that avoiding emotional problems by possessing EI competencies is crucial for learners to produce pieces of writing that are characterized by cohesion and coherence. .

6.1.1.1.2. Cognitive Aspects

- Fluidity of Ideas

	P1	P8	P10
Fluidity of Ideas	“I think that the learners have ideas, but they are not comfortable enough to use them. Here I see the importance of emotional intelligence.”	“It is helpful for eliciting ideas”	“... and to yield relevant ideas”

According to the preponderance of the teachers, EI competencies can be a determinant factor in the process of generating thoughts that constitute a given piece of writing. In this respect, they stated that producing clear and various ideas that make up the content of writings depends to a great extent on the emotional state of the student. Managing and controlling emotions therefore is likely to result in a proliferation of thoughts.

- Problem Solving

	P5	P7	P8
Problem Solving	“EI intelligence can affect the cognitive processes of learners while writing and their ability to analyze problems and solve them”	“... and findings to solutions to problematic questions”	“... and to think to find solutions”

The teachers indicated that among the positive bearings of EI for WA is enhancing the students’ ability of problem solving. This ability is deemed essential in the process of writing as it is deployed to understand the question prior to answering by means of a piece of writing. The teachers argued that problem solving is a cognitive process whose efficiency is affected by the management of emotions and the capacity to use emotions in favor of solving problems.

6.1.1.2 Indirect Aspects

6.1.1.2.1. Psychological Aspects

- Attitudes

	P7	P9	P10
Attitudes	“I believe attitudes are very important and as teachers we try	“It helps the student to develop positive attitudes”	“... to make them more optimistic about things”

	to do our best to make them positive. This is why I guess that EI can be very important to do that”		
--	---	--	--

According to the teachers, acquiring EI competencies is key to enhancing the general psychology state of EFL learners. In turn, this is likely to result in bettering WA. The teachers argued that much of writing is contingent on the students’ attitudes towards writing and how they perceive their ability in writing. The capacity to regulate emotions, offered by EI, is beneficial for acquiring positive attitudes towards the nature of writing in general and to their ability to achieve in writing, in particular.

- Awareness

	P4	P5	P10
Awareness	“... and of course very significant for students’ awareness of what makes their writing effective”	“... and to aware become of the requirements”	“... to know what is needed out of the essay”

Awareness is deemed a psychological trait that allows the learner to come into grips with the requirements needed to complete a task. Writing is subsumed within those tasks that entail high levels of awareness and in which emotional negotiation is at play. On these grounds, the teachers cast light on the significance of EI in fostering psychological awareness in the students. They maintained that to be fully cognizant of the linguistic, cognitive and affective demands of producing effective writing, they ought to be in control of their emotions and not overwhelmed by feelings.

6.1.1.2.2. Affective Aspects

- Anxiety

	P1	P6	P9
Anxiety	“Whenever emotions are talked about, I believe that anxiety comes on top of those negative feelings that prevent the student from achieving his potential, and since we are talking about emotional intelligence, I think it should be used to improve all feelings, and especially negative anxiety”	“It is needed to make them less anxious”	“and used to decrease anxiety”

Anxiety is a term that was recurrently referred to in the teachers’ responses and tightly linked to EI competencies. The idea that EI is looked upon as a remedy for alleviating the conundrum of writing anxiety was stressed by the informants; they argue that all the capacities that fall under EI are helpful for reducing the anxiety among learners which one of the most hindering factors of WA.

- Motivation

	P9	P10	P11
Motivation	“I think it helps the students to become motivated by getting rid of negative feelings and of course motivation is essential to succeed in writing”	“It is used to help them motivate themselves to work harder on their mistakes”	“and necessary for motivation, of course”

It goes without saying that motivation is commonly deemed an essential element in succeeding in language learning and writing is no exception. The teachers, in this respect, claimed that motivating oneself is among the major benefits of EI competencies. Motivation is according to them considered the result of an emotional state wherein negative emotions are controlled and positive emotions are encouraged by means of EI competencies. Consequently, levels of WA prone to improvement due to the prevalence of motivation among students.

6.1.2. Theme Two: Importance of Teachers' EI in WA

6.1.2.1. Direct Aspects

6.1.2.1.1. Linguistic Support

- Command

	P3	P7	P8
Command	“Controlling emotions and managing them allows me as a teacher to pay attention to all my students’ problem in grammar and punctuation, and I can then work on solving them”	“Simply, this helps become better writers”	“... and improving their level of master over the written language”

When questioned about the role of their EI in students' WA, the teachers claimed that having a high level of EI enables them to become more familiar with the deficiencies of their students as regards writing command. These deficiencies are detected in the students' aspect of writing and most importantly writing conventions such as spelling, grammar, and punctuation. In this regard, the role of teachers' EI competencies in contributing to the enhancement of these

conventions lies in allowing the teachers to rid themselves of the negative feelings that might imping on their capacity to detect the students' points of weakness.

- Language Presentation

	P1	P3	P4
Language Presentation	"It helps them to present their language clearly and logically avoid random placement of ideas"	"Teachers can then clearly explain how to better organize language elements"	"... and enhancing presentation and organization as well"

The teachers acknowledged the importance of their EI in students' WA on the ground that it helps them to focus on the way the students present their pieces of writing. The presentation item in this context does not only apply to the layout of the document in which the composition is delivered, but more importantly to the coherence and cohesion of the composition itself. EI is therefore a significant tool that allows the teacher to use their emotions positively to first explore the presentation weaknesses and to draw the students attention them in the second place.

6.1.2.1.2. Cognitive Support

- Comprehension

	P4	P5	P9
Comprehension	"teachers are then able to find the best ways to make the learners grasp the input and use it appropriately "	"It fosters understanding among the students"	"... and varying teaching and lesson plans to be easy to comprehend by all students"

In the view of the questioned teachers, when a teacher is equipped with EI competencies, they have the capacity to foster comprehension among learners. This can be explained by the probe that the teachers' capacity to put themselves in students' positions and build relationships with them allows for the provision of teaching practices that develop the students' comprehension. These practices are of course consonant with the learners' level and they are meant to use comprehension in developing pieces of writing that responds accordingly to the teachers' assignments.

- Critical Thinking

	P5	P7	P11
Critical Thinking	“and to work on enhancing students' ability to think critically”	“Teachers target soft skills such as creativity and critical thinking”	“...skills such as analysis synthesis and critical thinking”

Central to WA is the students' capacity to think critically and, as a result, produce compositions that constitute logical thought. In this respect, the informants maintained that a means to develop this crucial skill in the students is understanding the students' mentality and building relationships with them to cover for their deficiencies in critical thinking. This end is to be achieved easily when the teacher is emotionally intelligent and possesses certain EI competencies such as recognizing other' feelings and using emotions to build social relationships.

6.1.2.2. Indirect Aspects

6.1.2.2.1. Rapport Support

- Communication

	P1	P5	P8
Communication	“to teach the learners how to communicate easily and efficiently”	“... to foster communication between the teacher and the students for a better teaching atmosphere”	“...and supporting their relationship through communication”

Of essence, communication between the students and the teacher is central to WA as it allows for barriers to achievement on the part of the students to be identified by the teacher. As per the participants, EI of teachers holds an essential place in ensuring effective student-teacher communication. In this context, the main aim of using EI competencies is not communication as such, but rather is to contribute to the overall students' WA which is resultant of that communication. This is mainly achieved when the teachers is able to elicit from his learners both the positive and negative aspects of the implemented teaching practices in order to develop the former and avoid the latter.

- Empathy

	P2	P9	P11
Empathy	“They become aware of the students' needs”	“... to make him put himself in the learner's shoes and examine his strengths and weaknesses”	“... and of course to feel for his learners and address their needs”

Just like communication, empathy acts as an indirect means through which the teacher can get into terms with the effectiveness of their teaching from their learners. By being able to put themselves in their students' shoes, the teacher contributes to alleviating the most prominent handicaps of students' WA. In this vein, the significance of teachers' EI lies in reinforcing empathy and, consequently, accounting for the major factors that promote achievement among students. As such, the participants stressed this indirect impact that teachers' EI indicating that it is likely to draw lines between successful and successful teaching of the writing skill.

6.1.2.2.2. Affective Support

- Motivation

	P3	P4	P5
Motivation	"It can be regarded as means that allows for motivating the students"	"... and find the best ways to motivate the students"	"... such as including motivating tasks"

Motivation is a factor that was recurrently mentioned by writing teachers when addressing the role of both their EI or that of students, as well. The teachers' capacity to regulate emotions and favor positive emotions is considered as a source of motivation for learners. In addition, the competencies of using emotions to build social relationships can be abundantly embraced by the students as a motivating factor. On the basis of this, EI contributes to WA indirectly by fostering motivation among learners which is a prerequisite for achievement in all the skills, let alone a convoluted skill like writing.

- Confidence

	P5	P7	P8
Confidence	“... and to Make the students more confident ”	“... to support the learners confidence to write better”	“... and affective factors like motivation esteem and confidence”

Another emotional factor that has a say in WA and that was hinted to by the teachers is confidence. The teachers came into consensus that it a crucial trait that students have to possess in order for them to improve their performance and thus attain achievement in writing. Regarding the importance of teachers’ EI in fostering confidence in their learners, the participants indicated that EI competencies promote opportunities for students and teachers to negotiate emotions. This emotional negotiation provides the students with chances to become closer to their teachers and more confident to work on surmounting their writing difficulties. In so doing, and simply put, teachers’ EI contributes to the overall achievement of students in writing by affecting their levels of confidence.

6.2. Findings from the Speaking Teachers’ Interview

6.2.1. Theme One: Significance of Students’ EI in SA

Table 63

Final Map of Framework Analysis of the Speaking Teachers’ Interview

Theme	Sub theme	Category	Component
Aspects of importance of students’ EI in WA	Direct Aspects	Linguistic	Command of conventions
			Coherence and cohesion
		Cognitive	Ideas
			Problem solving

Aspects of importance of Teachers' EI in WA	Indirect Aspects	Psychological	Attitudes
			Awareness
		Affective	Anxiety
			Motivation
	Direct Aspects	Linguistic Support	Command
			Presentation
		Cognitive Support	Comprehension
			Critical thinking
	Indirect Aspects	Rapport Support	Communication
			Empathy
		Affective Support	Motivation
			Confidence

6.2.1.1. Direct Aspects

6.2.1.1.1. Linguistic Aspects

- Accuracy

	P1	P2	P3
Accuracy	“Students with high emotional intelligence levels can make themselves more accurate while speaking as they are more aware in comparison with others”	“ ... to become more accurate and fluent”	“... and to avoid a lot of mistakes in speaking”

Accuracy embodies a central pillar in students' speaking skill and in their achievement as well. As such the speaking teachers accounted for students' EI in developing learners' levels of accuracy of speech. They indicated that EI competencies enable the students to position themselves in an emotional state in which they can attribute attention to their grammar and pronunciation. That is to say, when able to be in total control of feelings, the students are not

easily distracted and rather focused on avoiding linguistic mistakes while producing instances of spoken language

- Language Fluency

	P7	P9	P11
Language Fluency	“With their control over emotions, they tend to appear more fluent”	“... such speaking confidently without hesitations”	“... to become more accurate and fluent”

Speech fluency is arguably another central pillar that is merged with accuracy to result in SA among language learners. Developing fluency is highly influenced by the ability of students to invest in positive emotions and rid themselves of the negative ones. The teachers posited that these latter interfere with the ability of learners to speak idiomatically and without pauses. Hence, it is by means of EI that the students become able to control these emotions and supplant them with positive ones.

6.2.1.1.2. Cognitive Aspects

- Thought Fluency

	P3	P4	P5
Thought Fluency	“to be clear minded and able to provide clear thoughts”	“... and avoiding problems of not finding what to say”	“... and enriching ideas as well”

Fluency is not only linked to language, but it instead covers thought as well. Speech production depends heavily on the incorporation of various thoughts in different fields. These thoughts epitomize the essence of the message that is carried out by the language. In this respect, the participants acknowledged the role of EI competencies in the process of thought generation.

EI allows the student to obtain clarity of thought that results out of the students' capacity to control, manage, and use emotions.

- Reasoning

	P6	P9	P10
Reasoning	"... and improve their ability to reason"	"... such as critical thinking and logical reasoning"	"... and to argue persuasively"

According to the interviewed speaking teachers, logical reasoning holds an essential place in effective speaking among students. This ability requires cognitive and emotional efforts to be mastered by the learners and this is why it is important for them to be emotionally intelligent. EI aids the student to deter the negative influence of feelings like stress and anxiety and makes them tend to use logical and systematic reasoning to produce messages through a spoken mode of language. This probe appears tenable due to the interactive nature of speaking which entails processing messages and responding to them by means of appropriate reasoning.

6.2.1.2. Indirect Aspects

6.2.1.2.1. Psychological Aspects

- Self- Esteem

	P1	P4	P5
Self- Esteem	"It helps them even to change their view of themselves"	"... and raise their self-confidence and self-esteem"	"... and also to believe in themselves"

The speaking teachers referred to the indirect role played by EI competencies in promoting students' SA by linking it to the need of students to have high levels of self-esteem.

This is in the sense that EI can be used effectively to ameliorate the students' self-esteem as a result of the capacity to managing and using emotions. In tandem, this amelioration is reflected in the students' speaking skill. With high levels of self-esteem, students are likely to engage fully in the speaking activities, learn about their weaknesses to be enhanced, and eventually attain achievement in speaking.

- Risk taking

	P3	P8	P10
Risk taking	"Therefore, they avoid the fear of engaging in speaking and become less silent"	"... and to become more open to criticism"	"... and to take risks in order to develop their speaking ability"

Speaking, as a skill that involves interaction, requires the learners to be risk takers in order for them to take part in interactions effectively. In light of this, they find themselves in a situation wherein risk taking is pivotal factor leading to SA. In this context, students' EI has considerable bearings on their ability to take risk and to improve their speaking skill. Fostering positive feelings, through the use of EI competencies like controlling emotions and using emotions to build social relationships, is central to alleviating shyness among learners; it acts as source of encouragement for them to demonstrate their speaking competence regardless of their level and deficiencies.

6.2.1.2.2. Affective Aspects

- Motivation

	P9	P10	P11
Motivation	"emotional intelligence helps	"... and use these positive emotions as a	"... and increase motivation to learn

	them explore various ways to motivate themselves”	source of motivation”	more about how to speak well”
--	---	-----------------------	-------------------------------

Per speaking teachers, one of the major factors that results out of possessing EI competencies is motivation. The participants underscored the probe that regulating emotions is key to mitigating the negative factors that can lead the students to be motivated to master the speaking skill. By this, it is meant that EI contributes to fostering a prerequisite of SA that is motivation. In this way, the importance of EI competencies among students does not directly affect SA per say; rather, it has a palpable impact on the internal desire of the learner to proffer themselves in convenient conditions to master the skill and fulfill achievement, hence.

- Avoiding Inhibition

	P1	P4	P6
Avoiding Inhibition	“They therefore feel no fear to speak in front of others”	“It helps fostering confidence and avoiding shyness and inhibition”	“... and to gain the courage speak publicly”

It is agreed upon by the informants that in order for achievement in speaking to take place, students’ inhibition ought to be alleviated. It is an affective factor that deters the student from exhibiting their potential in speaking. Due to its being affective in nature, the role of EI in avoiding it is brought to bear by the teachers. They claimed that the aggregate of competencies that fall under this construct allows for promoting feelings that help to surmount inhibition among the students. In so doing, they are more encouraged to speak freely and to focus their attention on harnessing the major components of the skill.

6.2.2. Significance of Teachers' EI in SA

6.2.2.1. Direct Aspects

6.2.2.1.1. Linguistic Support

- Command

	P2	P3	P8
Command	"... by enhancing their level of emotional intelligence they can help learners speak better by addressing their weakness points"	"They can then influence students linguistic ability"	"... and enhance students speaking competence"

According to the interviewees, teachers' EI has a role to play in improving students' SA by fostering their command of the spoken language. By way of explanation, teachers' capacities to handle feelings in general allow them to become more focused on the linguistic aspects of their learners' performance rather than being occupied with unharnessed feelings. In so doing, the teachers are able to identify the major constituents of the speaking skill to which attention must be attributed in the teaching process, and as a result, SA is likely to be enhanced.

- Rhetoric

	P4	P5	P6
Rhetoric	"... and help their learners to become more convincing when speaking "	"... and improve their persuasiveness"	"... and teach them to speak to achieve certain aims"

As a second element to be incorporated within the linguistic support that speaking teachers' EI can offer to the learners is rhetoric. The teachers highlighted the element of rhetoric as part of those attributes of the speaking skill that the students need to develop to enhance their SA. In order for this to occur, the students need to become aware of the purposive functions of their spoken language and able to attain it persuasively. In this regard, teachers can help the learners achieve this aim by using EI competencies to build relationship with them and make them grasp the core of rhetoric in speaking by handling all the feelings that might negatively interfere with this understanding.

6.2.2.1.2. Cognitive Support

- Logical Reasoning

	P1	P10	P11
Logical Reasoning	"... allowing them to transmit this logical reasoning to their students"	"... and to teach the learners to speak logically"	"... and enhance their ability to argue"

While interacting through spoken language, students are required to deploy logical reasoning to produce persuasive instances of the language and to maintain the flow of effective communication. To this end, the teachers can contribute to enhancing this capacity in their learners by making use of EI competencies. By possessing the capacity to recognize others' emotions, the teachers are enabled to come into terms with the reasoning processes that their students implement and, effectively, help them to make this processes comply with logical thinking. In this manner, teachers' EI is deemed significant, among the interviewees, in enhancing the cognitive ability of learners to reason logically.

- Comprehension

	P3	P5	P6
Comprehension	“It helps them find innovative ways to make comprehension take place”	“... to become creative in explaining and facilitating comprehension”	“... and fostering understanding on the part of the learners”

In the process of speaking, the students deploy comprehension in the stage of receiving messages before responding to them. Due to this, part of SA is heavily contingent on the students’ ability to comprehend and produce spoken language accordingly. To foster this, comprehension, the informants claimed that teachers are required to use EI competencies to enhance comprehension among learner. By using competencies like recognizing other’ emotions and using emotions to build social relationships, the teachers become more cognizant of the factors the foster or hinder comprehension of their learner; as a result, they find themselves in a better position to make up for the gaps in comprehension and contribute to SA.

6.2.2.2. Indirect Aspects

6.2.2.2.1. Rapport Support

- Openness

	P4	P7	P9
Openness	“Thus, the students become more open with their teachers which positive for developing their abilities”	“... and maybe become friends with the learners”	“They can read the students minds and discover their problems”

The speaking teachers who took part in the interview indicated that openness is an indirect factor with which teachers' EI can contribute to students' SA. To elaborate, with the ability to harness emotions, teachers tend to become more open minded and approachable by the students. This is likely to affect the way teachers address the students' needs positively as mutual understanding exists between them. As a result, when students' needs are meticulously accounted for by the teachers, the achievement of learners in speaking is improved.

- Communication

	P1	P2	P3
Communication	"It helps them to communicate better with the learners"	"... and to send and receive messages clearly and effectively"	"... ensuring mutual understanding and communication between them"

The importance of teachers' EI is perceived, by the interviewees, from the perspective that it can be a substantial contributor in bettering the effective communication skills of students. To explain, as the latter constitute an integral part of the speaking competence in general and SA particularly, teachers have a crucial play role to play in order for them to foster the communication skills of the students. To this end, they are required to be equipped with the capacity to understand their learners and maintain effective negotiation of emotions.

6.2.2.2.2. Emotional support

- Motivation

	P8	P9	P10
Motivation	"... to motivate their learners in different ways "	"... by understanding feelings, the teachers will focus a lot on the issue of motivation"	"... and to support the learners emotionally to become high achievers"

When it comes to the affective support with which teachers provide learners as a result of EI competencies, motivation was widely emphasized by the speaking teachers. They argued that it embodies a determinant factor that allows the learners to change their learning behavior towards the better and attain SA accordingly. EI contributes in this process indirectly as the capacity of teachers to manage emotions and build social relationships with the learners enables the emanation of motivation among students.

- Self- Confidence

	P1	P6	P10
Self- Confidence	“It helps them to foster students’ belief in their potential”	“... and they can avoid for example commenting negatively on the students so that not to affect their confidence”	“They will make the students more confident in themselves”

It is explained in the foregoing accounts that speaking is interactive skill that necessitates students’ ability to engage with sufficient self-confidence. Therefore, this personality trait has considerable bearings on achievement in the skill, at issue. Teachers, in this regard, endeavor to work on improving students’ levels of self-confidence as part of ensuring the effectiveness of their teaching and fostering achievement, as well. As a means of to reach this, teachers’ EI competencies can prove beneficial in order for learners to improve and for SA to take place as an ultimate aim of investing in teachers’ EI.

Conclusion

Given their importance in the research design, this chapter was specifically devoted to the qualitative findings of the present study. The data collected from the writing teachers’ interview

and the speaking teachers' interview were qualitatively analyzed by means of framework analysis and the results were presented in this chapter accordingly. The findings indicated the existence of a variety of aspects of significance of students and teachers' EI in PSA among students. Furthermore, the findings were grouped and mapped to provide a clear picture of the emerging themes, categories, sub categories, and components, and they are further discussed within the following chapter.

CHAPTER SEVEN

Discussion, Implications, and Limitations

Introduction	225
6.1. Discussion of Findings.....	225
6.1.1. Research Question One: If at all, to what extent does students' EI predict third-year EFL learners' PSA?	225
6.1.1.1. EI is a Predictor of Students' WA	225
6.1.1.2. EI is a Predictor of Students' SA.....	225
6.1.2. Research Question Two: What are students' attitudes Towards the role of students and teachers' EI competencies in PSA?	226
6.1.2.1. Students' Attitudes Towards the Role of Students' EI in WA	226
6.1.2.2. Students' Attitudes Towards the Role of Students' EI in SA	227
6.1.2.3. Students' Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers' EI in WA.....	229
6.1.2.4. Students' Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers' EI in SA	230
6.1.3. Research Question Three: How do teachers perceive the role of students' and teachers' EI competencies in PSA?	232
6.1.3.1. Writing Teachers' Perceptions of the Significance of Students' EI in WA.....	232
6.1.3.2. Teachers' Perceptions of the Significance of Students' EI in SA	233
6.1.3.3. Writing Teachers' Perceptions of the Significance of Teachers' EI in WA	234
6.1.3.4. Speaking Teachers' Perceptions of the Significance of Teachers' EI in SA.....	236
6.2. Implications of the Study	237
6.2.1. EI as Part of the Students' Competence	237
6.2.2. The Emotionally Intelligent Language Teacher	238
6.2.3. Incorporating EI in Students' Training and Teachers' Professional Development	239
6.2.4. EI, Student-Teacher Rapport, and Classroom Management.....	239
6.2.5. Emotionally Driven Needs Analysis and Curriculum	240
6.3. Limitations of the Study	241
6.4. Call for Further Research	242
Conclusion.....	243

Introduction

After demonstrating the major findings emerging from the analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data involved in the study, emphasis is hereby attributed to the discussion of these results. To this end, this chapter constitutes the final chapter of the present thesis in which the research findings are summarized and discussed with regard to previous studies that accounted for similar research problems. In parallel, this chapter is devised to provide the main implications of the study elaborating on a diversity of recommendations that are urged to address teachers, students, and even researchers. Further, the limitations of the study that embodied the most prominent hindrances to the current research are presented at the end of the chapter.

6.1. Discussion of Findings

6.1.1. Research Question One: To what extent does students' EI predict third-year EFL learners' PSA, if at all?

6.1.1.1. EI is a Predictor of Students' WA

The results of the EI-PSA indicate that students' EI and WA are significantly associated. **39.4 %** of the variance of the students' writing scores is explained by their EI scores with a prediction equation of: **Predicted WA score = -8.849 + 4.328 (EI score).**

6.1.1.2. EI is a Predictor of Students' SA

The results of the EI-PSA indicate that students' EI and WA are significantly associated. **43.3%** of the variance of the students' speaking scores is explained by their EI scores with a prediction equation of: **Predicted SA score = -4.617 + 3.772 (EI score)**

The Findings of the EI- PSA revealed that the level of EI of third year EFL learners in the department of English at the University Centre of Mila significantly predicts achievement in writing and speaking. These results are in accordance with previous studies that tackled the relationship between EI and PSA. These studies include the studies of Afshar and Rahimi (2016), Chen & Zhang (2022), Genç et al. (2016), Pishghadam (2009), and Shao et al. (2013) in which it is highlighted that EI is strongly associated with EFL learners PSA in different contexts such as Iran and China.

6.1.2. Research Question Two: What are students' attitudes Towards the role of students and teachers' EI competencies in PSA?

6.1.2.1. Students' Attitudes Towards the Role of Students' EI in WA

Table 64

Summary of Students' Attitudes towards the Role of Students' EI in WA

Positive	Neutral
Participants' Attitudes Towards the role of Students' Understanding of Own Emotions in WA	Participants' Attitudes Towards the role of Students' Use of Emotions to Build Social Relationships in WA
Participants' Attitudes Towards the role of Students' Understanding of Other's Emotions in WA	Participants' Attitudes Towards the role of Students' Motivation to Recognize and Manage Emotions in WA
Participants' Attitudes Towards the role of Students' Control and Management of Emotions in WA	

The analysis of students' questionnaire 'A' revealed that third year EFL learners at the University Centre of Mila hold a variety of attitudes as regards the relationship between students' EI and PSA. The findings suggest that third year learners in the department of English EFL at Mila University Centre hold a combination of positive and neutral attitudes as regards the role of students' EI in WA. For further details, it is concluded that the students acknowledge the importance of understanding of own Emotions, understanding of other's emotions, and control and management of emotions in fostering students mastery of the traits good of writing and alleviating writing difficulties, as well.

Although the students are aware that the use of emotions to build social relationships and motivation to recognize and manage emotions are among the inherent competencies that underpin EI, their role in WA is not still clearly identified by the students. This does not suggest that the two competencies have negative bearings on WA; rather, it suggests that the students are undecided as to how these competencies can affect WA. On the whole, due to the absence of negative attitudes and the preponderance of the positive ones, it can be denoted that the results go hand in hand with the findings of EI-PSA postulating that students' EI is a significant predictor of WA.

6.1.2.2. Students' Attitudes towards the Role of Students' EI in SA

Table 65

Summary of Students' Attitudes towards the Role of Students' EI in SA

Positive	Neutral
Participants' Attitudes Towards the role of Students' Understanding of Own Emotions in SA	Participants' Attitudes Towards the role of Students' Use of Emotions to Build Social Relationships in SA

Participants' Attitudes Towards the role of Students' Understanding of Other's Emotions in SA
Participants' Attitudes Towards the role of Students' Control and Management of Emotions in SA
Participants' Attitudes Towards the role of Students' Motivation to Recognize and Manage Emotions in SA

The overwhelming majority of students' attitudes towards the role of students' EI in SA are positive. Except for the role of using emotions to build social relationships towards which the students' attitudes are neutral, the rest of competencies hold an essential place in contributing to SA according to the majority of the participants who completed questionnaire 'A'. These results are consonant with those elicited from the EI-PSA which state that SA is significantly predicted by students' scores of EI.

Of particular note, it can be induced that the students agree on the importance of four competencies in SA while they acknowledge the importance of three competencies only in WA. This, again, aligns with the findings of the EI-PSA that suggest that the variance in SA that is explained by variance in EI (43.3%) is greater than the variance in WA scores that is explained by EI variance (39.4%). Further, the findings show that students' attitudes towards the role of using emotions to build social relationships in SA is not clearly perceived by them as it is case with their attitude towards the significance of the same competency in WA. These attitudes support the findings of EI-PSA and to the previous studies which advocate that students' EI is a

significant predictor of SA, namely Afshar and Rahimi (2016), Chen & Zhang (2022), Genç et al. (2016), Pishghadam (2009), and Shao et al. (2013).

6.1.2.3. Students' Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers' EI in WA

Table 66

Summary of Students' Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers' EI in WA

Positive	Neutral
Participants' Attitudes Towards the role of Teachers' Understanding of Other's Emotions in WA	Participants' Attitudes Towards the role of Teachers' Understanding of Own Emotions in WA
Participants' Attitudes Towards the role of Teachers' Use of Emotions to Build Social Relationships in WA	Participants' Attitudes Towards the role of Teachers' Control and Management of Emotions in WA
	Participants' Attitudes Towards the role of Teachers' Motivation to Recognize and Manage Emotions in WA

Among the major findings of Questionnaire 'B' is that most of students' attitudes towards the role of teachers' EI in WA are neutral. The participants of the study show uncertainty as regards how EI competencies, when possessed by writing teachers, can help them in bettering their writing skill. As such, the students describe themselves as unable to discern the positive influence that teachers' capacity to understand their own emotions, control and manage emotions, and motivate themselves to recognize and manage emotions might have on their writing skill. These competencies are, per the students, not clearly linked to the mastery of traits of good writing nor to the avoidance of writing difficulties.

Concurrently, the students do not hold negative attitudes and, on the contrary, they hold positive attitudes towards the role of teachers' understanding of other's emotions and teachers' use of emotions to build social relationships. These capacities as such are believed to have a mediating role in the enhancement of students' ability to manipulate the complexity of the characteristics of effective writing allowing the learner to surmount any kind of cognitive, linguistic or affective barrier.

In light of the foregoing, it is inferred that the students limit the importance of teachers' EI in WA to the competencies which allow the teacher to maintain a good rapport with the students through recognizing their emotions and establishing effective relationships with them. Although this probe is a convincing line to pursue, it is still too minimalistic in nature as the rest of competencies can be of use as well if they are deployed appropriately.

6.1.2.4. Students' Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers' EI in SA

Table 67

Summary of Students' Attitudes Towards the Role of Teachers' EI in SA

Positive	Neutral
Participants' Attitudes Towards the role of Teachers' Understanding of Other's Emotions in SA	Participants' Attitudes Towards the role of Teachers' Understanding of Own Emotions in SA
Participants' Attitudes Towards the role of Teachers' Control and Management of Emotions in SA	Participants' Attitudes Towards the role of Teachers' Motivation to Recognize and Manage Emotions in SA
Participants' Attitudes Towards the role of Teachers' Use of Emotions to Build Social Relationships in SA	

The findings of the final section of Questionnaire 'B' highlight the mixture of attitudes that the students possess towards the role of teachers' EI in SA. The students hold neutral attitudes towards the importance of teachers' capacity to understand their own emotions and to motivate themselves to recognize and manage emotions in affecting SA positively. This proposes that the students are not fully able to discern how these capacities can affect their speaking skills and make them high achievers. In this respect, students' attitudes can be justified by the probe that the competencies at issue are linked to the teachers themselves and do not involve their relationship with students.

As for the positive attitudes, the students hold true that enhancing the components of speaking competence and avoiding speaking difficulties can be positively affected by three teachers' EI competencies. These include teachers' understanding of other's emotions, teachers' control and management of emotions, and teachers' use of emotions to build social relationships. It is induced that the students perceive these capacities to be of paramount importance as they are deployed to improve students- teaching rapport which in turn contributes to enhancing SA.

It is worth noting that just like it is the case with students' EI, the students demonstrate less neutral attitudes towards the significance of teachers' EI in SA compared to the one in WA. This can be utilized to support the aforementioned probe that the students are able to link EI competencies to SA more than to WA due to the differences in the nature of skills and the way they are assessed.

6.1.3. Research Question Three: How do teachers perceive the role of students' and teachers' EI competencies in PSA?

6.1.3.1. Writing Teachers' Perceptions of the Significance of Students' EI in WA

Table 68

Summary of Writing Teachers' Perceptions of the Significance of Students' EI in WA

Aspects of Importance of Students' EI in WA			
Direct Aspects			
Linguistic		Cognitive	
Command of conventions	Coherence and cohesion	Ideas	Problem solving
Indirect Aspects			
Psychological		Affective	
Attitudes	Awareness	Anxiety Avoidance	Motivation

Table 67 illustrates a summary of the major findings of the writing teachers' interview. The findings reveal that teachers perceive EI to be of paramount importance in WA. It is indicated that this construct possesses a variety of facets of importance. The teachers believe that students' EI can be utilized to improve the linguistic ability of language learners by enabling them to attain higher levels of command over writing convention in addition to the ability of producing written texts that are characterized by coherence and Cohesion. From a cognitive perspective, the students' can invest in EI competencies as a means to develop their abilities of ideas generation and problem solving. The significance of EI is extended to include the

betterment of students' psychological attributes that have bearings on the production of writing. These attributes are acknowledged by teachers to incorporate students' attitudes towards the writing skill in addition to the psychological awareness that is required to account for developing the writing ability. Last but not least, the element of affect is brought to bear by teachers as a prominent factor whose enhancement can be influenced by students' EI. The teachers perceive the importance of EI in this regard from the perspective that the competencies aid the learner to increase their level of motivation and simultaneously decreasing the levels of negative anxiety.

6.1.3.2. Teachers' Perceptions of the Significance of Students' EI in SA

Table 69

Summary of Speaking Teachers' Perceptions of the Significance of Students' EI in SA

Aspects of Importance of Students' EI in SA			
Direct Aspects			
Linguistic		Cognitive	
Accuracy	Fluency	Thought fluidity	Reasoning
Indirect Aspects			
Psychological		Affective	
Self-Esteem	Risk-Taking	Motivation	Inhibition Avoidance

Shedding light on speaking teachers' perceptions of the significance of students' EI in SA, the findings of the speaking teachers' interview reveal that the teachers deem EI a significant contributor to achievement. Just like its importance for WA, EI holds has a great role to play in enhancing students capacities in different aspects whose possession might demarcate between high achievers and low achievers in speaking. The first category of these aspects is linked to

students, linguistic competence. EI is perceived to be a means through which the students can sufficiently focus on ameliorating their accuracy and fluency in order for them to achieve a better command over the language. Further, teachers hold true that EI has an influence on students' cognitive abilities that are necessarily utilized within the process of language production. It, therefore, contributes to the amelioration of learners' fluidity of thought in addition to their ability of reasoning, be it deductively or inductively. The psychology of the learner while speaking is another area that EI affect positively according to teachers' viewpoints. It is argued that the combination of EI competencies can be effectively deployed to raise students' levels of self-esteem and risk taking as prerequisites of effective foreign language speaking. Finally, EI is a contributor to the enhancement of students' affective factors including motivation and avoiding inhibition that impinges on students' performance to a great extent.

These findings reveal that teachers' perceptions of the importance of students' EI in PSA are in accordance with the results of the EI-PSA test, the results of the students' questionnaire and previous the studies which all stress the important role EI plays as a predictor of EFL learners' PSA.

6.1.3.3. Writing Teachers' Perceptions of the Significance of Teachers' EI in WA

Table 70

Summary of Writing Teachers' Perceptions of the Significance of Teachers' EI in WA

Aspects of importance of Teachers' EI in WA			
Direct Aspects			
Linguistic Support		Linguistic Support	
Command	Presentation	Comprehension	Critical thinking

Indirect Aspects			
Rapport Support		Affective Support	
Communication	Empathy	Motivation	Confidence

Table 69 summarizes the most prominent perceptions of writing teachers as regards the facets of significance of writing teachers' EI in WA. The findings of the writing teachers' interview indicate that teachers consider teachers' EI to be a means that can be activated to support students in their pursuit of WA on various levels. Linguistic support can be provided to learners by emotionally intelligent teachers through enhancing their overall command over writing conventions in addition to command over the mechanisms of presenting a piece of writing. Besides, teachers' EI is a contributor to WA as it proffers learners with cognitive support through the improvement of comprehension and critical thinking abilities. Rapport support also results out of teachers' possession of EI competencies. The teachers are with capacity to implement assorted strategies to influence the student-teacher rapport positively; this is achieved through fostering communication and empathy to enhance this rapport and, consequently, contribute to learners WA. Students' affect, crucial as it is, is the last area that teachers' EI supports. Teachers can utilize the competencies at issue to increase students' motivation and self-confidence targeting the amelioration of WA as an ultimate aim.

6.1.3.4. Speaking Teachers' Perceptions of the Significance of Teachers' EI in SA

Table 71

Summary of Speaking Teachers' Perceptions of the Significance of Teachers' EI in SA

Aspects of importance of Teachers' EI in SA			
Direct Aspects			
Linguistic Support		Linguistic Support	
Command	Rhetoric	Logical Reasoning	Comprehension
Indirect Aspects			
Rapport Support		Affective Support	
Openness	Communication	Motivation	Self-Confidence

As a final section of the qualitative findings, the significance of teachers' EI in SA as perceived by speaking teachers is brought to bear. The findings reveal that speaking teachers at the University Centre of Mila attribute substantial significance to teachers' EI as a source of support for learners. Initially, this support touches upon the linguistic abilities of the learners as emotionally intelligent teachers are likely to provide the best teaching methods that foster students command over the spoken language and a mastery of language rhetoric as well. Furthermore, cognitive support is another aspect of significance that is accorded to teachers' EI as far as SA is concerned; it contributes to the development of students' abilities of logical reasoning and comprehension. Teachers' EI is a contributor to SA on the ground that it enables teachers to establish an effective rapport with their learners by using their EI competencies to enhance students' openness and communication. The final facet of importance that is linked to teachers' EI is affective in nature. Emotionally intelligent speaking teachers can influence SA by improving the affective factors of the student that have bearings on the learning process. In this

respect, students' motivation and self-confidence are the most prominent affective factors that are enhanced in students when taught by teachers who possess sufficient levels of EI.

6.2. Implications of the Study

On the basis of the research finding that the current study reveals in relation to the major research questions, a variety of implications are put forth.

6.2.1. EI as Part of the Students' Competence

Based on the findings of the research that stipulate that EI is a significant contributor of EFL learners' PSA, this construct can be incorporated within the diversity of skills and competencies that together make up the language learner's competence. This competence is not only perceived from a one-dimensional perspective, casting light on fostering students' linguistic competence only; it rather transcends to involve other elements including EI as suggested by the findings of the current study.

In this regard, research indicates that EI proves to have a crucial role to play in the workplace, and especially for university graduates who encounter a variety of difficulties in their future jobs when possessing a low level of EI (Abraham, 2006). As such, in order for them to secure an effective preparation for future job careers, it is of essence for students to be sufficiently aware of the positive bearings EI might have on the process of language learning and to consider developing it as part of their formation.

Of note, in the Algerian context, EFL students at university graduate with degrees that allow them to become EFL teachers. As such, the advantages of acquiring EI skills and competencies are not confined to their career as students; they instead extend to involve their

career as future teachers whose EI is also significant in the process of effective teaching as indicated by the findings of the current study.

6.2.2. The Emotionally Intelligent Language Teacher

The art of teaching is not contingent merely on teachers' knowledge of the subject matter. On the contrary, much of the effectiveness of teaching practices hinges on the ability of the teacher to create a positive atmosphere. To this end, investing in the power of EI can be a significant means that allows teachers to ensure reaching their learners and meeting their linguistic, cognitive, and psychological needs. Therefore, teachers are called upon to attribute much focus to their EI competencies and the ability to handle their emotions as part of their teaching competence.

Teachers are required to raise their awareness of the areas of EI that they need to develop as a means to adapt to the different teaching contexts in which they operate. Further, raising their students' EI levels lies among the top priorities that teachers are required to target through their diverse teaching strategies. Further, as university teachers are researchers at the same time, they are called upon to devote some of their research interest to the area of EI development to offer some insightful glimpses of which they can benefit themselves.

In keeping with this, it is put into question that recruiting university teachers might be affected by the significance of teachers' EI. Recruiting language teachers on the basis of degrees only can prove problematic. Teachers who lack the flexibility that EI competencies offer can find it extremely difficult to cope with the emotional requirements of the teaching job. As such, departments are obliged to consider the EI levels of their teachers as an essential recruitment criterion along with many others.

6.2.3. Incorporating EI in Students' Training and Teachers' Professional Development

The use of EI interventions can be of paramount importance to guarantee exerting a positive impact on EI levels among students and teachers alike. For learners, these interventions are optimally conducted as part of students' training which can be incorporated in the form of workshops and remedial sessions. This is likely to raise students' awareness of the significance of the construct for their success and simultaneously develop their competencies for practical use. As for teachers, EI interventions must have a say in teachers' pre-service trainings as a sort of preparation to how best invest in EI as a means to facilitate the teaching process. In addition, for in service teachers, the interventions can be carried out as part of continuous professional development.

In this respect, there is a prospect for Algerian universities to have cooperation contracts with institutions that are specialized in developing EI. These institutions can be universities and research centres offering courses, or independent EI institutes. Examples of universities and research centres include Harvard University, London University and Queensland University. In parallel, independent institutes include the Emotional Intelligence Institute (US), Business Relationship Management Institute (US), and the Institute for the Development of Emotional Intelligence (Ukraine). Through these cooperation programs, Algerian universities offer their students and teachers with opportunities to enhance their EI levels aiming at improving the general productivity of universities.

6.2.4. EI, Student-Teacher Rapport, and Classroom Management

Among the major implications that emanate from the findings of the present research is the link that conjoins EI competencies and the element of student-teacher rapport. It is worth

noting that considering the use of EI as a means to enhance this rapport embodies a massive necessity for both the student and the teacher. EI intelligence in this regard has a major contribution in fostering effective communication and empathy between teachers and learners allowing for mutual understanding to take place. The corollary impact of this exchangeable understanding is, as result, reflected in the students' achievement in language learning in general and PSA in particular.

Germane to the foregoing probe, the role of EI on classroom management is conceived to be positive. That is to say, in a class wherein teachers and students possess good levels of EI, it is expected that problems of discipline and maintenance of control can be easily alleviated. Perry and Ball (2007, as cited in Valente et al., 2019) stressed that EI competencies allow teachers to cater for the negative situations that occur in the classroom and to become adept at creating a rather positive atmosphere that favors learning. To this end, the role of students' EI is also emphasized as its skills are utilized by the students to help the teachers create a positive atmosphere and focus on the improvement of the teaching quality rather than wasting efforts on discipline problems in the class.

6.2.5. Emotionally Driven Needs Analysis and Curriculum

EI can be deployed as a means to conduct needs analysis. In addition to the formal procedures of needs analysis that take place ahead of teaching, coming into terms with students' needs is a continuous process that is implemented by the teacher informally. In this respect, the role of EI is underscored as a means that allows teachers and students to reach high levels of mutual understanding. In turn, this understanding permits learners to demonstrate their learning needs clearly and at the same time enables the teachers to explore them more efficiently.

In the same vein, the significance of EI in language learning can be effectively reflected in the renewal of curricula to suit the demands of learning process. As the interest in EI has been gaining currency, stakeholders are called upon to exert a continuous renewal of curricula to involve EI competencies as a means and an objective concurrently. On the one hand, EI is construed as a means in the sense that its competencies can be utilized to address the students' needs more effectively and accurately; these needs are in turn incorporated in the process of curriculum design. On the other hand, EI competencies are looked upon as an objective in the sense that the whole curriculum does not target the development of students' competencies that are specifically bound to language; it should rather consider developing a set of lifelong learning skills including EI skills.

6.3. Limitations of the Study

The current study is necessarily prone to a multiplicity of research limitations that touch upon various elements of the study.

- The current research is conducted within a specific context that is the University Centre of Mila involving a small scale of population. Therefore, it is essential to stress that the research findings cannot be generalizable;
- The study targeted the exploration of students' and teachers' attitudes which can be context bound and the findings might be different if the same study design is replicated on participants from a different context;
- The use of self report measures in the current study is another limitation that can negatively influence the reliability and the validity of the findings as students and teachers' contributions cannot be taken for granted as bias-free;

- Finally, the qualitative analysis of the writing teachers' interviews and the speaking teachers' interviews might be influenced by the subjectivity of the researcher. This is especially that the use of framework analysis is oriented by the research questions.

6.4. Call for Further Research

Although the current study sets out to address a variety of gaps in the literature with regard the topic of research, it is of essence to acknowledge that further research is needed to cover for the limitations of the study and to explore its major findings deeply as well. In order to come into firm grips with the relationship between EI and PSA, using an experimental design can be of much use. It would allow researchers to proffer evidence based answers to questions as to whether a causal relationship exists between the variables.

Further, it is suggested that longitudinal studies be conducted to unravel the impact of EI interventions might have on language proficiency among EFL learners in an Algerian context. In addition, it is also recommended that the current research be duplicated on a larger sample including different states in Algeria in order to reach more generalizable results as regards the predictive power of EI for PSA. This must not be limited to tertiary education; it should rather extend to subsume middle school and secondary school education.

Future researchers are required to devote whole studies to examine profoundly the relation between students' and teachers' EI competencies and the various aspects of the productive skills. For instance, a study can be specifically designed to examine the relationship between students' EI and their word choice. Another study can tackle the impact of teachers' EI on students' critical thinking using a different research design. This is believed to enrich the

literature by providing enough evidence in order for the relationship between EI and PSA to be scientifically conceptualized.

Conclusion

This final chapter set out to present the discussion of the major quantitative and qualitative findings of the study. Throughout it, it revealed that the EI holds a pivotal place as a contributor to EFL learners' PSA as it has a positive role to play in influencing most of the elements that underpin WA and SA alike. This permits to confirm the findings of many previous studies in different research context and to enrich the literature on the topic under scrutiny. It also helps to generate a variety of theoretical and pedagogical implications that stress the need for the investment in EI as a means to foster foreign language achievement. Ultimately, this chapter shed light on the most challenging limitations of the study that are followed by the presentation of various suggestions for future research to account for unraveled areas of the general topic of the present study.

General Conclusion

Coming to terms with the factors that foster EFL learners' language skills has continually been the core thrust of research in the ELT enterprise. In accordance with this, the current study is devised to explore the significance of one of these factors in developing language learners' proficiency through investigating its relation with learners' PSA. The factor at issue is the construct of EI that stirs much debate as to how it might have bearings on students' language skills and particularly writing and speaking as the main thrust of the present thesis. To this end, the study brings into play the aforementioned relationship into play by exploring whether it is of a predictive nature; it aims at finding out whether learners' EI can be a significant predictive of students' PSA. Additionally, the study targets the exploration of the attitudes of third-year EFL learners at the University Centre of Mila towards the role of students' and teachers' EI in PSA. Besides, it attempts to highlight how writing and speaking teachers perceive the significance of students and teachers' EI in PSA.

The multidimensional nature of the topic entails the adoption of a convergent mixed methods research design as a means through which the research aims are meant to be achieved. A combination of quantitative and qualitative data was deployed to address the participants of the study. For the quantitative part, it includes the EI-PSA which accounts for the predictive power of EI for PSA, students' questionnaire 'A' which tackles the students' attitudes towards the role of students' EI in WA and SA, and Students' questionnaire 'B' which deals with the students' attitudes towards the role of teachers' EI in PSA. The participants in three quantitative tools were 117 third year EFL students at the department of English at the University Centre Mila. As for the qualitative part, it subsumes the writing teachers' interview conducted with 11 writing teachers and the speaking teachers' interview carried out with 11 speaking teachers. The

participants in both interviews are teachers in the previously mentioned department who provide their perceptions of the importance of EI in learners' PSA.

The quantitative findings proffer a variety of information as the regards the research questions. The results of the EI-PSA test reveal that EI scores are statistically a significant predictor of learners' scores of writing and speaking exams. In turn, the results of the students' questionnaire show that the students hold a mixture of positive and neutral attitudes as far as the role of students' EI is concerned. However, most of these attitudes are labeled as positive indicating that EI competencies have a significant role to play in helping the students to master the elements involved in both skills and to avoid the difficulties that hinder their achievement in both skills, as well. For the students' questionnaire B, the same combination of attitudes is shown by the participants; they are o positive or a neutral nature merely. This indicates that that student' deem teachers' EI important for their PSA to a certain extent, but they still have uncertainty as to how some of these competencies can directly improve their performance in writing and speaking.

The qualitative findings help addressing the research question concerned with teachers' perceptions of the significance of EI. The writing teachers and speaking teachers perceive the construct to be of paramount importance in PSA when possessed with students and teachers. For students' EI in both skills, it is deemed significant in improving the students' linguistic, cognitive, psychological, and affective abilities among the learners allowing them to become better performers and increase their chances to become high achievers. As for teachers' EI, the teachers perceive it to be a substantial source of support for the learners in their pursuit of PSA. This support is manifested at different levels that have bearings on the students' prospect of achievement including linguistic support, cognitive support rapport support and affective support.

Of essence, the aforementioned findings aids at generating answers to the major research questions on the ground of which the entirety of the present study is devised. They are not concerned with EI and PSA as general concepts without accounting for their underlying constituents. Instead, this includes drawing the link between the micro elements of SA and WA and the different competencies and capacities that underpinning EI allowing for the exploration of these specific links to demonstrate clearly the relationship between EI and PSA as a whole. Jointly, the results are drawn upon to establish a variety of implication and recommendations that are deemed essential for theory and pedagogy in whose orbits the topic of this study falls.

Theoretically, it is imperative to consider the significance of EI as a pivotal element among the competencies that need to be fostered in language learners along with elements like cultural awareness and lifelong learning skills. Equivocally, EI can easily be marked among the most prominent characteristics that demarcate between successful and unsuccessful language learners. It is, also, important to bring the construct into play when endeavoring to implement effective language teaching by means of linking it to practices such as students' need analysis, student teacher rapport building and effective assessment. Practically, students need to exert efforts in raising their awareness of the topic by making research on the topic and to explore strategies that help fostering EI among them. Just like students, teachers are required to realize the significance of EI in the effectiveness and their teaching; they need to set developing it among the top priorities on which they reflect throughout their multifaceted teaching experience. Nevertheless, this might be deemed insufficient as teachers are also responsible for aiming at enhancing their students' levels of EI as part of the competencies they target fostering in the learners. Stakeholders are also involved in the process of investing in the power of EI by creating opportunities for students and teachers to develop EI competencies. This can be achieved by

devoting special training sessions for the students to be subjects to different EI interventions. These latter can also be dedicated for teachers as part of their continuous professional development.

In short, it is worth noting that the present research embodies a tentative attempt to enrich the literature with regard to the place of EI in the ELT enterprise. It helps proffering insightful glimpses into this concern. It is however still affected by a variety of research limitations that need to be compensated for in future research agendas.

References

- Abdolrezapour, P., & Tavakoli, M. (2012). The relationship between emotional intelligence and EFL learners' achievement in reading comprehension. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 6(1), 1–13. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2010.550686>
- Abraham, A. (2006). The need for the integration of emotional intelligence skills in business education. *The Business Renaissance Quarterly*, 1(3), 65–80.
- Adams, W. C. (2015). Conducting semi-structured interviews. In K. E. Newcomer, H. P. Hatry, & J. S. Wholey (Eds.), *Handbook of practical program evaluation* (4th, pp. 492–505). Jossey-Bass.
- Afshar, H., & Rahimi, M. (2016). Reflective thinking, emotional intelligence, and speaking ability of EFL learners: Is there a relation? *Thinking Skills and Creativity*, 19, 97–111. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tsc.2015.10.005>
- Afshar, H. S., Tofighi, S., & Hamazavi, R. (2016). Iranian EFL learners' emotional intelligence, learning styles, strategy use, and their L2 achievement. *Issues in Educational Research*, 26(4), 635–652.
- Agesta, S. (2016). Process-genre approach: Breaking students' barriers in writing. *Education in the 21st Century: Responding to Current Issues*, 811–817.
- Albert, Á. (2023). *Investigating the role of affective factors in second language learning tasks*. Springer International Publishing AG.
- Allwright, D., & Bailey, K. M. (1991). *Focus on the language classroom: An introduction to classroom research for language teachers*. Cambridge University Press.
- Al-Obaydi, L., Pikhart, M., & Derakhshan, A. (2022). A qualitative exploration of emotional intelligence in English as foreign language ;earning and teaching: Evidence from Iraq and

the Czech Republic. *Applied Research on English Language*, 11(2).

<https://doi.org/10.22108/are.2022.132551.1850>

Al-Otaibi, S. M., & Alshaikhai, A. (2023). The Effect of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy awareness on EFL teachers' pedagogical practices: A Qualitative study in the Saudi EFL context. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 14(6), 1581–1589.

<https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.1406.16>

Andrei, F., Mancini, G., Baldaro, B., Trombini, E., & Agnoli, S. (2014). A systematic review on the predictive utility of the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue). *Applied Psychology Bulletin*, 271(62), 2–29.

Anker, S. (2010). *Real writing with readings: Paragraphs and essays for college, work, and everyday life* (5th ed). Bedford/St. Martin's.

Arici, A. F., & Kaldirim, A. (2015). The Effect of the process-based writing approach on writing success and anxiety of pre-service teachers. *The Anthropologist*, 22(2), 318–327.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/09720073.2015.11891883>

Arnold, J., & Brown, D. (1999). A map of the terrain. In J. Arnold (Ed.), *Affect in language learning* (pp. 1–24). Cambridge University Press.

Austin, E. J. (2004). An investigation of the relationship between trait emotional intelligence and emotional task performance. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 36(8), 1855–1864.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2003.07.006>

Bachman, L. F., & Palmer, A. S. (1996). *Language testing in practice: Designing and developing useful language tests*. Oxford University Press.

Badger, R., & White, G. (2000). A process genre approach to teaching writing. *ELT Journal*, 54(2), 153–160. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/54.2.153>

- Bagshaw, M. (2000). Emotional intelligence – training people to be affective so they can be effective. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 32(2), 61–65.
<https://doi.org/10.1108/00197850010320699>
- Bailey, K. M. (2005). *Practical English language teaching: Speaking*. McGraw-Hill ESL/ELT.
- Bailey, S. (2011). *Academic writing: A handbook for international students* (3rd ed). Routledge.
- Baker, J., & Westrup, H. (2003). *Essential speaking skills: A handbook for English language teachers*. VSO ; Continuum.
- Bao, Y., & Liu, S. (2021). The Influence of affective factors in second language acquisition on foreign language teaching. *Open Journal of Social Sciences*, 09(03), 463–470.
<https://doi.org/10.4236/jss.2021.93030>
- Bates, L. (1993). *Transitions: An interactive reading, writing, and grammar text*. St. Martin's Press.
- Behizadeh, N., & Engelhard, G. (2011). Historical view of the influences of measurement and writing theories on the practice of writing assessment in the United States. *Assessing Writing*, 16(3), 189–211. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asw.2011.03.001>
- Bitmiş, M. G., & Ergeneli, A. (2014). Emotional intelligence: Reassessing the construct validity. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 150, 1090–1094.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.09.123>
- Bosch, C., Hauwanga, E., Omoruyi, B. E., Okeleye, B. I., Okudoh, V. I., & Aboua, Y. G. (2022). Effects of population knowledge, perceptions, attitudes, and practices on COVID-19 Infection prevention and control in NUST. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 19(10), 5918. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19105918>
- Boyatzis, R. E. (2001). How and why individuals are able to develop EI. In C. Cherniss & D. Goleman (Eds.), *The Emotionally intelligent workplace: How to select for, measure, and*

improve emotional intelligence in individuals, groups, and organizations (pp. 234–253).

Jossey-Bass.

Boyatzis, R., Goleman, D., & Rhee, K. (2000). Clustering competence in emotional intelligence: Insights from the Emotional Competence Inventory. In *The handbook of emotional intelligence: Theory, development, assessment, and application at home, school, and in the workplace* (pp. 343–362). Jossey-Bass.

Brackett, M. A., & Mayer, J. D. (2003). Convergent, discriminant, and incremental validity of competing measures of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 29(9), 1147–1158. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167203254596>

Brandon, L. (2015). *Paragraphs and essays: With integrated readings* (13th edition). Cengage Learning.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2), 77–101. <https://doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp063oa>

Breetvelt, I., van den Bergh, H., & Rijlaarsdam, G. (1994). Relations between writing processes and text quality: When and how? *Cognition and Instruction*, 12(2), 103–123. https://doi.org/10.1207/s1532690xc1202_2

Broughton, G. (1980). *Teaching English as a foreign language* (2nd ed). Routledge.

Brown, H. D. (2001). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy* (2nd ed). Longman.

Brown, H. D. (2005). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (4th ed). Longman.

Brown, H. D. (2006). *Language assessment: Principles and classroom practices* (Nachdr.). Longman.

Budzińska, K., & Majchrzak, O. (2021). *Positive psychology in second and foreign language education*. Springer.

- Burns, A. (2019). Concepts for teaching speaking in the English language classroom. *LEARN Journal: Language Education and Acquisition Research Network*, 12(1), 1–11.
- Burns, A., & Hill, D. A. (2013). Teaching speaking in a second language. In B. Tomlinson (Ed.), *Applied linguistics and materials development* (pp. 231–248). Bloomsbury Academic.
- Burns, A., & Joyce, H. (2002). *Focus on speaking* (Repr). National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research.
- Butzkamm, W. (2003). We only learn language once. The role of the mother tongue in FL classrooms: Death of a dogma. *The Language Learning Journal*, 28(1), 29–39.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/09571730385200181>
- Bygate, M. (2006). Areas of research that influence L2 speaking instruction. In E. Uso´-Juan & A. Martí ´nez-Flor (Eds.), *Current trends in the development and teaching of the Four language skills* (pp. 159–186). Mouton de Gruyter.
- Bygate, M. (2009). Teaching the spoken foreign language. In K. Knapp, B. Seidlhofer, & H. Widdowson (Eds.), *Handbook of Foreign Language Communication and Learning* (Vol. 6, pp. 401–436). De Gruyter Mouton.
- Byrne, D. (1998). *Teaching writing skills*. Longman.
- Cacciattolo, M. (2015). Ethical considerations in research. In M. Vicars, S. Steinberg, T. McKenna, & M. Cacciattolo (Eds.), *The praxis of English language teaching and learning (PELT)* (pp. 61–79). SensePublishers. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-6300-112-0_4
- Campayo-Muñoz, E., Cabedo-Mas, A., & Hargreaves, D. (2020). Intrapersonal skills and music performance in elementary piano students in Spanish conservatories: Three case studies. *International Journal of Music Education*, 38(1), 93–112.

- Chambers, F. (1997). What do we mean by fluency? *System*, 25(4), 535–544.
[https://doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X\(97\)00046-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X(97)00046-8)
- Chaney, A. L., & Burk, T. L. (1998). *Teaching oral communication in grades K-8*. Allyn and Bacon.
- Chanwaiwit, P. (2019). Using effective feedback to improve professionalism as an English student teacher. *The New English Teacher*, 1–14.
- Chen, Z., & Zhang, P. (2022). Trait emotional intelligence and second language performance: A case study of Chinese EFL learners. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 43(8), 731–745. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2020.1767633>
- Cheung, Y. (2016). Teaching writing. In *English language teaching today: Linking theory and practice* (pp. 179–194). Springer.
- Ciarrochi, J., Chan, A., Caputi, P., & Roberts, R. (2001). Measuring emotional intelligence. In *Emotional intelligence in everyday life: A scientific inquiry* (pp. 25–45). The Psychology Press.
- Conor, U., & Mbaye, A. (2002). Discourse approaches to writing assessment. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 22, 263–278.
- Craparo, G. (2014). Psychometric properties of the Italian version of the Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT). *TPM - Testing, Psychometrics, Methodology in Applied Psychology*, 2, 121–133. <https://doi.org/10.4473/TPM21.2.1>
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (4th ed). SAGE Publications.
- Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research* (2nd ed). SAGE Publications.

- Creswell, J. W., Plano Clark, V. L., Gutmann, M. L., & Hanson, W. E. (2010). Advanced mixed methods research designs. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social & Behavioral Research* (pp. 161–196). SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Crossley, S., Salsbury, T., & McNamara, D. (2009). Measuring L2 lexical growth using hypernymic relationships. *Language Learning*, 59(2), 307–334.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2009.00508.x>
- Cuéllar, L., & Oxford, R. L. (2018). Language teachers' emotions: Emerging from the shadows. In J. de D. Martínez Agudo (Ed.), *Emotions in second language teaching* (pp. 53–72). Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-75438-3_4
- Cumming, A. (2006). Teaching writing: Orienting activities to students' goals. In E. Uso'-Juan & A. Martí'nez-Flor (Eds.), *Current trends in the development and teaching of the four language skills* (pp. 473–491). Mouton de Gruyter.
- Dåderman, A. M., & Kajonius, P. J. (2022). An item response theory analysis of the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire Short-Form (TEIQue-SF) in the workplace. *Heliyon*, 8(2), e08884. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2022.e08884>
- Dastgoshadeh, A., & Javanmardi, P. (2021). Emotional intelligence as a predictor of EFL learners' willingness to communicate. *MEXTESOL Journal*, 45(3), 1–10.
- Dawda, D., & Hart, S. D. (2000). Assessing emotional intelligence: Reliability and validity of the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) in university students. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 28(4), 797–812. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869\(99\)00139-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869(99)00139-7)
- De Jong, N. H., Steinel, M. P., Florijn, A., Schoonen, R., & Hulstijn, J. H. (2013). Linguistic skills and speaking fluency in a second language. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 34(5), 893–916. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0142716412000069>

- Derewianka, B. (2003). Trends and issues in genre-based approaches. *RELC Journal*, 34(2), 133–154. <https://doi.org/10.1177/003368820303400202>
- Devis-Rozental, C. (2018). *Developing socio-emotional intelligence in higher education scholars* (1st ed. 2018). Springer International Publishing : Imprint: Palgrave Macmillan. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-94036-6>
- Dewaele, J. (2018). The Relationship between trait emotional intelligence and experienced ESL/EFL teachers' love of English, attitudes towards their students and institution, self-reported classroom practices, enjoyment and creativity. *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 41(4), 468–487. <https://doi.org/doi.org/10.1515/cjal-2018-0034>
- Dewaele, J.-M., Chen, X., Padilla, A. M., & Lake, J. (2019). The Flowering of positive psychology in foreign language teaching and acquisition research. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 10, 2128. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.02128>
- Di Gennaro, K. (2006). Second language writing ability: Towards a complete construct definition. *Studies in Applied Linguistics and TESOL*, Vol. 6 No. 2 (2006). <https://doi.org/10.7916/SALT.V6I2.1544>
- Dirgeyasa, I. W. (2016). Genre-based approach: What and how to teach and to learn writing. *English Language Teaching*, 9(9), 45. <https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v9n9p45>
- Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition* (digital printing 2010). Routledge.
- Duffy, F. D., Gordon, G. H., Whelan, G., Cole-Kelly, K., Frankel, R., Buffone, N., Lofton, S., Wallace, M., Goode, L., Langdon, L., & Participants in the American Academy on Physician and Patient's Conference on Education and Evaluation of Competence in Communication and Interpersonal Skills. (2004). Assessing competence in communication and interpersonal skills: The Kalamazoo II report. *Academic Medicine*:

Journal of the Association of American Medical Colleges, 79(6), 495–507.

<https://doi.org/10.1097/00001888-200406000-00002>

Dulewicz, V., & Higgs, M. (2004). Can emotional intelligence be developed? *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 15(1), 95–111.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/0958519032000157366>

Ellis, R. (2015). *Understanding second language acquisition* (Second edition). Oxford University Press.

Eunson, B. (2015). *C21: Communicating in the 21st century* (4th ed). Wiley.

Feng-Checkett, G., & Checkett, L. (2010). *The write start: Sentences to paragraphs: with professional and student readings* (4th ed). Wadsworth, Cengage Learning.

Fernández-Berrocal, P., & Extremera, N. (2006). Emotional intelligence: A theoretical and empirical review of its first 15 years of history. *Psicothema*, 18 Suppl, 7–12.

Fetters, M. D., Curry, L. A., & Creswell, J. W. (2013). Achieving integration in mixed methods designs-principles and practices. *Health Services Research*, 48(6pt2), 2134–2156.

<https://doi.org/10.1111/1475-6773.12117>

Fiori, M., & Vesely-Maillefer, A. K. (2018). Emotional intelligence as an ability: Theory, challenges, and new directions. In *Emotional Intelligence in Education: Integrating Research with Practice* (pp. 23–47). Springer.

Firkins, A., Forey, G., & Sengupta, S. (2007). Teaching writing to low proficiency EFL students. *ELT Journal*, 61(4), 341–352. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccm052>

Forsyth, P. B., & Connelly, J. (2012). *Essay writing skills: Essential techniques to gain top marks*. Kogan Page Limited.

- Freshman, B., & Rubino, L. (2002). Emotional intelligence: A core Competency for health care administrators. *The Health Care Manager*, 20(4), 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00126450-200206000-00002>
- Freudenthaler, H. H., Neubauer, A. C., Gabler, P., Scherl, W. G., & Rindermann, H. (2008). Testing and validating the trait emotional intelligence questionnaire (TEIQue) in a German-speaking sample. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 45(7), 673–678. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2008.07.014>
- Gabryś-Barker, D., & Gałajda, D. (Eds.). (2016). *Positive psychology perspectives on foreign language learning and teaching* (1st ed. 2016). Springer International Publishing : Imprint: Springer. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-32954-3>
- Gale, N. K., Heath, G., Cameron, E., Rashid, S., & Redwood, S. (2013). Using the framework method for the analysis of qualitative data in multi-disciplinary health research. *BMC Medical Research Methodology*, 13(1), 117. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2288-13-117>
- Genç, G., Kuluşaklı, E., & Aydın, S. (2016). The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Productive Language Skills. *The Reading Matrix: An International Online Journal*, 16(1), 91–105.
- Ginther, A. (2012). Assessment of speaking. In C. A. Chapelle (Ed.), *The encyclopedia of applied linguistics*. Blackwell Publishing Ltd. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781405198431.wbeal0882>
- Goh, C. C. M. (2016). Teaching speaking. In W. A. Renandya & H. P. Widodo (Eds.), *English language teaching today linking theory and practice* (pp. 142–159). Springer.
- Goh, C. C. M., & Burns, A. (2012). *Teaching speaking: A holistic approach*. Cambridge University Press.

- Goh, C. C. M., & Doyle, P. G. (2014). How do speaking and writing support each other? In R. E. Silver & S. M. Lwin (Eds.), *Language in education social implications* (pp. 108–126). Bloomsbury Academic.
- Goldsmith, L. (2021). Using framework analysis in applied qualitative research. *The qualitative report*. <https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2021.5011>
- Goleman, D. (2000). Emotional intelligence: Issues in paradigm building. In *The emotionally intelligent workplace: How to select for, measure, and improve emotional intelligence in individuals, groups, and organizations* (pp. 1–13). Jossey-Bass.
- Goleman, D. (2001). An EI-based theory of performance. In *The emotionally intelligent workplace* (pp. 27–44). Jossey-Bass.
- Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R. E., & McKee, A. (2008). *Primal leadership: Learning to lead with emotional intelligence*. Harvard Business School Press.
- Greene, J. C. (2006). Toward a methodology of mixed methods social inquiry. *Research in the Schools*, 13(1), 93–98.
- Grove, C. (1999). Focusing on form in the communicative classroom: An output-centered model of instruction for oral skills development. *Hispania*, 82(4), 817.
<https://doi.org/10.2307/346378>
- Grubb, W. L., & McDaniel, M. A. (2007). The fakability of bar-on's emotional quotient inventory short form: Catch me if you can. *Human performance*, 20(1), 43–59.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/08959280709336928>
- Hamp-Lyons, L. (2008). Best practice in writing assessment. In N. Saville & L. Taylor (Eds.), *Studies in Language Testing* (Vol. 27, pp. 321–335). Cambridge University Press.
- Hamp-Lyons, L., & Heasley, B. (1987). *Study writing: A course in written English for academic and professional purposes*. Cambridge University Press.

- Harmer, J. (2006). *The practice of English language teaching*. Longman.
- Harmer, J. (2011). *How to teach writing*. Longman, Pearson Education.
- Harris, D. P. (1988). *Testing English as a second language*. McGraw-Hill.
- Hasan, Md. K., & Akhand, M. M. (2011). Approaches to writing in EFL/ESL context: Balancing product and process in writing class at tertiary level. *Journal of NELTA*, 15(1–2), 77–88.
<https://doi.org/10.3126/nelta.v15i1-2.4612>
- Heffernon, J., & Lincoln, J. E. (1986). *Writing: A college handbook*. Norton.
- Heylighen, F., & Dewaele, J.-M. (2002). Variation in the contextuality of language: An empirical measure. *Foundations of Science*, 7(3), 293–340.
<https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1019661126744>
- Hoadjili, A. C., & Bouaziz, M. (2021). Deciphering the effective relationship between emotional intelligence and willingness to communicate in an English as a foreign language class. *Journal of Studies in Language, Culture, and Society*, 4(2), 78–74.
- Hornby, A. S. (2008). *Oxford advanced learner's dictionary of current English*. Oxford University Press.
- Huang, H.T. D., Hung, S.T. A., & Plakans, L. (2018). Topical knowledge in L2 speaking assessment: Comparing independent and integrated speaking test tasks. *Language Testing*, 35(1), 27–49. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0265532216677106>
- Hughes, R. (2013). *Teaching and researching speaking* (Second edition). Routledge.
- Hyland, K. (2003). *Second language writing*. Cambridge University Press.
- Hyon, S. (1996). Genre in three traditions: Implications for ESL. *TESOL Quarterly*, 30(4), 693.
<https://doi.org/10.2307/3587930>
- Irawati, E. (2017). Prewriting and drafting strategies of graduate students in writing term papers in English. *KNE Social Sciences*, 1(3), 334. <https://doi.org/10.18502/kss.v1i3.754>

- Johnson, R. B., Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Turner, L. A. (2007). Toward a Definition of Mixed Methods Research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1(2), 112–133.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1558689806298224>
- Joshi, M. (2014). *Simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences: English sentence forms*. Createspace Independent Publishing Platform.
- Kane, T. S. (2000). *The Oxford essential guide to writing*. Berkley Books.
- Kayi, R. (2006). Teaching speaking: Activities to promote speaking in a second language. *The Internet TESL Journal*, 12. <http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Kayi-TeachingSpeaking.html>
- Keefer, K. V., Parker, J. D. A., & Saklofske, D. H. (Eds.). (2018). *Emotional intelligence in education: Integrating research with practice*. Springer International Publishing : Imprint: Springer. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-90633-1>
- Kellogg, R. T. (1990). Effectiveness of prewriting strategies as a function of task demands. *The American Journal of Psychology*, 103(3), 327. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1423213>
- Kenny, D. T. (2001). Stress management. In S. Ayers, A. Baum, C. McManus, S. Newman, K. Wallston, J. Weinman, & R. West (Eds.), *Cambridge handbook of psychology, health and medicine* (2nd ed., pp. 403–407). Cambridge University Press.
<https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511543579.089>
- Khaki, M., & Heidari Tabrizi, H. (2021). Assessing the effect of direct and indirect corrective feedback in process-based vs product-based instruction on learners' writing. *Language Teaching Research Quarterly*, 21, 36–53. <https://doi.org/10.32038/ltrq.2021.21.03>
- King, N., & Horrocks, C. (2010). *Interviews in qualitative research*. SAGE.
- Koizumi, R. (2013). Vocabulary and speaking. In C. Chapelle (Ed.), *The encyclopedia of applied linguistics* (pp. 1–7). John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/9781405198431.wbeal1431>

- Kormos, J., & Smith, A. M. (2012). *Teaching languages to students with specific learning differences* (2nd edition). Multilingual Matters.
- Kothari, C. R. (2004). *Research methodology: Methods & techniques*. New Age International (P) Limited, Publishers.
- Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition* (1st ed). Pergamon.
- Laborde, S., Allen, M. S., & Guillén, F. (2016). Construct and concurrent validity of the short- and long-form versions of the trait emotional intelligence questionnaire. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 101, 232–235. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2016.06.009>
- Ladousse, G. P. (1987). *Role play*. Oxford University Press.
- Lavelle, E., & Bushrow, K. (2007). Writing approaches of graduate students. *Educational Psychology*, 27(6), 807–822. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01443410701366001>
- Lazarton, A. (2001). Teaching Oral Skills. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or a foreign language* (pp. 103–115). Heinle & Heinle;
- Leong, L. M., Ahmadi, S. M. (2017). An analysis of factors influencing learners' English speaking skill. *International Journal of Research in English Education*, 2(1), 34–41. <https://doi.org/10.18869/acadpub.ijree.2.1.34>
- Lightbown, P., & Spada, N. M. (2013). *How languages are learned* (Fourth edition). Oxford University Press.
- Linebarger, M. C., Dahl, D. A., Hirschman, L., & Passonneau, R. J. (1988). Sentence fragments regular structures. *Proceedings of the 26th Annual Meeting on Association for Computational Linguistics* -, 7–16. <https://doi.org/10.3115/982023.982025>
- Lingard, L. (2017). Mastering the sentence. *Perspectives on Medical Education*, 6(1), 51–53. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40037-016-0315-z>

- Locke, A., & Locke, D. (2013). *Teaching speaking and listening: One step at a time* (Revised edition). Bloomsbury.
- Luoma, S. (2004). *Assessing speaking*. Cambridge University Press.
- Lyster, R., Saito, K., & Sato, M. (2013). Oral corrective feedback in second language classrooms. *Language Teaching*, 46(1), 1–40. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444812000365>
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Mercer, S. (2014). Introducing positive psychology to SLA. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 4(2), 153–172. <https://doi.org/10.14746/ssllt.2014.4.2.2>
- Mackey, A., & Bryfonski, L. (2018). Mixed methodology. In A. Phakiti, P. De Costa, L. Plonsky, & S. Starfield (Eds.), *The palgrave handbook of applied linguistics research Methodology* (pp. 103–122).
- Mackey, A., Oliver, R., & Leeman, J. (2003). Interactional input and the incorporation of feedback: An exploration of NS-NNS and NNS-NNS Adult and Child Dyads. *Language Learning*, 53(1), 35–66. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9922.00210>
- Madsen, H. S. (1983). *Techniques in testing*. Oxford University Press.
- Mart, C. T. (2012). Developing speaking skills through reading. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 2(6), p91. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v2n6p91>
- Martin, A. J. (2012). Adaptability and learning. In N. M. Seel (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of the sciences of learning* (pp. 90–92). Springer US. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4419-1428-6_267
- Martínez-Flor, A., Usó-Juan, E., & Alcón Soler, E. (2006). Towards acquiring communicative competence through speaking. In E. Usó-Juan & A. Martínez-Flor (Eds.), *Current trends in the development and teaching of the four language skills* (Vol. 29, pp. 139–158). Mouton de Gruyter. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110197778.3.139>

- Maul, A. (2012). The Validity of the Mayer–Salovey–Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) as a measure of emotional intelligence. *Emotion Review*, 4(4), 394–402. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1754073912445811>
- Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D. R., & Salovey, P. (1999). Emotional intelligence meets traditional standards for an intelligence. *Intelligence*, 27(4), 267–298. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-2896\(99\)00016-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-2896(99)00016-1)
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2004). Emotional intelligence: theory, findings, and implications.” *Psychological Inquiry*, 15(3), 197–215. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327965pli1503_02
- Mertens, D. (2003). Mixed methods and the politics of human research: The transformative-emancipatory perspective. In C. Teddlie & A. Tashakkori (Eds.), *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research* (pp. 135–164). Sage.
- Morin, A. (2011). Self-Awareness Part 1: Definition, measures, effects, functions, and antecedents: Self-awareness. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 5(10), 807–823. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1751-9004.2011.00387.x>
- Morris, W. N. (1989). The concept of mood. In W. N. Morris, *Mood* (pp. 1–10). Springer New York. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4612-3648-1_1
- Mueller, A. E., & Segal, D. L. (2015). Structured versus Semistructured versus Unstructured Interviews. In R. L. Cautin & S. O. Lilienfeld (Eds.), *The Encyclopedia of Clinical Psychology* (1st ed., pp. 1–7). Wiley. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118625392.wbecp069>
- Munezero, M., Montero, C. S., Sutinen, E., & Pajunen, J. (2014). Are they different? affect, feeling, emotion, sentiment, and opinion detection in text. *IEEE Transactions on Affective Computing*, 5(2), 101–111. <https://doi.org/10.1109/TAFFC.2014.2317187>
- Nation, I. S. P., & Newton, J. (2009). *Teaching ESL/EFL listening and speaking*. Routledge.

- Nation, P. (1989). Speaking activities: Five features. *ELT Journal*, 43(1), 24–29.
<https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/43.1.24>
- Neubauer, A., & Freudenthaler, H. (2005). Models of emotional intelligence. In *Emotional intelligence: An international handbook* (pp. 31–50). Hogrefe & Huber Publishers.
- Newman, I., Ridenour, S., & Newman, C. (2003). A typology of research purposes and its relationship to mixed methods. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research* (pp. 189–208). Sage.
- Nickel, S. (2018). *Dilemma in the EFL classroom. When role playing encounters speech anxiety*. *An Approach on the chances and limitations of role playing*. GRIN Verlag.
- Nordin, S. M., & Mohammad, N. B. (2006). The best of two approaches: Process/genre-based approach to teaching writing. *The English Teacher*, 35, 75–85.
- O'Connor, P. J., Hill, A., Kaya, M., & Martin, B. (2019). The measurement of emotional intelligence: A critical review of the literature and recommendations for researchers and practitioners. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 10, 1116.
<https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.01116>
- Oz, H. (2015). Emotional intelligence as a predictor of L2 communication. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 186, 424–430. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.04.117>
- Panke, D. (2018). *Research design and method selection: Making good choices in the social sciences*. SAGE.
- Papadogiannis, P. K., Logan, D., & Sitarenios, G. (2009). An ability model of emotional intelligence: A rationale, description, and application of the Mayer Salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT). In J. D. A. Parker, D. H. Saklofske, & C. Stough (Eds.), *Assessing emotional intelligence* (pp. 43–65). Springer US.
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-88370-0_3

- Park, T. (2004). An Overview of portfolio-based writing assessment. *Studies in Applied Linguistics and TESOL*, Vol. 4 No. 2 (2004). <https://doi.org/10.7916/SALT.V4I2.1596>
- Parker, J. D. A., Saklofske, D. H., & Stough, C. (Eds.). (2009). *Assessing emotional intelligence: Theory, research, and applications*. Springer US. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-88370-0>
- Parrish, D. R. (2015). The relevance of emotional intelligence for leadership in a higher education context. *Studies in Higher Education*, 40(5), 821–837. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2013.842225>
- Pavlenko, A. (2011). *Emotions and multilingualism* (reprinted). Cambridge University Press.
- Pavlenko, A. (2013). The Affective turn in SLA: From “affective factors” to “language desire” and “commodification of affect.” In D. Gabrys-Barker & J. Belska (Eds.), *The affective Dimension in second language acquisition*. (pp. 3–47). Multilingual Matters.
- Pennington, M. C., & Rogerson-Revell, P. (2019). The Nature of pronunciation. In M. C. Pennington & P. Rogerson-Revell, *English pronunciation teaching and research* (pp. 1–55). Palgrave Macmillan UK. https://doi.org/10.1057/978-1-137-47677-7_1
- Perkins, K. (1983). On the use of composition scoring techniques, objective measures, and objective tests to evaluate ESL writing ability. *TESOL Quarterly*, 17(4), 651. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3586618>
- Petrides, K. V. (2009). Psychometric properties of the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue). In *Assessing emotional intelligence* (pp. 85–101). The Springer Series on Human Exceptionality.
- Petrides, K. V. (2010). Trait emotional intelligence theory. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 3, 136–139.

- Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2000). On the dimensional structure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 29(2), 313–320. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869\(99\)00195-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869(99)00195-6)
- Petrides, K. V., & Mavroveli, S. (2020). Theory and applications of trait emotional intelligence. *Psychology: The Journal of the Hellenic Psychological Society*, 23(1), 24. https://doi.org/10.12681/psy_hps.23016
- Petrides, K. V., Siegling, A. B., & Saklofske, D. H. (2016). Theory and measurement of trait emotional intelligence. In U. Kumar (Ed.), *The wiley handbook of personality assessment* (pp. 90–103). John Wiley & Sons, Ltd. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781119173489.ch7>
- Pikiewicz, K. (2004). *Implementing an effective writing program*. Shell Education.
- Pishghadam, R. (2009). A quantitative analysis of the relationship between emotional intelligence and foreign language learning. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 6(1), 31–41.
- Prior, M. T. (2019). Elephants in the room: An “Affective Turn,” or just feeling our way? *The Modern Language Journal*, 103(2), 516–527. <https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12573>
- Pujianto, D., Emilia, E., & Ihrom, S. M. (2014). A process genre approach to teaching writing report text to senior high school students . *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 4(1), 99. <https://doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v4i1.603>
- Punia, P., Dutta, J., & Sharma, Y. (2015). Emotional intelligence: A theoretical framework. *International Journal of Scientific & Engineering Research*, 6(5), 967–1006.
- Putman, V. L., & Paulus, P. B. (2009). Brainstorming, brainstorming rules and decision making. *The Journal of Creative Behavior*, 43(1), 29–40. <https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2162-6057.2009.tb01304.x>

- Rashtchi, M., Porkar, R., & Saeed, S. (2019). Product-based, process-based, and genre-based instructions in expository writing: focusing on EFL learners' performance and strategy use. *European Journal of Education Studies*, 6(6)
<https://doi.org/10.5281/ZENODO.3427842>
- Redeker, G. (1984). On differences between spoken and written language. *Discourse Processes*, 7(1), 43–55. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01638538409544580>
- Richards, J. C. (2008.). *Teaching listening and speaking*. Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C. (2022). Exploring Emotions in Language Teaching. *RELC Journal*, 53(1), 225–239. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688220927531>
- Richards, J. C., & Schmidt, R. W. (2010). *Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics* (4th ed). Longman.
- Ritchie, J., & Spencer, L. (1994). Qualitative data analysis for applied policy research. In A. Bryman & R. G. Burgess (Eds.), *Analyzing qualitative data* (pp. 173–194). Routledge.
- Ritchie, J., Spencer, L., & O'Connor, W. (2003). Carrying out qualitative analysis. In J. Ritchie & Jane Lewis (Eds.), *Qualitative research practice a guide for social science students and researchers* (pp. 219–262). SAGE Publications.
- Rusinovci, X. (2015). Teaching writing through process-genre based approach. *US-China Education Review A*, 5(10). <https://doi.org/10.17265/2161-623X/2015.10A.006>
- Saeidi, M., & Sahebkhair, F. (2011). The effect of model essays on accuracy and complexity of EFL learners' writing performance. *Middle-East Journal of Scientific Research*, 10(1), 130–137.
- Salovey, P., & Grewal, D. (2005). The science of emotional intelligence. *Current directions in psychological science*, 14(6), 281–285. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0963-7214.2005.00381.x>

- Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, 9(3), 185–211. <https://doi.org/10.2190/DUGG-P24E-52WK-6CDG>
- Sangeetha, V. (2020). Inculcating self-editing skills for enhancing writing skills of the EFL students. *International Journal of Instruction*, 13(1), 509–322. <https://doi.org/10.29333/iji.2020.13133a>
- Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M., Hall, L. E., Haggerty, D. J., Cooper, J. T., Golden, C. J., & Dornheim, L. (1998). Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 25(2), 167–177. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869\(98\)00001-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869(98)00001-4)
- Scott, V. M. (1996). *Rethinking foreign language writing*. Heinle & Heinle.
- Selvaraj, M., & Aziz, A. A. (2019). Systematic review: Approaches in teaching writing skill in ESL classrooms. *International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development*, 8(4), Pages 450-473. <https://doi.org/10.6007/IJARPED/v8-i4/6564>
- Seow, A. (2002). The writing process and process writing. In J. C. Richards & W. A. Renandya (Eds.), *Methodology in language teaching* (1st ed., pp. 315–320). Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511667190.044>
- Serrat, O. (2017). Understanding and developing emotional intelligence. In O. Serrat, *Knowledge solutions* (pp. 329–339). Springer Singapore. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-10-0983-9_37
- Shalihah, M., Supramaniam, K., & Kholidi, M. A. (2022). Teachers’ and students’ perspectives of factors affecting students’ speaking performance in learning English. *Jurnal Tatsqif*, 20(1), 68–86. <https://doi.org/10.20414/jtq.v20i1.6150>

- Shao, K., Yu, W., & Ji, Z. (2013). An exploration of Chinese EFL students' emotional intelligence and foreign language anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 97(4), 917–929. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2013.12042.x>
- Shiach, D. (2009). *How to write essays: A step-by-step guide for all levels, with sample essays*. How To Books.
- Shumin, K. (2010). Factors to consider: developing adult EFL students' speaking abilities. In J. C. Richards & W. A. Renandya (Eds.), *Methodology in language teaching;: An anthology of current practice* (pp. 204–211). Cambridge University Press.
- Siegling, A. B., Sfeir, M., & Smyth, H. J. (2014). Measured and self-estimated trait emotional intelligence in a UK sample of managers. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 65, 59–64. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2014.01.027>
- Smith, C. B. (Ed.). (2003). Successful use of the six traits in writing. *Topical Bibliography and Commentary*.
- Snyder, L. (2010). Reading expository material: Are we asking the right questions? *Topics in Language Disorders*, 30(1), 39–47. <https://doi.org/10.1097/TLD.0b013e3181d098b3>
- Stahl, S. A. (2005). Four problems with teaching word meanings (and what to do to make vocabulary an integral part of instruction). In E. H. Hiebert & M. L. Kamil (Eds.), *Teaching and learning vocabulary bringing research to practice* (pp. 105–114). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Steineger, M. (1996). A way with words. *Northwest Education*, 2(1), 20–24.
- Sundem, G. (2006). *Improving student writing skills*. Shell Education.
- Taheri, L., & Jadidi, E. (2016). The relationship between emotional intelligence and learning strategies among iranian EFL learners. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 6(5), 952. <https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0605.06>

- Tante, A. C. (2018). I can talk about a lot of things in the other language but not in English: Teaching speaking skills in Cameroon primary schools. In A. Burns & J. Siegel (Eds.), *International perspectives on teaching the four skills in ELT E* (pp. 81–95). Palgrave Macmillan.
- Tavakol, M., & Dennick, R. (2011). Making sense of Cronbach's alpha. *International Journal of Medical Education*, 2, 53–55. <https://doi.org/10.5116/ijme.4dfb.8dfd>
- Teddlie, C., & Tashakkori, A. (2009). *Foundations of mixed methods research: Integrating quantitative and qualitative approaches in the social and behavioral sciences*. SAGE.
- Thornbury, S. (2010). *An A - Z of ELT: A dictionary of terms and concepts used in English language teaching*. Macmillan.
- Thornbury, S. (2013). *How to teach speaking*. Longman.
- Truong, T. N. T. (2017). Teaching writing using genre-based approach: A study at a Vietnamese university. *Language education in Asia*, 8(2), 192–212. <https://doi.org/10.5746/LEiA/17/V8/I2/A05/Truong>
- Tuan, N. H., & Mai, T. N. (2015). Factors affecting students' speaking performance at Le Thanh Hien High School. *Asian Journal of Educational Research*, 3(2), 8–23.
- Ugoani, J. N. N., Amu, C. U., & Kalu, E. O. (2015). Dimensions of emotional intelligence and transformational leadership: A correlation analysis. *Independent Journal of Management & Production*, 6(2), 563–584. <https://doi.org/10.14807/ijmp.v6i2.278>
- Ur, P. (1996). *A course in English language teaching*. Cambridge University Press.
- Usó-Juan, E., Martínez-Flor, A., & Palmer-Silveira, J. (2006). Towards acquiring communicative Competence through writing. In *Current trends in the development and teaching of the four language skills* (pp. 383–400). Mouton de Gruyter.

- Valente, S., Monteiro, A. P., & Lourenço, A. A. (2019). The relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence and classroom discipline management. *Psychology in the Schools*, 56(5), 741–750. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pits.22218>
- Van Geyte, E. (2013). *Writing: Learn to write better academic essays* (1. ed). HarperCollins Publ.
- Vandervoort, D. J. (2006). The importance of emotional intelligence in higher education. *Current Psychology*, 25(1), 4–7. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-006-1011-7>
- Wahyuni, D. (2012). The research design maze: Understanding paradigms, cases, methods and methodologies. *Journal of Applied Management Accounting Research*, 10, 69–80.
- Warnock, J. (1983). The Writing process. *Rhetoric Review*, 2(1), 4–27.
- Watkin, C. (2000). Developing emotional intelligence. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 8(2), 89–92. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-2389.00137>
- Weigle, S. C. (2010). *Assessing writing*. Cambridge University Press.
- White, C. J. (2018). The Emotional turn in applied linguistics and TESOL: Significance, challenges and prospects. In J. de D. Martínez Agudo (Ed.), *Emotions in second language teaching* (pp. 19–34). Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-75438-3_2
- Wilkinson, D., & Birmingham, P. (2003). *Using research instruments: A guide for researchers*. Taylor & Francis e-Library.
- Wingersky, J., Boerner, J., & Holguin-Balogh, D. (1995). *Writing paragraphs and essays: Integrating reading, writing, and grammar skills* (2nd ed). Wadsworth Pub. Co.
- Wolcott, W., & Legg, S. M. (1998). *An overview of writing assessment: Theory, research, and practice*. National Council of Teachers of English.

- Wood, L. M., Parker, J. D. A., & Keefer, K. V. (2009). Assessing emotional intelligence using the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) and related instruments. In *Assessing emotional intelligence: Theory, research, and applications* (pp. 67–84). Springer Science.
- Yan, G. (2005). A process-genre model for teaching writing. *English Teaching Forum*, 43, 18–26.
- Yancey, K. B. (1999). Looking back as we look forward: Historicizing writing assessment. *College Composition and Communication*, 50(3), 483. <https://doi.org/10.2307/358862>
- Yarber, M. L., & Yarber, R. E. (2010). *Reviewing basic grammar: A guide to writing sentences and paragraphs* (8th ed). Pearson Longman.
- Yates, R., & Kenkel, J. (2002). Responding to sentence-level errors in writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 11(1), 29–47. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743\(02\)00051-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(02)00051-6)
- Yavuz, F., & Celik, O. (2017). The importance of listening in communication. *Global Journal of Psychology Research: New Trends and Issues*, 7(1), 8–11. <https://doi.org/10.18844/gjpr.v7i1.2431>
- Zafari, M., & Biria, R. (2014). The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Language Learning Strategy Use. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98, 1966–1974. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.630>
- Zarezadeh, T. (2013). The Effect of emotional intelligence in English language learning. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 84, 1286–1289. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.06.745>
- Zeidner, M., Matthews, G., & Roberts, R. D. (2009). *What we know about emotional intelligence: How it affects learning, work, relationships, and our mental health*. MIT Press.
- Zemach, D. E., & Rumisek, L. A. (2011). *Academic writing from paragraph to essay*. Macmillan.

Zhao, Y. (2019). Negative transfer of mother tongue in English. *Creative Education*, 10(05), 940–946. <https://doi.org/10.4236/ce.2019.105070>

Appendices

Appendix A

EI-PSA Test

You are kindly asked to fill in the present questionnaire which is part of a PhD research. Please bear in mind that your participation is voluntary, anonymous and used for research purposes merely.

Section One: Background Information

1) Gender:

a) Male

☐

b) Female

☐

2) Age:

a) 19-21

☐

b) 22-24

☐

c) Above 24

☐

Section Two: Productive Skills Achievement

1) Fifth Term Exam Mark of '*Written Expression*':

..... / 20

2) Fifth Term Exam Mark of '*Speaking*':

..... / 20

Section Three: Emotional Intelligence (Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire 'Short Form')

- Please circle the number corresponding to the degree to which you agree with the provided statement.

1= Completely Disagree

7= Completely Agree

1. Expressing my emotions with words is not a problem for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I often find it difficult to see things from another person's viewpoint	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. On the whole, I'm a highly motivated person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I usually find it difficult to regulate my emotions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I generally don't find life enjoyable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I can deal effectively with people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I tend to change my mind frequently	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Many times, I can't figure out what emotion I'm feeling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I feel that I have a number of good qualities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I often find it difficult to stand up for my rights	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I'm usually able to influence the way other people feel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. On the whole, I have a gloomy perspective on most things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Those close to me often complain that I don't treat them right	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I often find it difficult to adjust my life according to the circumstances	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. On the whole, I'm able to deal with stress	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I often find it difficult to show my affection to those close to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

17. I'm normally able to "get into someone's shoes" and experience their emotions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I normally find it difficult to keep myself motivated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I'm usually able to find ways to control my emotions when I want to	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. On the whole, I'm pleased with my life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I would describe myself as a good negotiator	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I tend to get involved in things I later wish I could get out of	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. I often pause and think about my feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. I believe I'm full of personal strengths	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. I tend to "back down" even if I know I'm right	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. I don't seem to have any power at all over other people's feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. I generally believe that things will work out fine in my life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. I find it difficult to bond well, even with those close to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. Generally, I'm able to adapt to new environments	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. Others admire me for being relaxed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Thank You for Your Cooperation

Appendix B

Students' Questionnaire A

Dear Student,

The present questionnaire is part of a PhD research in the field of Teaching English as a Foreign Language. You are kindly asked to fill in it with the necessary information.

Please mind that your participation is voluntary, anonymous, and utilized for research purposes only.

Section One: Background Information

- Age

18- 21 ☐

21- 24 ☐

Over 24 ☐

- Gender

Male ☐

Female ☐

Section Two: Emotional Intelligence

1) According to you, being emotionally intelligent means that you can :

- Understand your own feelings ☐

- Recognize other' feelings ☐

- Control and regulate your emotions ☐

- Use your emotions to build social relationships ☐

- Motivate yourself to recognize and manage emotions ☐

- All of Them ☐

2) Which is more important for life success?

- Emotional Intelligence (EQ) ☐

- Traditional Intelligence (IQ) ☐

- Of equal importance ☐

3) How important is EI for academic achievement?

Not important ☐ Important ☐ Very Important ☐

4) How interested are you in developing your EI?

Not interested ☐ Interested ☐ Very interested ☐

Section Three: Writing Achievement

1) How do you perceive achievement in the writing skill?

Not difficult ☐ Difficult ☐ Very Difficult ☐

2) In which of these traits of writing do you face problems?

Ideas ☐

Word Choice ☐

Sentence Fluency

Voice

Organization

Presentation

Conventions (grammar, spelling, punctuation ...)

All of them

3) Which type of factors affects achievement in writing?

Psychological factors

Cognitive factors

Linguistic factors

All of them

Section Four: Speaking Achievement

1) How do you perceive achievement in the speaking skill?

Not difficult Difficult Very Difficult

2) What are the difficulties you face in speaking?

Nothing to say

Inhibition

Mother tongue use

Not having the chance to speak ☐

All of them ☐

3) What are the factors that affect speaking achievement?

- Performance conditions ☐

- Listening ability ☐

☐

- Topical knowledge

☐

- Feedback during speaking

☐

- Affective factors

☐

All of them

Section Five: Students' Emotional Intelligence and Writing Achievement

Please select the number that corresponds to the degree to which you agree with the following statements

1 strongly disagree.....**5** strongly agree

understanding my emotions allows me to:	1	2	3	4	5
Come up with clear ideas to write					
Organize my pieces of writing well					
Select the appropriate words to write					

Demonstrate my tone in the piece of writing					
Maintain the fluency of my sentences					
Maintain control over writing conventions (punctuation spelling ...)					
Avoid psychological difficulties in writing					
Avoid the linguistic difficulties in writing					
Avoid the cognitive difficulties in writing					
Recognizing what others feel helps me to:	1	2	3	4	5
Come up with clear ideas to write					
Organize my pieces of writing well					
Select the appropriate words to write					
Demonstrate my tone in the piece of writing					
Maintain the fluency of my sentences					
Maintain control over writing conventions (punctuation spelling ...)					
Avoid psychological difficulties in writing					
Avoid the linguistic difficulties in writing					
Avoid the cognitive difficulties in writing					
Controlling and managing my emotions allows me to:	1	2	3	4	5
Come up with clear ideas to write					
Organize my pieces of writing well					
Select the appropriate words to write					
Demonstrate my tone in the piece of writing					
Maintain the fluency of my sentences					
Maintain control over writing conventions (punctuation spelling ...)					

Avoid psychological difficulties in writing					
Avoid the linguistic difficulties in writing					
Avoid the cognitive difficulties in writing					
Using my emotions to build relationships helps me to:	1	2	3	4	5
Come up with clear ideas to write					
Organize my pieces of writing well					
Select the appropriate words to write					
Demonstrate my tone in the piece of writing					
Maintain the fluency of my sentences					
Maintain control over writing conventions (punctuation spelling ...)					
Avoid psychological difficulties in writing					
Avoid the linguistic difficulties in writing					
Avoid the cognitive difficulties in writing					
Motivating myself to recognize and manage emotions helps me to:	1	2	3	4	5
Come up with clear ideas to write					
Organize my pieces of writing well					
Select the appropriate words to write					
Demonstrate my tone in the piece of writing					
Maintain the fluency of my sentences					
Maintain control over writing conventions (punctuation spelling ...)					
Avoid psychological difficulties in writing					
Avoid the linguistic difficulties in writing					
Avoid the cognitive difficulties in writing					

Section Six: Students' emotional Intelligence and Speaking Achievement

Please select the number that corresponds to the degree to which you agree with the following statements

1 strongly disagree.....**5** strongly agree

understanding my emotions allows me to:	1	2	3	4	5
Find what to say					
Avoid inhibition					
Avoid using my mother tongue too much					
Create chances for myself to speak					
Speak fluently					
Speak comfortably (make the speaking conditions positive)					
Avoid mistakes of pronunciation and grammar while speaking					
Enhances my listening ability					
Enrich my topical knowledge					
Recognizing what others feel helps me to:	1	2	3	4	5
Find what to say					
Avoid inhibition					
Avoid using my mother tongue					
Create chances for myself to speak					
Speak fluently					

Speak comfortably (make the speaking conditions positive)					
Avoid mistakes of pronunciation and grammar while speaking					
Enhances my listening ability					
Enrich my topical knowledge					
Controlling and managing my emotions allows me to:	1	2	3	4	5
Find what to say					
Avoid inhibition					
Avoid using my mother tongue					
Create chances for myself to speak					
Speak fluently					
Speak comfortably (make the speaking conditions positive)					
Avoid mistakes of pronunciation and grammar while speaking					
Enhances my listening ability					
Enrich my topical knowledge					
Using my emotions to build relationships helps me to:	1	2	3	4	5
Find what to say					
Avoid inhibition					
Avoid using my mother tongue					
Create chances for myself to speak					
Speak fluently					
Speak comfortably (make the speaking conditions positive)					
Avoid mistakes of pronunciation and grammar while speaking					
Enhances my listening ability					

Enrich my topical knowledge					
Motivating myself to recognize and manage emotions helps me to:	1	2	3	4	5
Find what to say					
Avoid inhibition					
Avoid using my mother tongue					
Speak fluently					
Create chances for myself to speak					
Speak comfortably (make the speaking conditions positive)					
Avoid mistakes of pronunciation and grammar while speaking					
Enhances my listening ability					
Enrich my topical knowledge					

Thank you for your cooperation

Appendix C
Questionnaire B

Dear Student,

The present questionnaire is part of a PhD research in the field of Teaching English as a Foreign Language. You are kindly asked to fill in it with the necessary information.

Please mind that your participation is voluntary, anonymous, and utilized for research purposes only.

Section One: Teachers' EI and Learners' Writing Achievement

When my teacher has the capacity of understanding their emotions, this helps me to	1	2	3	4	5
Come up with clear ideas to write					
Organize my pieces of writing well					
Select the appropriate words to write					
Demonstrate my tone in the piece of writing					
Maintain the fluency of my sentences					
Maintain control over writing conventions (punctuation spelling ...)					
Avoid psychological difficulties in writing					
Avoid the linguistic difficulties in writing					
Avoid the cognitive difficulties in writing					
When my teacher has the capacity of understanding others' feelings, this helps me to	1	2	3	4	5

Come up with clear ideas to write					
Organize my pieces of writing well					
Select the appropriate words to write					
Demonstrate my tone in the piece of writing					
Maintain the fluency of my sentences					
Maintain control over writing conventions (punctuation spelling ...)					
Avoid psychological difficulties in writing					
Avoid the linguistic difficulties in writing					
Avoid the cognitive difficulties in writing					
When my teacher has the capacity of controlling and managing emotions, this helps me to	1	2	3	4	5
Come up with clear ideas to write					
Organize my pieces of writing well					
Select the appropriate words to write					
Demonstrate my tone in the piece of writing					
Maintain the fluency of my sentences					
Maintain control over writing conventions (punctuation spelling ...)					
Avoid psychological difficulties in writing					
Avoid the linguistic difficulties in writing					
Avoid the cognitive difficulties in writing					
When my teacher has the capacity to use emotions to build social relationships, this helps me to	1	2	3	4	5
Come up with clear ideas to write					

Organize my pieces of writing well					
Select the appropriate words to write					
Demonstrate my tone in the piece of writing					
Maintain the fluency of my sentences					
Maintain control over writing conventions (punctuation spelling ...)					
Avoid psychological difficulties in writing					
Avoid the linguistic difficulties in writing					
Avoid the cognitive difficulties in writing					
When my teacher has the capacity of motivating themselves to use emotions, this helps me to	1	2	3	4	5
Come up with clear ideas to write					
Organize my pieces of writing well					
Select the appropriate words to write					
Demonstrate my tone in the piece of writing					
Maintain the fluency of my sentences					
Maintain control over writing conventions (punctuation spelling ...)					
Avoid psychological difficulties in writing					
Avoid the linguistic difficulties in writing					
Avoid the cognitive difficulties in writing					

Section Two: Teachers' EI and Learners' Speaking Achievement

When my teacher has the capacity of understanding his emotions, this	1	2	3	4	5
--	---	---	---	---	---

helps me to					
Find what to say					
Avoid inhibition					
Avoid using my mother tongue too much					
Create chances for myself to speak					
Speak fluently					
Speak comfortably (make the speaking conditions positive)					
Avoid mistakes of pronunciation and grammar while speaking					
Enhances my listening ability					
Enrich my topical knowledge					
When my teacher has the capacity of understanding others' feelings, this helps me to	1	2	3	4	5
Find what to say					
Avoid inhibition					
Avoid using my mother tongue					
Create chances for myself to speak					
Speak fluently					
Speak comfortably (make the speaking conditions positive)					
Avoid mistakes of pronunciation and grammar while speaking					
Enhances my listening ability					
Enrich my topical knowledge					
When my teacher has the capacity of controlling and managing emotions, this helps me to	1	2	3	4	5

Find what to say					
Avoid inhibition					
Avoid using my mother tongue					
Create chances for myself to speak					
Speak fluently					
Speak comfortably (make the speaking conditions positive)					
Avoid mistakes of pronunciation and grammar while speaking					
Enhances my listening ability					
Enrich my topical knowledge					
When my teacher has the capacity to use emotions to build social relationships, this helps me to	1	2	3	4	5
Find what to say					
Avoid inhibition					
Avoid using my mother tongue					
Create chances for myself to speak					
Speak fluently					
Speak comfortably (make the speaking conditions positive)					
Avoid mistakes of pronunciation and grammar while speaking					
Enhances my listening ability					
Enrich my topical knowledge					
When my teacher has the capacity of motivating themselves to use emotions, this helps me to	1	2	3	4	5
Find what to say					

Avoid inhibition					
Avoid using my mother tongue					
Speak fluently					
Create chances for myself to speak					
Speak comfortably (make the speaking conditions positive)					
Avoid mistakes of pronunciation and grammar while speaking					
Enhances my listening ability					
Enrich my topical knowledge					

Appendix D

Writing Teachers' Interview

The current interview aims at exploring the viewpoints of the teachers of written expression at the University Centre of Mila as regards the role of emotional intelligence in writing achievement. It targets highlighting the potential role of students' and teachers' competencies of emotional intelligence in students' achievement in writing.

Section One: Background Information

- 1- Which degree do you hold?
- 2- How long have you been teaching at University?

Section Two: Students' EI and writing Achievement

- 1- How do you perceive the significance of emotions in students' achievement in writing?
- 2- To what extent is it important for the students to be able to recognize their and others' emotions to enhance their achievement in writing?
- 3- How do you view the importance of students' capacity to control and manage emotions for developing their writing competence?
- 4- If at all, what are the major aspects of writing that can be affected by students' EI?
- 5- If at all, what are students' difficulties' of writing that can be alleviated through the different EI competencies?

6- How do you perceive the importance of developing EI competencies in students for a better writing achievement?

Section Three: Teachers' EI and Writing Achievement

1- As a teacher of writing, how important is your ability to understand emotions for your students' achievement in writing?

2- In what ways do teachers with high EI differ from those with a low EI in affecting Students achievement in writing?

3- If at all, what aspects of teaching writing are affected by teachers' EI?

4- What are the major components of the writing competence that can be affected by teachers' EI, if at all?

5- To what extent do you believe teachers' EI can help students surmount their difficulties in writing? Please exemplify.

6- Do you believe that EI interventions are necessary for teachers to guarantee a more effective teaching of writing and, in turn, a better achievement on the part of students?

Appendix E

Speaking Teachers' Interview

The current interview aims at exploring the viewpoints of the teachers of speaking at the University Centre of Mila as regards the role of emotional intelligence in speaking achievement. It targets highlighting the potential role of students' and teachers' competencies of emotional intelligence in students' achievement in speaking.

Section One: Background Information

- 1- Which degree do you hold?
- 2- How long have you been teaching at University?

Section Two: Students' EI and Speaking Achievement

- 1- How do you perceive the significance of emotions in students' achievement in speaking?
- 2- To what extent is it important for the students to be able to recognize their and others' emotions to enhance their achievement in speaking?
- 3- How do you view the importance of students' capacity to control and manage emotions for developing their speaking competence?
- 4- If at all, what are the major aspects of speaking that can be affected by students' EI?
- 5- If at all, what are students' difficulties' of speaking that can be alleviated through the different EI competencies?

6- How do you perceive the importance of developing EI competencies in students for a better speaking achievement?

Section Three: Teachers' EI and Speaking Achievement

1- As a teacher of speaking, how important is your ability to understand emotions for your students' achievement in speaking?

2- In what ways do teachers with high EI differ from those with a low EI in affecting Students achievement in speaking?

3- If at all, what aspects of teaching speaking are affected by teachers' EI?

4- What are the major components of the speaking competence that can be affected by teachers' EI, if at all?

5- To what extent do you believe teachers' EI can help students surmount their difficulties in speaking? Please exemplify.

6- Do you believe that EI interventions are necessary for teachers to guarantee a more effective teaching of speaking and, in turn, a better achievement on the part of students?

ملخص:

تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى استكشاف ما إذا كان الذكاء العاطفي للطلاب هو مؤشر على تحقيق المهارات الإنتاجية بين طلاب السنة الثالثة في اللغة الإنجليزية في المركز الجامعي ميلة بالجزائر. كما تهدف إلى كشف مواقف الطلاب وتصورات المعلمين تجاه دور الذكاء العاطفي للطلاب والمعلمين في المساهمة في تحقيق المهارات الإنتاجية. تحقيقا لهذه الغاية ، تم الاعتماد على البحث المندمج المتقارب. وشملت الأدوات الكمية اختبار الانحدار، استبيان الطلاب ' أ ' واستبيان الطلاب ' ب ' و الذين تم إجراؤهم على 117 طالبا ، في حين شملت الأدوات النوعية مقابلة معلمي الكتابة ومقابلة معلمي التحدث مع أحد عشر معلما في كل منهما. لتحليل اختبار الانحدار، تم استعمال الانحدار الخطي البسيط، وكشف أن الذكاء العاطفي للطلاب هو متنبئ مهم لدرجات الكتابة والتحدث. بدورها ، كشفت الإحصاءات الوصفية المستخدمة في تحليل الاستبيانات أن الطلاب لديهم مزيج من المواقف المحايدة والإيجابية تجاه دور الذكاء العاطفي للطلاب والمعلمين في تحقيق المهارات الإنتاجية. أما بالنسبة لتحليل المقابلات ، فقد تم اعتماد تحليل الإطار النوعي. وأشارت النتائج إلى أن معلمي التحدث والكتابة ينظرون إلى الذكاء العاطفي للطلاب على أنه مساهم كبير في تحقيق المهارات الإنتاجية لما له من تأثير إيجابي على الجوانب اللغوية والمعرفية والنفسية والعاطفية للطلاب مما يؤدي إلى الإنجاز. في موازاة ذلك، اعتبر الذكاء العاطفي للمعلمين مهما لتزويد الطلاب بالدعم اللغوي والمعرفي والعاطفي. بناء على ذلك، يجب التأكيد على الذكاء العاطفي في عملية التدريس والتعلم كجزء من كفاءة الطلاب والمعلمين

الكلمات المفتاحية: الذكاء العاطفي ، تحقيق المهارات الإنتاجية ، متنبئ ، المواقف ، التصورات

Résumé:

La présente étude vise à déterminer si l'intelligence émotionnelle des étudiants est un prédicteur de la réalisation des compétences productives chez les étudiants de troisième année d'Anglais au Centre Universitaire de Mila, en Algérie. De plus, il vise à démêler les attitudes des élèves et les perceptions des enseignants à l'égard du rôle de l'intelligence émotionnelle des élèves et des enseignants dans la contribution à l'acquisition de compétences productives. À cette fin, une conception convergente de méthodes mixtes a été adoptée. Les outils quantitatifs comprenaient le test de régression, le questionnaire des élèves " A "et le questionnaire des élèves "B", menés auprès de 117 élèves, tandis que les instruments qualitatifs englobaient l'entretien des enseignants de l'écrit et l'entretien des enseignants de l'oral menés avec onze enseignants dans chacun. Pour analyser le test de régression, une régression linéaire simple a été déployée, et elle a révélé que l'intelligence émotionnelle des élèves est un prédicteur significatif des scores d'écriture et d'expression orale. À leur tour, les statistiques descriptives utilisées pour analyser les questionnaires ont révélé que les élèves avaient une combinaison d'attitudes neutres et positives à l'égard du rôle de l'intelligence émotionnelle des élèves et des enseignants dans la réalisation des compétences productives. En ce qui concerne l'analyse des entretiens, une analyse qualitative du cadre a été adoptée. Les résultats indiquent que les enseignants à l'oral et à l'écrit perçoivent l'intelligence émotionnelle des élèves comme un contributeur important à l'acquisition de compétences productives, car elle a un impact positif sur les aspects linguistiques, cognitifs, psychologiques et affectifs des élèves menant à la réussite. En parallèle' l'intelligence émotionnelle des enseignants est jugée importante pour offrir aux élèves un soutien linguistique, cognitif, relationnel et émotionnel. Sur cette base, il suggéré que l'intelligence émotionnelle devrait être soulignée dans le processus d'enseignement et d'apprentissage dans le cadre des compétences des élèves et des enseignants.

Mots clés: intelligence émotionnelle, acquisition de compétences productives, prédicteur, attitudes, perceptions