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QUALIFICATION PAPER

on the theme: **Extrinsic motivation as the tool for developing speaking skills**

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Content

INTRODUCTION

On December 10, 2012 President of the Republic of Uzbekistan Islam Karimov signed a decree "On measures to further improve foreign language learning system". It is noted [1] that in the framework of the Law of the Republic of Uzbekistan "On education" and the National Programme for Training in the country, a comprehensive foreign languages' teaching system, aimed at creating harmoniously developed, highly educated, modern-thinking young generation, further integration of the country to the world community, has been created. During the years of independence, over 51.7 thousand teachers of foreign languages graduated from universities, English, German and French multimedia tutorials and textbooks for 5-9 grades of secondary schools, electronic resources for learning English in primary schools were created, more than 5000 secondary schools, professional colleges and academic lyceums were equipped with language laboratories.

However, analysis of the current system of organizing language learning shows that learning standards, curricula and textbooks do not fully meet the current requirements, particularly in the use of advanced information and media technologies. Education is mainly conducted in traditional methods. Further development of a continuum of foreign languages learning at all levels of education; improving skills of teachers and provision of modern teaching materials are required.

According to the decree, starting from 2013/2014 school year foreign languages, mainly English, gradually throughout the country will be taught from the first year of schooling in the form of lesson-games and speaking games, continuing to learning the alphabet, reading and spelling in the second year.
Also it is envisaged that university modules, especially in technical and international areas, will be offered in English and other foreign languages at higher education institutions.

The State Testing Centre, along with other relevant agencies, is tasked with preparing draft proposals on introducing foreign languages testing to the entrance examinations for all higher educational institutions.

In order to increase teaching standards in distant rural areas, the higher educational institutions are allowed targeted admission of people living in distant areas to foreign language programs on the condition that they will oblige themselves to work in the acquired specialty at their residence area for at least 5 years after graduation. The decree also envisages 30% salary increase for foreign language teachers in rural areas, 15% increase for those in other areas.

The National Teleradio Company, State Committee for communications, informatisation and telecommunication technologies, Agency for Press and Information of the Republic of Uzbekistan are tasked to prepare and broadcast language-learning programs, significantly increase access to international educational resources via "Ziyonet" educational network, promote publication of foreign language textbooks, magazines and other materials.

As the government pays great attention to the upbringing of a young generation, to the education which should be given to them we also should think of the future of youth. Almost everyone knows someone who overcame early hardships to achieve an impressive level of success in school and later life. Most of us also know young people with great early promise who were lackadaisical students and floundered after leaving school. Often the crucial factor that accounts for cases like these is the students' own motivation to learn. Motivation is a central part of a student's educational experience from preschool onward, but it has received scant attention amid an education reform agenda focused mainly on accountability, standards and tests, teacher quality, and school management. Education reform could benefit from a robust conversation about the overlooked element of student motivation. This qualification paper pulls together findings from a wide array of studies on student motivation by scholars in a range of disciplines, as well as lessons from programs around the country intended to increase motivation. This is not meant to be a comprehensive review of the research or programs on this broad

and complex topic. Rather, it is intended to start a conversation about the importance of motivation and the policies and practices that might better engage students in learning.

In sum, our aim in this work is to revisit the classic distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and detail the conditions that fosters each. Second, we describe a model of differing types of extrinsic motivation. Our concern here is with how teachers, parents and other socializers can lead students to internalize the responsibility and sense of value for extrinsic goals or, alternatively, how they can foster the more typically depicted "alienated" type of extrinsic motivation that is associated with low student persistence, interest, and involvement.

In order to fulfill the aim of the work the paper focuses on the following aspects of student motivation:

1. What is motivation and why does it matter?

2. Can money or other rewards motivate students?

3. Can goals motivate students?

4. What roles do parent involvement, family background, and culture play in student motivation?

5. What can schools do to motivate students?

6. What nontraditional approaches can motivate unenthusiastic students?

We detail in this work not only the different types of motivational orientation that exist within the global extrinsic category, but moreover, their influence for developing students' speaking skills.

Theoretical value of this work is in detailed, structural studying about motivation, its role in learning process and the material can be used by any teacher, it is also useful for trainers on conducting teacher training courses and in compiling methodological handbooks for teachers.

Practical value is contained in a designed way of working with the material and using it further on methodology classes.

Structure of the work. The presented bachelor qualification paper consists of introduction, 2 parts, conclusion and the list of used literature.

CHAPTER I
CONCEPTS ABOUT MOTIVATION

1.1 What is Motivation?

The word motivation refers to getting someone moving. When we motivate ourselves or someone else, we develop incentives or we set up conditions that start or stop behaviour. In education, motivation deals with the problem of setting up conditions so that learners will perform to the best of their abilities in academic settings. We often motivate learners by helping them develop an expectancy that a benefit will occur as a result of their participation in an instructional experience. Motivation is concerned with the factors that stimulate or inhibit the desire to engage in behaviour. Motivation involves the processes that energize, direct and sustain behaviour as shown in figure 1. It can be thought of as an internal process that activates, guides and maintains behaviour overtime.

Figure 1: Internal motivation process

Activation (Enegize)	Guidance (Direct)	Maintenance (Sustain)

'Activation' starts you off, gets you going. 'Guidance' determines what you do, what choices you make and what interests you pursue. While 'maintenance' ensures that this activity continues over time.

According to Krause, K.L, Bochner, S, & Duchesne, S: "The concept of motivation is linked closely to other constructs in education and psychology such as constructs of attention, needs, goals and interests which are all contribute to stimulating students' interest in learning and their intention to engage in particular activities and achieve various goals." [] (Krause, K.L, Bochner, S, & Duchesne, S., 2003)

Baron, 1992 and Schunk, 1990, stated: "The definition of motivation is the force that energizes and directs a behavior towards a goal." [] (Baron, 1992 and Schunk, 1990)

Tan O.S., Parsons, R.D., Hinson, S.L, & Brown, D.S, stated: "The concept of motivation as applied when a person is energized to satisfy some need or desire. The person will engage in, or be attracted toward activities that are perceived as having the potential to meet this need or desire." [] (Tan O.S., Parsons, R.D., Hinson, S.L, & Brown, D.S, 2003)

There are 2 types of motivation. They are extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation.

Intrinsic and extrinsic types of motivation have been widely studied, and the distinction between them has shed important light on both developmental and educational practices. In this work we revisit the classic definitions of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in light of contemporary research and theory. Intrinsic motivation remains an important construct, reflecting the natural human propensity to learn and assimilate. However, extrinsic motivation is argued to vary considerably in its relative autonomy and thus can either reflect external control or true self-regulation.

The relations of both classes of motives to basic human needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness are discussed. To be motivated means *to be moved* to do something. A person who feels no impetus or inspiration to act is thus characterized as unmotivated, whereas someone who is energized or activated toward an end is considered motivated. Most everyone who works or plays with others is, accordingly, concerned with motivation, facing the question of how much motivation those others, or oneself, has for a task, and practitioners of all types face the perennial task of fostering more versus less motivation in those around them. Most theories of motivation reflect these concerns by viewing motivation as a unitary phenomenon, one that varies from very little motivation to act to a great deal of it. Yet, even brief reflection suggests that motivation is hardly a unitary phenomenon. People have not only different amounts, but also different

kinds of motivation. That is, they vary not only in *level* of motivation (i.e., how much motivation), but also in the *orientation* of that motivation (i.e., what type of motivation). Orientation of motivation concerns the underlying attitudes and goals that give rise to action—that is, it concerns the way of actions. As an example, a student can be highly motivated to do homework out of curiosity and interest or, alternatively, because he or she wants to procure the approval of a teacher or parent. A student could be motivated to learn a new set of skills because he or she understands their potential utility or value or because learning the skills will yield a good grade and the privileges a good grade affords. In these examples the amount of motivation does not necessarily vary, but the nature and focus of the motivation being evidenced certainly does.

In Self-Determination Theory [](SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1985) we distinguish between different types of motivation based on the different reasons or goals that give rise to an action. The most basic distinction is between *intrinsic motivation,* which refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable, and *extrinsic motivation,* which refers to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome. Over three decades of research has shown that the quality of experience and performance can be very different when one is behaving for intrinsic versus extrinsic reasons. One purpose of this paper is to revisit this classic distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and to summarize the functional differences of these two general types of motivation.

Intrinsic motivation has emerged as an important phenomena for educators –a natural well spring of learning and achievement that can be systematically catalyzed or undermined by parent and teacher practices [] (Ryan & Stiller, 1991). Because intrinsic motivation results in high-quality learning and creativity, it is especially important to detail the factors and forces that engender versus undermine it.

However, equally important in the current review is the explication of the very different types of motivation that fall into the category of extrinsic motivation. In the classic literature, extrinsic motivation has typically been characterized as a pale

and impoverished (even if powerful) form of motivation that contrasts with intrinsic motivation [] (e.g., deCharms, 1968). However, SDT proposes that there are varied types of extrinsic motivation, some of which do, indeed, represent impoverished forms of motivation and some of which represent active, agentic states.

Students can perform extrinsically motivated actions with resentment, resistance, and disinterest or, alternatively, with an attitude of willingness that reflects an inner acceptance of the value or utility of a task. In the former case - the classic case of extrinsic motivation – one feels externally propelled into action; in the later case, the extrinsic goal is self-endorsed and thus adopted with a sense of volition. Understanding these different types of extrinsic motivation, and what fosters each of them, is an important issue for educators who cannot always rely on intrinsic motivation to foster learning. Frankly speaking, because many of the tasks that educators want their students to perform are not inherently interesting or enjoyable, knowing how to promote more active and volitional (versus passive and controlling) forms of extrinsic motivation becomes an essential strategy for successful teaching.

1.2. INTRINSIC MOTIVATION

Intrinsic motivation is defined as the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfactions rather than for some separable consequence. When intrinsically motivated a person is moved to act for the fun or challenge entailed rather than because of external prods, pressures, or rewards. The phenomenon of intrinsic motivation was first acknowledged within experimental studies of animal behavior, where it was discovered that many organisms engage in exploratory, playful, and curiosity-driven behaviors even in the absence of reinforcement or reward [] White, 1959). These spontaneous behaviors, although clearly bestowing adaptive benefits on the organism, appear not to be done for any such instrumental reason, but rather for the positive experiences associated with exercising and extending ones capacities.

In humans, intrinsic motivation is not the only form of motivation, or even of volitional activity, but it is a pervasive and important one. From birth onward, humans, in their healthiest states, are active, inquisitive, curious, and playful creatures, displaying a ubiquitous readiness to learn and explore, and they do not require extraneous incentives to do so. This natural motivational tendency is a critical element in cognitive, social, and physical development because it is through acting on one's inherent interests that one grows in knowledge and skills. The inclinations to take interest in novelty, to actively assimilate, and to creatively apply our skills is not limited to childhood, but is a significant feature of human nature that affects performance, persistence, and well-being across life's epochs [](Ryan & LaGugrdia, in press).

Although, in one sense, intrinsic motivation exists within individuals, in another sense intrinsic motivation exists in the relation between individuals and activities. People are intrinsically motivated for some activities and not others, and not everyone is intrinsically motivated for any particular task.

Because intrinsic motivation exists in the nexus between a person and a task, some authors have defined intrinsic motivation in terms of the task being interesting while others have defined it in terms of the satisfactions a person gains from intrinsically motivated task engagement. In part, these different definitions derive from the fact that the concept of intrinsic motivation was proposed as a critical reaction to the two behavioral theories that were dominant in empirical psychology from the 1940s to the 1960s.

Specifically, because operant theory [](Skinner, 1953) maintained that all behaviors are motivated by rewards (i.e., by separable consequence such as food or money), intrinsically motivated activities were said to be ones for which the reward was in the activity itself. Thus, researchers investigated what task characteristics make an activity interesting. In contrast, because learning theory [](Hull, 1943) asserted that all behaviors are motivated by physiological drives (and their derivatives), intrinsically motivated activities were said to be ones that provided satisfaction of innate psychological needs. Thus, researchers explored

what basic needs are satisfied by intrinsically motivated behaviors.

Our own approach focuses primarily on psychological needs—namely, the innate needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness—but we of course recognize that basic need satisfaction accrues in part from engaging in interesting activities. Thus, we do sometimes speak of intrinsically interesting activities, but when we do so we are really only talking about tasks that, on average, many people find to be intrinsically interesting. There is considerable practical utility in focusing on task properties and their potential intrinsic interest, as it leads toward improved task design or selection to enhance motivation.

Operational Definitions

Intrinsic motivation has been operationally defined in various ways, although there have been two measures that have been most often used. Basic experimental research [](e.g., Deci, 1971) has rested primarily on a behavioral measure of intrinsic motivation called the ''free choice'' measure. In experiments using this measure participants are exposed to a task under varying conditions (e.g., getting a reward or not). Following this period, the experimenter tells participants they will not be asked to work with the target task any further, and they are then left alone in the experimental room with the target task as well as various distractor activities. They thus have a period of ''free choice'' about whether to return to the activity, and it is assumed that, if there is no extrinsic reason to do the task (e.g., no reward and no approval), then the more time they spend with the target task, the more intrinsically motivated they are for that task. This measure has been the mainstay through which the dynamics of intrinsic motivation have been experimentally studied.

The other common approach to the measurement of intrinsic motivation is the use of self-reports of interest and enjoyment of the activity per se. Experimental studies typically rely on task-specific measures [](e.g. Ryan, 1982; Harackiewicz, 1979). Most field studies have instead used more general, ''domain'' focused measures, such as one's intrinsic motivation for school [](e.g., Harter, 1981).

Facilitating versus Undermining Intrinsic Motivation

Despite the observable evidence that humans are liberally endowed with intrinsic motivational tendencies, this propensity appears to be expressed only under specifiable conditions. Research into intrinsic motivation has thus placed much emphasis on those conditions that elicit, sustain, and enhance this special type of motivation versus those that subdue or diminish it. Self Determination Theory is specifically framed in terms of social and environmental factors that *facilitate* versus *undermine* intrinsic motivation. This language reflects the assumption that intrinsic motivation, being an inherent organismic propensity, is catalyzed (rather than *caused*) when individuals are in conditions that conduce toward its expression.

Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET) was presented by Deci and Ryan (1985) to specify the factors in social contexts that produce variability in intrinsic motivation. CET, which is considered a subtheory of self-determination theory, argues that interpersonal events and structures (e.g., rewards, communications, feedback) that conduce toward *feelings of competence* during action can enhance intrinsic motivation for that action because they allow satisfaction of the basic psychological need for competence. Accordingly, for example, optimal challenges, effectance promoting feedback, and freedom from demeaning evaluations are all predicted to facilitate intrinsic motivation.

CET further specifies that feelings of competence will *not* enhance intrinsic motivation unless they are accompanied by *a sense of autonomy* or, in attributional terms, by an *internal perceived locus of causality* [](IPLOC; deCharms, 1968). Thus, people must not only experience perceived competence (or self-efficacy), they must also experience their behavior to be self determined if intrinsic motivation is to be maintained or enhanced. Stated differently, for a high level of intrinsic motivation people must experience satisfaction of the needs both for competence and autonomy. Much of the research has focused on the effects of immediate contextual conditions that either support or thwart the needs for competence and autonomy, but some has recognized that the supports can, to some extent, come from individuals' abiding inner resources that support their ongoing

feelings of competence and autonomy.

The tenets of CET, with their primary focus on the needs for competence and autonomy, were formulated to integrate a set of results from initial studies of the effects of rewards, feedback, and other external events on intrinsic motivation. Subsequently, they have been confirmed in both laboratory experiments and applied field studies, many of which have been done in classrooms.

Several early studies showed that positive performance feedback enhanced intrinsic motivation [](e.g., Deci, 1971; Harackiewicz, 1979), whereas negative performance feedback diminished it (e.g., Deci & Cascio, 1972). Others [](e.g., Vallerand & Reid, 1984) showed that perceived competence mediated these effects, and still others supported the hypothesis that increases in perceived competence must be accompanied by a sense of autonomy in order for the enhanced feelings of competence to result in increased intrinsic motivation [](Ryan, 1982).

In fact, the majority of the research on the effects of environmental events on intrinsic motivation has focused on the issue of autonomy versus control rather than that of competence. And this issue has been considerably more controversial. The research began with the demonstration that extrinsic rewards can undermine intrinsic motivation [](Deci, 1971; Lepper, Greene, & Nisbett, 1973), which we interpret in terms of the reward shifting people from a more internal to external perceived locus of causality. Although the issue of rewards has been hotly debated, a recent meta-analysis [](Deci, Koes- tner, & Ryan, in press) confirms that virtually every type of expected tangible reward made contingent on task performance does, in fact, undermine intrinsic motivation. Furthermore, not only tangible rewards, but also threats , deadlines, directives, and competition pressure diminish intrinsic motivation because, according to CET, people experience them as controllers of their behavior. On the other hand, choice and the opportunity for self-direction appear to enhance intrinsic motivation, as they afford a greater sense of autonomy.

The significance of autonomy versus control for the maintenance of intrinsic

motivation has been clearly observed in studies of classroom learning. For example, several studies have shown that autonomy-supportive (in contrast to controlling) teachers catalyze in their students greater intrinsic motivation, curiosity, and the desire for challenge [](e.g., Deci, Nezlek, & Shein- man, 1981; Ryan & Grolnick, 1986). Students who are overly controlled not only lose initiative but also learn less well, especially when learning is complex or requires conceptual, creative processing [](Benware & Deci, 1984; Grolnick & Ryan, 1987). Similarly, studies show children of parents who are more autonomy supportive to be more mastery oriented – more likely to spontaneously explore and extend themselves – than children of parents who are more controlling [](Grolnick, Deci, & Ryan, 1997).

To summarize, the CET aspect of SDT suggests that classroom and home environments can facilitate or forestall intrinsic motivation by supporting versus thwarting the needs for autonomy and competence. However, it is critical to remember that intrinsic motivation will occur only for activities that hold intrinsic interest for an individual—those that have the appeal of novelty, challenge, or aesthetic value for that individual. For activities that do not hold such appeal, the principles of CET do not apply. To understand the motivation for activities that are not experienced as inherently interesting, we need to look more deeply into the nature and dynamics of extrinsic motivation.

1.3. EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION

Although intrinsic motivation is clearly an important type of motivation, most of the activities people do are not, strictly speaking, intrinsically motivated. This is especially the case after early childhood, as the freedom to be intrinsically motivated becomes increasingly curtailed by social demands and roles that require individuals to assume responsibility for nonintrinsically interesting tasks. In schools, for example, it appears that intrinsic motivation becomes weaker with each advancing grade.

Extrinsic motivation is a construct that pertains whenever an activity is done in order to attain some separable outcome. Extrinsic motivation thus contrasts with intrinsic motivation, which refers to doing an activity simply for the enjoyment of the activity itself, rather than its instrumental value. However, unlike some perspectives that view extrinsically motivated behavior as invariantly nonautonomous, SDT proposes that extrinsic motivation can vary greatly in the degree to which it is autonomous. For example, a student who does his homework only because he fears parental sanctions for not doing it is extrinsically motivated because he is doing the work in order to attain the separable outcome of avoiding sanctions. Similarly, a student who does the work because she personally believes it is valuable for her chosen career is also extrinsically motivated because she too is doing it for its instrumental value rather than because she finds it interesting. Both examples involve instrumentalities, yet the latter case entails personal endorsement and a feeling of choice, whereas the former involves mere compliance with an external control. Both represent intentional behavior, but the two types of extrinsic motivation vary in their relative autonomy.

Given that many of the educational activities prescribed in schools are not designed to be intrinsically interesting, a central question concerns how to motivate students to value and self-regulate such activities, and without external pressure, to carry them out on their own. This problem is described within SDT in terms of fostering the *internalization and integration* of values and behavioral regulations [] (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Internalization is the process of taking in a value or regulation, and integration is the process by which individuals more fully transform the regulation into their own so that it will emanate from their sense of self. Thought of as a continuum, the concept of internalization describes how one's motivation for behavior can range from amotivation or unwillingness, to passive compliance, to active personal commitment. With increasing internalization (and its associated. sense of personal commitment) come greater persistence, more positive self - perceptions, and better quality of engagement.

Within SDT a second subtheory, referred to as *Organismic Integration Theory*

(OIT), was introduced to detail the different forms of extrinsic motivation and the contextual factors that either promote or hinder internalization and integration of the regulation for these behaviors [](Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Amotivation is the state of lacking an intention to act. When amotivated, a person's behavior lacks intentionality and a sense of personal causation. Amotivation results from not valuing an activity, not feeling competent to do it, or not believing it will yield a desired outcome [](Seligman, 1975). Theorists who have treated motivation as a unitary concept have been concerned only with the distinction between what we call amotivation and motivation.

The category that represents the least autonomous forms of extrinsic motivation is *external regulation.* Such behaviors are performed to satisfy an external demand or obtain an externally imposed reward contingency. Individuals typically experience externally regulated behavior as controlled or alienated, and their actions have an *external perceived locus of causality* [](EPLOC; deCharms, 1968). External regulation is the only kind of motivation recognized by operant theorists [](e.g., Skinner, 1953), and it is this type of extrinsic motivation that was typically contrasted with intrinsic motivation in early lab studies and discussions.

A second type of extrinsic motivation is *introjected regulation.* Introjection describes a type of internal regulation that is still quite controlling because people perform such actions with the feeling of pressure in order to avoid guilt or anxiety or to attain ego-enhancements or pride. Put differently, introjection represents regulation by contingent self-esteem. A classic form of introjection is *ego involvement* [](Nicholls, 1984; Ryan, 1982), in which a person performs an act in order to enhance or maintain self-esteem and the feeling of worth. Although the regulation is internal to the person, introjecten behaviors are not experienced as fully part of the self and thus still have an EPLOC.

A more autonomous, or self-determined, form of extrinsic motivation is regulation through *identification.* Here, the person has identified with the personal importance of a behavior and has thus accepted its regulation as his or her own. A

boy who memorizes spelling lists because he sees it as relevant to writing, which he values as a life goal, has identified with the value of this learning activity.

Finally, the most autonomous form of extrinsic motivation is *integrated regulation.* Integration occurs when identified regulations have been fully assimilated to the self. This occurs through self-examination and bringing new regulations into congruence with one's other values and needs. The more one internalizes the reasons for an action and assimilates them to the self, the more one's extrinsically motivated actions become self-determined. Integrated forms of motivation share many qualities with intrinsic motivation, being both autonomous and unconflicted. However, they are still extrinsic because behavior motivated by integrated regulation is done for its presumed instrumental value with respect to some outcome that is separate from the behavior, even though it is volitional and valued by the self. Intrinsic motivation is a prototype of self-determined activity. Yet, as implied above, this does not mean that as extrinsic regulations become more internalized they are transformed into intrinsic motivation.

The process of internalization is developmentally important, as social values and regulations are continually being internalized over the life span. Still, we do not suggest that the continuum underlying types of extrinsic motivation is a *developmental* continuum, per se. One does not have to progress through each stage of internalization with respect to a particular regulation; indeed, one can initially adopt a new behavioral regulation at any point along this continuum depending upon prior experiences and situational factors. Some behaviors could begin as introjects, others as identifications. A person might originally get exposed to an activity because of an external regulation (e.g., a reward), and (if the reward is not perceived as too controlling) such exposure might allow the person to experience the activity's intrinsically interesting properties, resulting in an orientation shift. Or a person who has identified with the value of an activity might lose that sense of value under a controlling mentor and move ''backward'' into an external regulatory mode. Thus, while there are predictable reasons for movement between orientations, there is no necessary ''sequence.'' Developmental issues are,

however, evident in two ways: (1) the types of behaviors and values that can be assimilated to the self increase with growing cognitive and ego capacities and (2) it appears that people's general regulatory style does, on average, tend to become more ''internal'' over time [](e.g., Chandler & Connell, 1987), in accord with the general organismic tendencies toward autonomy and self-regulation.

Ryan and Connell (1989) tested the formulation that these different types of motivation do indeed lie along a continuum of relative autonomy. They investigated achievement behaviors (e.g., doing homework) among elementary school children, assessing external, introjected, identified, and intrinsic reasons for engaging in these behaviors. They found that the four types of regulation were intercorrelated according to a quasi-simplex (ordered correlation) pattern, thus providing evidence for an underlying continuum of autonomy. Differences in attitudes and adjustment were also associated with the different types of extrinsic motivation. For example, the more students were externally regulated the less they showed interest, value, or effort, and the more they indicated a tendency to blame others, such as the teacher, for negative outcomes. Introjected regulation was positively related to expending effort, but was also related to more anxiety and to poorer coping with failures. Identified regulation was associated with greater enjoyment of school and more positive coping styles. And intrinsic motivation was correlated with interest, enjoyment, felt competence, and positive coping.

Subsequent studies have extended these findings concerning types of extrinsic motivation, showing for example that more autonomous extrinsic motivation is associated with greater engagement, better performance, less dropping out, higher quality learning, and greater psychological well-being, among other outcomes. Greater internalization appears, then, to yield manifold adaptive advantages, including more behavioral effectiveness (due to lessened conflict and greater access to personal resources) and greater experienced well-being. Given the clear significance of internalization for both personal experience and behavioral and performance outcomes, the critical applied issue concerns how to promote the autonomous regulation of extrinsically motivated behaviors.

Because extrinsically motivated behaviors are not inherently interesting and thus must initially be externally prompted, the primary reason people are likely to be willing to do the behaviors is that they are valued by significant others to whom they feel (or would like to feel) connected, whether that be a family, a peer group, or a society. This suggests that the groundwork for facilitating internalization is providing a sense of belongingness and connectedness to the persons, group, or culture disseminating a goal, or what in SDT we call a sense of *relatedness*. In classrooms this means that students' feeling respected and cared for by the teacher is essential for their willingness to accept the proffered classroom values. In support of this, Ryan, Stiller, and Lynch [](1994) found that relatedness to teachers (and parents) was associated with greater internalization of school-related behavioral regulations.

A second issue concerns perceived *competence.* Adopting as one's own an extrinsic goal requires that one feel efficacious with respect to it. Students will more likely adopt and internalize a goal if they understand it and have the relevant skills to succeed at it. Thus, we theorize that supports for competence (e.g., offering optimal challenges and effectance relevant feedback) facilitate internalization.

According to the SDT approach, a regulation that has been internalized may be only introjected, and that type of regulation could well leave people feeling satisfaction of their needs for competence and relatedness. However, to only introject a regulation and thus to be controlled by it will not leave the people feeling self-determined. We therefore suggest that autonomy support also facilitates internalization; in fact, it is the critical element for a regulation being integrated rather than just introjected. Controlling contexts may yield introjected regulation if they support competence and relatedness, but only autonomy supportive contexts will yield integrated self-regulation. To fully internalize a regulation, and thus to become autonomous with respect to it, people must inwardly grasp its meaning and worth. It is these meanings that become internalized and integrated in environments that provide supports for the needs for

competence, relatedness, and autonomy.

Again, research has supported this reasoning. Deci, Eghrari, Patrick, and Leone [](1994) experimentally demonstrated that providing a meaningful rationale for an uninteresting behavior, along with supports for autonomy and relatedness, promoted internalization and integration. Controlling contexts yielded less overall internalization, but even more interesting, the internalization that did occur in controlling contexts tended to be only introjected. In a study involving parent interviews, Grolnick and Ryan [](1989) found higher levels of internalization and integration of school-related values among children whose parents were more supportive of autonomy and relatedness. Williams and Deci [](1996) used a longitudinal design to show greater internalization among medical students whose instructors were more autonomy and competence supportive. These are a few of the findings in this area that suggest how supports for relatedness and competence facilitate internalization and how support for autonomy additionally facilitates the integration of behavioral regulations. When that occurs, people not only feel competent and related, but also self-determined, as they carry out extrinsically valued activities.

CONCLUSION ON CHAPTER I

We have briefly presented self-determination theory in order to make the critical distinction between behaviors that are volitional and accompanied by the experience of freedom and autonomy—those that emanate from one's sense of self—and those that are accompanied by the experience of pressure and control and are not representative of one's self. Intrinsically motivated behaviors, which are performed out of interest and satisfy the innate psychological needs for competence and autonomy are the prototype of self-determined behavior. Extrinsically motivated behaviors - that are executed because they are instrumental to some separable consequence - can vary in the extent to which they represent self-determination. Internalization and integration are the processes through which extrinsically motivated behaviors become more self-determined.

We reviewed studies that have specified the social contextual conditions that support intrinsic motivation and facilitate internalization and integration of extrinsically motivated tasks. The studies have been interpreted in terms of the basic psychological needs. That is, we saw that social contextual conditions that support one's feelings of competence, autonomy, and relatedness are the basis for one maintaining intrinsic motivation and becoming more self-determined with respect to extrinsic motivation. We pointed out that in schools, the facilitation of more self-determined learning requires classroom conditions that allow satisfaction of these three basic human needs - that is that support the innate needs to feel connected, effective, and agentic as one is exposed to new ideas and exercises new skills.

CHAPTER II
ROLE OF MOTIVATION IN ENCOURAGING SPEAKING

2.1. Analysis of teachers and learners attitude to motivation

The research on the problem was conducted beginning November 2014. We looked through the literature, reviewed scholars' opinions on the role of motivation in learning classes, collected data from a great number of school, lyceum, college and university and institute teachers and learners about their attitude to motivation and motivated and unmotivated learners in their classes. Data collecting was done with questionnaires to both teachers and learners, we also discussed with the teachers during breaks, chay-chats, after-class discussions. We are grateful to those teachers who were eager to share their opinions, life experience, work experience in order to help us clarify some points, solve some problems and clear out some data concerning to the problem. We should admit that we faced a great deal of challenges while compiling the necessary material. Most of our teachers do not know the importance of motivation, some of them never think of it before, some do not want to spend time and effort to it, some just think it is useless. During data collection period we tried to find answers to the questions which can give us some ideas about teachers and learners attitude towards motivation. Our questionnaires have the following format.

Quessionnaire for teachers

Name _____ Work place _____ work experience _____

1. Are there any learners who do not speak in your class? If yes, how can you involve such kind of students?
    _____

2. What is motivation for you?
    _____

3. Which type of motivation do you think more powerful? And why?

- Extrinsic
- Intrinsic

_____

4. Can you give examples for extrinsic motivation?

_____

5. Have you ever used extrinsic motivation in your classroom? If yes, what was the result?

_____

6. What do you think, is the role of extrinsic motivation in developing learners speaking?

_____

7. Which extrinsic rewards are more effective? Why?

- Money
- Prizes
- Grades
- Positive feedback

8. What kind of tasks do you usually organize to motivate your learners to speak?

_____

Quessionnaire for learners

Name_____Age_____ Place of study_____ Branch of study_____

1. Are you interested in learning English? Why?

_____

2. What kind of situations make you be more active and speak?

_____

3. Can you describe one of your lessons which you were so motivated and enjoyed participating the activity?

_____

- What do you think, what made you be motivated?

_____

4. What do you think what kind of tasks involve all students to the lesson?

_____

5. If you have a chance to change the English lessons, how would you do it? Please give your ideas with examples?

_____

6. What do you expect from teacher to take after each lesson or activity? Why?

_____

7. What kinds of rewards encourage you to read a text or involve into lesson? Why?
    - Money
    - Prize
    - Grade
    - Positive feedback

_____

8. What is your role in pair and group works? Why?
    - Leader
    - Not so active
    - Mostly keep silence

_____

Analysing the answers to quessionnaires and conversations we gathered ideas about the attitude to motivation among karakalpak teachers and learners and in common they look like the following.

Most of teachers know what motivation is and why does it matter. From their point of view motivation can affect how students approach school in general, how they relate to teachers, how much time and effort they devote to their studies,

how much support they seek when they're struggling, how they perform on tests, and many other aspects of education. If students aren't motivated, it is difficult, sometimes either impossible, to improve their academic achievement, no matter how good the teacher, curriculum or school is. Moreover, unmotivated students can disengage other students from academics, which can affect the environment of an entire classroom or school. Higher motivation to learn has been linked not only to better academic performance, but to greater conceptual understanding, satisfaction with school, self-esteem, social adjustment, and school completion rates.

Teachers say that motivation often declines as students progress from elementary through high school. Upwards of 40% of high school students are disengaged from learning, are inattentive, exert little effort on school work, and report being bored in school. The lack of motivation has serious consequences. For example, unmotivated students can drop out of school.

70% of teachers recognize two major types of motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic. *Intrinsic* motivation is the desire to do or achieve something because one truly wants to and takes pleasure or sees value in doing so. *Extrinsic* motivation is the desire to do or achieve something not so much for the enjoyment of the activity itself, but because it will produce a certain result. The difference between the two is more like a spectrum than a divide; any action can be motivated by a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic factors, and the same person may be motivated differently in different contexts.

Students' beliefs can affect their motivation. For example, students who believe they have a limited capacity to learn or feel they are unlikely to succeed often have problems with motivation. In a similar vein, students who conceptualize intelligence as a fixed quantity that one either has or doesn't have tend to be less motivated than students who view knowledge as something that can change and grow.

Most of teachers suggest major dimensions that contribute to student motivation, and we divided them into four types. At least one of these

dimensions must be satisfied for a student to be motivated. The more dimensions that are met, and the more strongly they are met, the greater the motivation will be.

- Competence — The student believes he or she has the ability to complete the task.

- Control/autonomy — The student feels in control by seeing a direct link between his or her actions and an outcome and retains autonomy by having some choice about whether or how to undertake the task.

   - Interest/value — The student has some interest in the task or sees the value of completing it.

- Relatedness — Completing the task brings the student social rewards, such as a sense of belonging to a classroom or other desired social group or approval from a person of social importance to the student.

The interplay of these dimensions along with other dynamics such as school climate and home environment is quite complex and varies not only among different students but also within the same student in different situations. Still, this basic framework can be helpful in designing or analyzing the impact of various strategies to increase students' motivation.

Some teachers and learners shared us with their finding concerning the rewards. They learned that schools and districts of the world have sought to motivate students to work harder by providing them with money or other rewards. Examples include programs that give cash to students for earning good grades, reading books, attending after-school study sessions, demonstrating good attendance and behavior, or attaining a passing score or higher score on an important exam. Examples of non-cash rewards include giving cellphones and phone minutes to students for good behavior, test scores, attendance, or homework completion; giving pizza coupons to students who make good grades; or awarding students who make the honor roll with certificates they can use for special privileges like an early release from school. Teachers think that the concept of providing rewards as motivation is controversial, and the results are mixed, or in

some cases unevaluated. Some teachers point out that rewards may be the only way to motivate students to apply themselves to tasks that have no value to them, such as taking tests that have no consequences for students but are important for their school. Many opponents, for their part, contend that rewarding students for desirable behavior runs counter to the true goal of education, which should be to develop students' curiosity and intrinsic love of learning. Some argue that when the reward program ends, students no longer have a reason to continue their behavior. Rewarding performance is unfair, some opponents say, because students who are naturally talented will easily earn rewards, while less talented students may try hard but still not qualify for a reward. Some teachers also point to evidence suggesting that extrinsic rewards can encourage a compliance mentality and decrease intrinsic motivation.

On the whole, teachers think that reward programs can have positive effects if they are implemented thoughtfully, carefully, and within a set of guidelines, and if they address the four dimensions of motivation mentioned above. Rewarding specific actions that students can control, such as completing homework, yields better results than rewarding accomplishments that may seem beyond their reach or out of their control. Rewards that are too large can be counterproductive because students may feel pressured into taking part.

At the same time, poorly designed reward programs can actually decrease motivation if they are targeted at the wrong students, do not build on the four dimensions of motivation, or are implemented ineffectively.

Teachers suggest to put goals in order to motivate students. Students who are not motivated by love of learning alone may do better in school if they can see learning as a gateway to something else they value. Goals can help motivate students to work harder if certain conditions are present. The goal should be realistic, achievable, and education - dependent. The goal should be suggested, or at least embraced, by the student, and the student must be able to see a clear path for attaining the goal. It also helps if the goal is supported by people important to the student. Mastery-based goals, which involve demonstrating increased under-

standing, skills, and content knowledge, are preferable to performance-based goals, which involve reaching a pre-defined level of performance or outperforming others. Goals can actually undermine motivation, however, if they are too difficult, or if students feel that a goal has been imposed on them or that failing to meet it would have dire consequences. Two common goals in education - passing exams and getting into higher educational establishments provide a useful lens for motivation. Most assessments appeal to students' extrinsic rather than intrinsic motivation. Some assessments provide direct extrinsic goals for students, such as passing a course. Other assessments, particularly those used for school accountability, provide extrinsic goals for teachers and administrators, who may pass along the pressure of these goals to students. There are high-stakes and low-stakes assessments, as well as classroom and external assessments, that together comprise a continuum of motivation. Assessments with high stakes for students from a classroom test that counts for a major portion of a course grade to an external state exit exam that students must pass to graduate from high school are generally considered more motivating than those with low stakes or no stakes, but this is not always clear-cut. While high-stakes assessments do spur some students to work harder, they can have a negative effect on the motivation of other students by evoking anxiety, frustration, or fear of failure. And while some instructional practices used to prepare students for high-stakes external assessments, such as providing extra help for low-achieving students, would generally be considered positive, other types could decrease students' interest and motivation. More frequent assessments that start with easier goals and gradually increase in difficulty can build students' competence and sense of control, as can opportunities for students to demonstrate their knowledge with performance tasks or low-stakes tests before taking an assessment that counts.

Analysing ideas and suggestions of teachers and learners we came to the conclusion that parents, family background, and culture also play role in student motivation. Many answers have documented the strong relationship between family background factors, such as income and parents' educational levels, and

student achievement, and the positive impact of parent involvement on achievement. Parents who are actively involved in their children's education and provide a stimulating learning environment at home can help their children develop feelings of competence, control, curiosity, and positive attitudes about academics, according to various studies. Reading to children, talking with children about what they read, interacting with children about academics, and celebrating moments of intellectual discovery are among the activities that promote achievement and motivation. Parents' beliefs and expectations also appear to strongly influence children's motivation. For example, parents who hold high expectations for their children's learning, believe in their children's competence, expose them to new experiences, and encourage curiosity, persistence, and problem-solving can help their children develop an intrinsic motivation to learn.

By contrast, parents who are controlling, use rewards and punishments for academic performance, or display negativity or anger about academics can discourage children from developing intrinsic motivation. Some parental actions, such as praising children's intelligence rather than their mastery of knowledge and skills, can send a message that intelligence is a fixed attribute - a belief that can lead children to avoid challenges or fear failure. Creating a home environment that nurtures motivation involves effort for any parent, but it can be especially problematic for socioeconomically disadvantaged families those with limited financial resources, low educational levels, single-parent homes, and other stresses. Although the causes of gaps in achievement or soft skills are not fully understood, some teachers have suggested that differences in parenting practices and social context are contributing factors. Children born into socioeconomically disadvantaged circumstances, particularly single-parent homes, are less likely to have the opportunity to benefit from the kinds of parental attention, activities, and resources that stimulate these skills (McLanahan, 2004). In other words, children from disadvantaged families tend to have fewer opportunities at home that foster competence, encourage them to find interest or see value in learning, promote

autonomous learning, or develop social relationships that support and value achievement.

Some group of learners and teachers believe that schools play an important role in boosting student motivation by picking up where parents leave off or stepping in when parents are unable or reluctant to be actively involved. Various elements of schooling, from teachers' interactions with students to school organization, can have an impact on student motivation.

Most learners recognize that teachers can influence students' motivation through their teaching styles, classroom management, interactions with students, and expectations and beliefs. These programs typically provide professional development to help teachers understand and use effective strategies to motivate students. From their suggestions and ideas we have identified several strategies and mindsets of teachers that can positively affect student motivation, such as the following examples:

- Teachers can increase motivation by encouraging students to do their best, setting high expectations, allowing students some choice where possible, and using lessons that involve higher-order thinking, collaboration, and student participation, among other strategies.
- Teachers who are most effective at diagnosing and improving student motivation tend to focus on interpersonal dealings with students, link education with things students value, and encourage autonomy more than control in their classrooms.
- Students are more motivated by teachers whom they perceive as caring.
- Students are more engaged, perform better, and have higher self-confidence when their teachers emphasize student mastery over grades and performance and encourage students to take on challenges.
- Teachers can also increase student motivation by reaching out to parents and encouraging their involvement in their children's education.

Learners also mentioned about nontraditional approaches that can motivate unenthusiastic students. Because some students who can't seem to focus on

academics can spend hours outside of school on tasks they find engaging, be it video games, art, car repair, or extracurricular activities. Districts, schools, and communities should try a variety of creative approaches ranging from integrating community service with academics to incorporating social media into classrooms - to spark an interest in learning among students who don't respond to more traditional strategies. We should find ways of increasing motivation for a generation of students who have grown up teaching themselves to communicate online, surf the Web, write blogs, or edit photos. Some characteristics of technology make it especially motivating. For example, Video games can build a mastery-based mindset by gradually increasing the level of challenge, helping students visualize complex concepts, and giving students frequent positive feedback. Interactive and social media technology can stimulate the interest of bored students and the participation of shy students. Web-based instruction can motivate students by creating more opportunities for active choice and collaboration. Educators around the country are incorporating technology into their teaching and a myriad of ways. Examples include using video games to reinforce concepts in math and science or incorporating Twitter into a real-time discussion board during class.

Analysis of data collection gave us opportunity to make some conclusions about developing learners motivation. We learned that student motivation is not a fixed quality but is something that can be influenced in positive or negative ways by schools, parents, and communities and by individuals' own experiences. Research offers ideas on how and why students are motivated and what types of policies and practices hold promise for improving motivation. No single strategy will work to motivate all students. Motivation varies, not only among students but also within the same student depending on the task and context. Motivating students often requires a combination of strategies that address the specific reasons why a student has become disengaged from school. Strategies to improve motivation should be implemented carefully and thoughtfully. Effective strategies address some or all of the four dimensions of motivation, including competence, control/autonomy,

interest/value, and relatedness. Strategies that reward students' mastery and growth appear to be more motivating than those that emphasize the attainment of a specific performance level. Similarly, strategies that encourage perseverance, hard work, exploration, and creativity and that reward behavior within the student's control appear to be more motivating than those that reward talent and intelligence or impose goals that students have not embraced. Improving student motivation cannot be accomplished by schools alone. Efforts to develop motivation should begin early and address social factors that can gap motivation. Partnerships among schools, families, and communities can be effective in creating the conditions that develop and support motivation in children.

2.2. Encouraging students to speak

Before we go on the ways of encouraging speaking, we'd like to say that all we are doing in our language learning classes is to make learners speak, to communicate. In English classes this means to understand others and to make yourself understandable to them. These sound like the obvious goals of every language learner., but I think these simple goals need to be emphasized, because learners too often get diverted from them and fall into more of a struggle with the mechanics of grammar and pronunciation that they should. Learners can become timid about using what they know for fear of making horrible mistakes with what they don't know. All the attention paid to the mechanics of communication sometimes gets in the way of communication itself.

In the early lessons of many language courses, students are encouraged to concentrate heavily upon pronunciation and grammar, while vocabulary is introduced only very slowly. The idea seems to be that even if one has very little to say, that little bit should be said correctly. Students can worry a great deal about the machinery of language, but they worry rather little about real communicating much of anything. Under such circumstances, learners have to think about an awful lot of things in order to construct even a simple sentence. They are supposed to

force their mouths to produce sounds that seem ridiculous. They have to grope desperately for words that they barely know. They have to perform mental gymnastic trying to remember bizarre grammatical rules. All these challenges are a fatal distraction from what skillful speakers worry about the message that they want to convey. If early learners have to worry about getting everything correct, they cannot hope to do anything very interesting. They simply cannot do everything at once and emerge with any real sense of success.

Furthermore, learning a foreign language is not just a matter of memorising a simple set of names for the things around us; it is also an educational experience. Since our language is closely linked with our personality and culture, why not use the process of acquiring a new language to gain further insights into our personality and culture? This does not mean that students of a foreign language should submit to psychological exercises or probing interviews, but simply that, for example, learning to talk about their likes and dislikes and bring about a greater awareness of their values and aims in life. Many of the activities are concerned with the learners themselves. For learners who are studying English in a non-English-speaking setting it is very important to experience real communicative situation in which they learn to express their own views and attitudes, and in which they are taken seriously as people.

Today most of teachers and also learners understand that they should develop their speaking skills during language learning. Communication is the main goal of learning languages. We all know that sometimes real communicative situations develop spontaneously, as in exchanging comments on last night' s TV programme or introduction someone' s new haircut. The majority of ordinary language teaching situations before reaching an advanced level, however, are geared towards language-oriented communication or what Rivers calls 'skill-getting': they make use of the foreign language mainly in structural exercises and predetermined responses by the learners. Since foreign language teaching should help students achieve some kind of communicative skill in the foreign language, àll

situations in which real communication occurs naturally have to be taken advantage of and many more suitable ones have to be created.

Two devices help the teacher in making up communicative activities: information gap and opinion gap. Information-gap exercises force the participants to exchange information in order to find a solution (e.g. reconstitute a text, solve a puzzle, write a summary). Problem-solving activities. Opinion gaps are created by exercise or program controversial texts or ideas, which require the participants to describe and perhaps defend their views on these ideas. Another type of opinion-gap activity can be organised by letting the participants share their feelings about an experience they have in common. As applying the principles of information gap and opinion gap to suitable traditional exercises the teacher can change them into more challenging communicative situations. Thus the well-known procedure at beginner's level of having students describe each other's appearance is transformed into a communicative activity as soon as an element of guessing (information gap) is introduced. Information and opinion-gap exercises have some content worth talking about. Students do not want to discuss trivia; the interest which is aroused by the structure of the activity may be reduced or increased by the topic.

Many of the activities are concerned with the learners themselves. Their feelings and ideas are the focal point of these exercises, around which a lot of their foreign language activity revolves. For learners who are studying English in a non-English-speaking setting it is very important to experience real communicative situation in which they learn to express their own views and attitudes, and in which they are taken seriously as people. Traditional textbook exercises — however necessary and useful they may be for all- communicative grammar practice — do not as a rule forge a link between the learners and the foreign language in such a way that the learners identify with it. Meaningful activities on a personal level can be a step towards this identification, which improves performance and generates interest. And, of course, talking about something which affects them personally is eminently motivating for students.

Learning is very effective if the learners are actively involved in the process. The degree of learner activity depends, among other things, on the type of material they are working on. The students' curiosity can be aroused by texts or pictures containing discrepancies or mistakes, or by missing or muddled information, and this curiosity leads to the wish to find out, to put right or to complete. Learner activity in a more literal sense of the word can also imply doing and making things; for example, producing a radio programme forces the students to read, write and talk in the foreign language as well as letting them learn with tape recorders, sound effects and music. Setting up an opinion poll in the classroom is a second, less ambitious vehicle for active learner participation; it makes students interview each other, it literally gets them out of their seats and — this is very important — it culminates in a final product which everybody has helped to produce.

Activities for practising a foreign language have left the narrow path of purely structural and lexical training and have expanded into the fields of values education and personality building. It seems important to provide at least a few instances focusing on the sharing ideas, jigsaw tasks, in particular, demonstrate to the learners that cooperation is necessary.

In speaking classes, the teacher should be careful not to correct students' errors too frequently. Being interrupted and corrected makes the students hesitant and insecure in their speech when they should really be practising communication. It seems far better for the teacher to use the activities for observation and co help only when help is demanded by the students themselves; even then they should be encouraged to overcome their difficulties by finding alternative ways of expressing what they want to say. There is a list of speech acts which may be needed for the activities and the relevant section may be duplicated and given as handouts to help the students.

Many of the activities should be focused on the individual learner. Students are asked to tell the others about their feelings, likes or dislikes. They are also asked to judge their own feelings and let themselves be interviewed by others. Speaking about oneself is not something that everyone does with ease. It becomes

impossible, even for the most extrovert person, if the atmosphere in the group is hostile and the learner concerned is afraid of being ridiculed or mocked. The first essential requirement for the use of learner-centered activities is a relaxed and friendly atmosphere in the group. Only then can the aims of these activities be achieved: cooperation and the growth of understanding.

Groups or classes that have just been formed or are being taught by a new teacher may not develop this pleasant kind of group feeling immediately. In that case activities dealing with very personal topics should be avoided. The teacher may stimulate a good atmosphere by introducing both warming-up exercises and jigsaw tasks. Even in a class where the students know each other well, certain activities may take on threatening features for individual students. In order to avoid any kind of embarrassment or ill feeling, the teacher should say that anyone may refuse to answer a personal question without having to give any reason or explanation. The class have co accept this refusal without discussion or comment.

Speaking-based classes seem to provide incredible scope for both truly great and truly awful classroom experiences. Most problems with speaking-fluency lessons come down to two questions: Are there any topics that are consistently successful, and how can teacher identify and control the other variables in play?

While a stimulating *topic* is usually crucial, two other indispensable ingredients are also involved: some form of *task* to complete, and the necessary language (or *tools*) to do so. These three factors work together in different proportions in all successful speaking exercises - sometimes the topic will dominate to the extent that the others can take a much lesser role, sometimes the emphasis may be rigidly on the task and sometimes the discussion may rest on a specific 'tool' (for example, a grammar point.) However, if anybody in the class feels unsure about any of the 'three Ts', of *Topic, Task* and *Tools*, they are very unlikely to make a meaningful contribution. Recognizing this has major implications for both planning and teaching speaking exercises.

Finding good topics

Every class, of course, is different. In *Learning Teaching* (2005), Jim Scrivener provides a list of interesting topics (p.402) and others are widely available. While suggesting more ideas here would add little in terms of methodology, here are a few things to think about when deciding on a topic:

- Is it something that everybody in the class can relate to, to some extent? Things like politics or music, while often successful, can isolate the less interested or knowledgeable.

- Are the students capable of dealing with the subject on a meaningful level, or is their English too much of a handicap?

- Is it something they might have talked, read or thought about much before? For example, something like the environment can provide useful material but is unlikely to stimulate much discussion if students are simply regurgitating clichéd arguments translated from their own language.

- How would you feel talking about the same thing in front of other people? Maybe a shy student would be more comfortable with a light-hearted discussion on national stereotypes or differences between generations than one on the death penalty or abortion laws.

In a class where the objective is spoken fluency, good discussion material is everywhere. Outside of the specialized books the media is filled with potential topics depending on the age, level and interests of the group. Finally, here are a few ideas for topics that often draw contributions from otherwise unresponsive students:

- All the above criteria are met when learners talk about themselves. There are many ways to present this.

- A similar idea is to ask students to choose their own 'specialized subjects' and take five minutes each answering questions from the rest of the group / a small group about them. As an example, we might say *surfing* and encourage questions like, *When did you start surfing? How often do you go?* or even *Is there a world surfing champion? What's his name?*

- Most people have a pet hate. In pairs, the class has time to prepare arguments as to why the world would be better without two or three things they hate. Each pair gives a presentation and the rest of the class then votes on whether their choice is good or not. With this activity, it is important that the nominations aren't too serious, and that you give a couple of good examples.

Another possibility is to hand over some control to the students by suggesting a list of possible discussion topics at the end of a class and asking them to decide which they would prefer to talk about the following week.

Ideas for speaking tasks

As we have seen, choosing a good topic is important, but far from the only consideration. While a few people are very happy to speak for the sake of speaking, many have a diametrically opposed attitude. It is much more common to be motivated by the desire to complete a task, as much in speaking as reading or listening exercises. This is a key point in the communicative methodology, and if answers like *I don't know; Yes, I do;* or *No, I won't* are common, it is often the task that can most easily be changed to give positive results.

Here are some ideas for setting up speaking tasks:

- If sections of your class are unresponsive during free speaking activities, it may be that a lack of structure is undermining their confidence. Controlled communicative activities often give good results. These work partly because they take the focus away from English production, allowing students to use their knowledge to achieve an objective. They are usually based around small groups, which also benefits less confident learners.

- The following activities still focus on task completion but with a greater emphasis on fluency. They could be called 'semi-controlled':

1. Take 'crime' as a topic. The Internet is full of anecdotes about 'dumb criminals' being arrested in amusing situations, which provide a more light-hearted speaking class, as suggested above. The first step could be to make role cards based on various stories. To give a task focus, each student could then write the headings *Name / Crime / How Caught / Stupidity Rating 1-5*, then, taking a role,

mingle and fill in this information for everybody they speak to within a set time limit. Here the learners are speaking with an attainable objective, which also involves some input of their own opinion. Similar mingle exercises with information sharing can be found in many books or designed from scratch.

2. A well-known task is to rank options in order of preference. This can be done with any number of topics and often with little preparation time. A 'pyramid' discussion is a way to organize this type of exercise to encourage full participation, where students start off discussing in pairs, then join with another pair after a set amount of time, until finally the whole group is involved in one discussion. Example themes for this type of activity are 'the three greatest inventions of all time', 'three people who have changed the world', 'how to spend £100,000 improving this city'.

3. Many resource books feature simple board games which involve throwing a dice and moving a counter, with the objective of finishing first. Each square features a different topic to speak about for one minute. It is well worth making a blank board template so that you can adapt the topics to your own groups.

- Role-plays can also encourage students to contribute. A classic role-play supported by a clear task is the 'alibi' model. For a wider topic like the environment, you might split the class into councillors, green activists and property developers and build up to a final debate and decision.

- The final two tasks below encourage free production of language. Still, it remains important that a focus is provided to shape the discussion and make sure everybody has a chance to speak.

1. Taking minutes: Split a group into teams and asked them to debate a complete ban on smoking. Divide the board into 'For and Against,' bring two students up to the front and give them a pen. Their role is to note relevant arguments on each side as they are mentioned and decide on a winner. They explain their choice when the debate ends.

2. The spoon: Bring a spoon to the class, and during debates only allow the person holding it to speak, for up to one minute. At the end of his time or

contribution, those students who would like to respond put their hands up. Give the spoon to one, allow her a minute to speak, and so on. This is not a task as such, but it gives less confident students time to formulate their ideas, and the platform to contribute when they are ready.

3. **Providing the tools**

It is quite possible and often necessary for learners to use idioms, functions and vocabulary in a supportive English classroom that they hesitate to use in their first language. Equip learners with the necessary tools to turn some of the above ideas into successful speaking lessons, through language input and by turning the students on to the subject. In an ideal lesson, the students should be more than ready to speak by the time the teacher asks them to.

- The language input is very much specific to the exercise or discussion. A general tip is to make sure that the essential grammar, vocabulary or example questions are on the board following the presentation stage so that the focus doesn't return to the teacher during the activity itself. For example, using the *Past, Present, Future* idea mentioned above, I would always write *What happened in…? Who / what was…? Why is… important? Why / when would you like to…?* on the board while eliciting and answering these questions.

- During a livelier debate a way to give people the tools to speak (and use the target language) is to prepare various cards saying *I absolutely agree*, *I'm not so sure*, *I really don't think so,* etc. for each student or team. A point is earned for playing a card and backing it up with a relevant argument.

- Finally, one of the most important steps to a good speaking class is to activate the students' interest in the topic and get them thinking about it. This might mean anything from a five minute warmer to a long reading or listening exercise. There are almost as many possibilities as there are topics, but here are a few ideas:

1. Pictures, especially photos, often generate hundreds of ideas with very little input from the teacher. For example, the 'task' section talked about a debate on the environment. To introduce this, copy of two photos for each pair of students, one of a water park and one of a fishing village. The first task is simply to think of five

adjectives for each. Next, a situation is introduced where the village council is going bankrupt and a big water park developer has put in a proposal to build there. The group is split into developers and traditional fishing families (who each have ten minutes to write a presentation and objections to the other team) and councillors (who spend the ten minutes writing questions for both teams.) In this example, the pictures have served the dual purpose of 'activating the schemata' of the students by bringing the situation to life, and of showing the teacher who would suit which role in the final exercise (a student who gives the adjectives 'noisy, smelly and tacky' for the park may not be best for the role of developer.)

2.   Realia works in a similar way to pictures. One idea is to bring a number of random objects to the lesson (a coat hanger, a stapler, a pair of glasses, a guitar string…) and give the class one minute to look at them. Afterwards, cover them up and allow one minute to remember what was there. Explain that the students are on a sinking ship, and the things that they remember are the things that will be washed up on a desert island with them. This leads on to two discussions: The first is the best way to use the objects for survival (another good pyramid-style exercise) and second, in pairs, a conversation based around Radio 4's Desert Island Discs, where guests can nominate a book, a record, a person and one or two luxury items to take to a desert island, and explain why.

For the above discussion on stupid criminals, pairs or small groups could rank a list of crimes in order of seriousness, or for the 'people who have changed the world' discussion, you could play twenty questions with a hero of your own. Even if it's as simple as a brainstorm on the board, it's crucial that the warmer is lively, involves everybody and pre-empts any serious vocabulary problems that may occur later.

2.3. How to motivate students to speak English

During my pedagogical practice I have met an experienced teacher who has four lyceum classes of unmotivated to semi-motivated students. On average, I

would say the students speak about 80-85% English. Recently there have been days when the students speak almost all English. These classes have been studying for about two years now, and their teacher remembered that during their first year the students were generally unmotivated and spoke only about 40% in English.

What follows are some techniques that this teacher has found to be successful in getting students to speak mostly in English. I wanted to write about this teacher's experience, because I think they are helpful for others too. Here are suggestions from the teacher:

Establish your goal from Day 1.

On the first day of class make your expectations clear to your students. It's a good idea at this point to contrast the nine years of secondary school (non-communicative) English classes that they have experienced with what you expect of them. Have your students make a pact with both you and themselves. The students read the promises and you elaborate on each a bit. Next, the students sign their names in agreement.

My Promises

I promise to try to speak as much as possible.

I promise not to be afraid of making mistakes.

I promise not to speak any karakalpak.

I promise to use English to communicate.

I promise to ask questions when I do not understand.

I promise to try to have fun.

You can go back to these promises from time to time throughout the course as necessary.

2. Learn your students' names.

You will not be able to control your class well if you don't know your students' names. If a student is speaking in karakalpak you need to be able to quickly say, "Julduz, are you speaking English?" This should not be said in an angry tone, but rather in a friendly, almost joking tone. We cannot overemphasize how important it

is to learn your students' names. Make it your first priority, and usually commit all your students' names to memory by the third class.

3. Teach Classroom English early on.

In the second or third lesson students should be taught useful classroom English. The students should thoroughly memorize and practice using these expressions. It is essential that you explain that these expressions are not just for use with the teacher, but for use with each other as well. Some examples of useful classroom English are:

Do you have a partner?

Let's be partners.

How do you spell...?

What does ... mean?

4. Start (almost) every class with free conversation.

If I had to choose one technique that is the most effective for getting students motivated and speaking in English this would definitely be my choice. Have the students sit facing a partner and tell them they have to talk on a topic for a set time. They absolutely must not speak any karakalpak during this time! Possible topics are yesterday, TV, movies, sports, etc. I usually do this for 2-3 minutes at the beginning of a course and build up to 10-15 minutes by the end. Over the past few years I have noticed that whenever I fail to have the students do free conversation at the beginning of class, they often speak much more karakalpak and the class generally is not as successful. Free conversation works because it warms the students up, and it gives them the sense that English can be used for real communication.

5. Explain that real communication opportunities arise after they say "finish".

After finishing a set task the teacher has given, and while waiting for the other groups to finish, students will invariably say "finish" and proceed to speak in

karakalpak with their partner. The goal should be for students to speak to each other in English between activities as well as during them.

6. Arrange the classroom so that students are sitting in rows facing each other.

As with free conversation, I have noticed whenever I fail to arrange the chairs in this fashion the students have been much more reticent to speak out. Ideally, there will be no desks or barriers between the students, only chairs in two rows facing each other. There is something magical about this arrangement that gets the students talking. It may work because the students are out in the open and have nowhere to hide and so feel obliged to speak only English. Also, sitting face to face affords direct eye contact which somehow improves communication in English.

Another advantage of this arrangement is that it allows for a very easy and fair way to change partners. Students simply stand up and move in a clockwise direction a set number of chairs and end up sitting across from a new partner.

7. Do the "Speaking Marathon" at least twice during your course.

I usually do the speaking marathon in the fourth or fifth lesson and after that once or twice more as needed. Work with a partner. You can talk about anything you like with your partner, but you can't stop talking! If you stop for more than 3 seconds, your team is out! Also, if you speak any karakalpak your team is out! Which team can keep talking the longest?!

I tell the students they can say anything when they can't think of what to say, but they must fill in the silence. They can say "umm...", "Let's see...", "chicken", "kitchen", and so on. Amazingly, students usually pause very little, and I have often had groups go on for 20-30 minutes without pausing for more than three seconds. During this activity you must act as a "policeman" and go from group to group counting off three seconds and noting when a group has spoken karakalpak or has stopped for more than three seconds. However, it's best if you don't tell a group when they are out so that everyone continues speaking for as long as possible. There is simply no better way to build students' speaking confidence than the speaking marathon.

8. Have the students write down every word they say in karakalpak.

At the start of class pass out small slips of paper about the size of a post-it note. Explain that they are to write down every word, phrase, or sentence that they say in karakalpak during the class. Tell them that at the end of the class you will collect their slips and count how many karakalpak entries they have made. Writing down what they say in karakalpak helps students to monitor their output, and this heightened awareness helps to decrease the amount of native language spoken. I have continually been amazed at how little karakalpak my students speak while doing this type of self-monitoring.

9. Be enthusiastic about your students speaking only English.

At times you must be more of a coach than a teacher to motivate your students. Until you have begun to modify their behavior you will have to constantly remind them not to lapse into native language. You must be continually aware of what is going on in all areas of the classroom monitoring all student output. Periodically I give "pep talks" to encourage the students when they are speaking too much karakalpak and also try to motivate them at times when they have failed. Don't give up-change will not come overnight, but slowly the students will respond to your enthusiasm.

10. Turn regular activities into information-gaps.

Information-gaps force the students to communicate in English more than in activities where knowledge is shared.

11. Pick topics and activities that your students find interesting and useful.

None of the techniques elaborated above will be successful in getting your students to speak English if your students simply don't want to talk about the topic you've given, or if they don't find the topic useful. Motivating and practical activities and topics are necessary to get your students talking in English.

Looking at this teacher's actions for increasing learner motivation we decided to suggest some ideas for actions that schools, families, communities, and others can take to foster students' academic motivation. The list below is just a starting point and is meant to stimulate discussion about a fuller range of options.

IDEAS FOR SCHOOLS TO CONSIDER

- Think carefully about the pros and cons of instituting a reward program to spur students' motivation. If a school does opt for such a program, consider building in the following characteristics:

1. Reward students for mastering certain skills or increasing their understanding rather than for reaching a particular performance level or outperforming others.

2. Target behaviors or tasks that students feel are achievable, clearly articulated, and within their control.

3.Reward tasks that are challenging enough to maintain students' interests but not so challenging as to undermine students' feelings of competence.

4. Consider offering rewards linked to academics, such as books, rather than cash or non-academic rewards.

5 Allow students to choose whether to pursue a reward.

6. Provide rewards promptly enough so that students see a clear link between their actions and the reward.

7 Have teachers or other individuals of social importance give out the rewards.

8 Take care not to condition students to depend on a reward.

- If assessments are being used as motivational tools, consider these elements when designing and administering assessments:

1. Recognize that the most motivating assessments are those address the key dimensions of competence, control, interest or value, and relatedness.

2. Make students aware of what they need to learn to do well on the assessment.

3. Keep in mind that assessments which reward creativity, effort, growth, and strategizing can have a stronger effect on motivation than assessments that emphasize competition or performance levels.

4 Consider administering more frequent assessments that start with easier goals and gradually increase in difficulty or providing students with opportunities to demonstrate their knowledge with performance tasks or low-stakes tests before taking an assessment that counts.

5 Recognize that high-stakes assessments, as well as some types of test preparation that go along with them, can have a negative effect on the motivation of some students by evoking anxiety, frustration, or fear of failure or by causing some students to lose interest in instruction.

- Provide professional development to teachers on encouraging student motivation:

1 Help teachers learn to identify students who are at risk of low motivation or have social, emotional, or developmental challenges that could affect motivation.

2. Share ways that teachers can foster motivation in their own teaching through such means as holding high expectations for all students, increasing students' autonomy, emphasizing mastery over performance, or creating an environment where students are willing to take risks without fear of failure.

3. Inform teachers about ways to effectively engage families in learning.

- Provide extracurricular activities that appeal to a range of interests and encourage as many students as possible to participate.

- Investigate new applications of technology that can make learning and assessments more engaging to students.

IDEAS FOR PARENTS AND FAMILIES TO CONSIDER

- Hold high expectations for your children's learning and believe in their competence. Emphasize effort over innate ability. Praise children when they've mastered new skills or knowledge instead of praising their innate intelligence.
- Encourage children's curiosity, exploration, persistence, and problem-solving. Expose them to new experiences.
- Take an active interest in your children's education. Provide a stimulating learning environment at home, which does not have to involve elaborate resources. Make reading materials available and discuss new ideas or experiences with your children.
- Recognize that using rewards and punishments for academic performance can discourage some children from developing intrinsic motivation.

- Talk to your children's teachers or school about programs to help parents become partners in learning.
- Be aware of who your children's friends are and what messages they are sending about academics.

IDEAS FOR COMMUNITY MEMBERS, POLICYMAKERS, AND OTHERS TO CONSIDER

- Adopt policies and programs to provide disadvantaged families with the resources they need to prevent gaps in achievement and non-cognitive skills from forming.
- Provide supports, such as scholarships, mentoring, and information about university requirements, to encourage children to set university attendance as a goal.
- Establish extracurricular clubs and other activities outside of school that can foster interest in academics and provide students, particularly those from disadvantaged backgrounds, with ways to demonstrate their competence.

CONCLUSION

We have briefly presented self-determination theory in order to make the critical distinction between behaviors that are volitional and accompanied by the experience of freedom and autonomy—those that emanate from one's sense of self—and those that are accompanied by the experience of pressure and control and are not representative of one's self. Intrinsically motivated behaviors, which are performed out of interest and satisfy the innate psychological needs for competence and autonomy are the prototype of self-determined behavior. Extrinsically motivated behaviors - that are executed because they are instrumental to some separable consequence - can vary in the extent to which they represent self-determination. Internalization and integration are the processes through which extrinsically motivated behaviors become more self-determined.

We reviewed studies that have specified the social contextual conditions that support intrinsic motivation and facilitate internalization and integration of extrinsically motivated tasks. The studies have been interpreted in terms of the basic psychological needs. That is, we saw that social contextual conditions that support one's feelings of competence, autonomy, and relatedness are the basis for one maintaining intrinsic motivation and becoming more self-determined with respect to extrinsic motivation. We pointed out that in schools, the facilitation of more self-determined learning requires classroom conditions that allow satisfaction of these three basic human needs - that is that support the innate needs to feel connected, effective, and agentic as one is exposed to new ideas and exercises new skills.

Learning a foreign language is not just a matter of memorising a simple set of names for the things around us; it is also an educational experience. Since our language is closely linked with our personality and culture, why not use the process of acquiring a new language to gain further insights into our personality and culture? This does not mean that students of a foreign language should submit to psychological exercises or probing interviews, but simply that, for example, learning to talk about their likes and dislikes and bring about a greater awareness of their values and aims in life. Many of the activities are concerned with the learners themselves. For learners who are studying English in a non-English-speaking setting it is very important to experience real communicative situation in which they learn to express their own views and attitudes, and in which they are taken seriously as people.

Today most of teachers and also learners understand that they should develop their speaking skills during language learning. Communication is the main goal of learning languages. We all know that sometimes real communicative situations develop spontaneously, as in exchanging comments on last night' s TV programme or introduction someone' s new haircut. The majority of ordinary language teaching situations before reaching an advanced level, however, are geared towards language-oriented communication or what Rivers calls 'skill-

getting': they make use of the foreign language mainly in structural exercises and predetermined responses by the learners. Since foreign language teaching should help students achieve some kind of communicative skill in the foreign language, àll situations in which real communication occurs naturally have to be taken advantage of and many more suitable ones have to be created.

Student motivation is a critical part of success in education and later life, but it has often been overlooked in the national push to reform schools. The efforts now underway to raise academic standards, improve the effectiveness of teachers, and identify and assist low-performing schools are unlikely to increase student achievement if large numbers of students are unmotivated. The time is right for a national conversation about specific things schools, parents, and communities can do to better motivate children and youth to learn, persevere, and succeed in school and later life.

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