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MOTIVATION AS THE SIGNIFICANT PREDICTOR IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING IN PRIMARY SCHOOL

Content:

INTRODUCTION

Teaching foreign languages in Uzbekistan has become very important since the first days of the Independence of our country which pays much attention to the rising of education level of people, their intellectual growth. As our President I.A.Karimov said: "Today it's difficult to revalue the importance of knowing foreign languages for our country as our people see their great prosperous future in the cooperation with foreign partners"[1].

According to Decree of the President of the Republic of Uzbekistan № 1875 December 10, 2012 "On Measures for further improvement of Foreign Languages Learning System", "Learning of foreign languages, mainly English, gradually throughout the country beginning with the first grade of secondary schools in the form of gaming lessons and lessons on speaking, and with the second grade – mastering the alphabet, reading and grammar. Teaching of special subjects especially on technical and international specialties at higher educational institutions is conducted in foreign languages".

In the contemporary world learning foreign languages has become one of the most international issues of current importance. Nowadays, much attention paid to teaching method, to be more specific, what kinds of techniques are included while conducting lessons as most learners prefer various activities in class that lead to their motivation in participation during the study.

During the years of the independence, over 51.7 thousand teachers of foreign languages graduated from universities. Yet, analysis of the current system of organizing learning provides information that learning standards, curricula and textbooks do not correspond to the current requirements, specifically in the use of advanced information and media resources. Education in most cases is conducted using traditional methods.

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[1] Каримов И.А. Гармонично развитое поколение – основа прогресса Узбекистана. Речь на девятой сессии ОлийМажлиса Республики Узбекистан / Собр. Соч. Т.6 – Ташкент, 1998 – с.16-25.

Teaching foreign languages, mainly English, to young learners has become its own field of study. It is widely believed that study of foreign languages of primary schools will help to develop more proficient speakers. However, there is no empirical evidence that an early start in foreign language learning produces better speakers. This depends on many other factors. In many articles one can come across to such ideas as developing good communicative competence of learners depend on program and curriculum, number of hours allocated to this class, choice of activities and techniques used (Rixon 2000) Besides it depends on the use of:

- Supplement activities with visuals, realia and movement
- Involving children in making visuals and realia
- Change activities
- Teaching on themes
- Using different stories and contexts familiar to children (Joan Kang Shin 2006)

But motivation is one of the most important and essential way that must be practiced when teaching foreign languages. By motivating, people are able to show herself/himself and be better in giving information or suggestion to another. Motivation is the process of building and sharing meaning through the uses of … Learners often evaluate their success in language learning of English on the basis how their improvement on speaking the language. Therefore, it can say that motivation as a method is playing significant role for the learners who studied English especially as a foreign language.

Motivation is surely a very important thing when teaching anyone and anything. Students should be aware not only what they learn, but also why they learn. They should be interested in the subject matter as well as in the subject as the whole. This is the ideal situation. To reach this, however, is not as easy as it could seem.

The aim of myqualificationpaper is to give theoretical argumentation for the importance of motivation in primary school and give practical recommendations. In accordance with the main aim it is necessary **to solve the following problems**:

1. What's motivation of learners;
2. Motivating the school children in teaching foreign languages;
3. Describing the results of our activities in the classroom.

We consider that the **novelty of the work**is in the fact that there's no article written on the problem in special journals of our country. I have worked out some games and activities of which I made wide use during my English language lessons at my pedagogical practice.

As is the custom, the graduation project work consists of two parts: theoretical and practical chapters. The theoretical one consists of two paragraphs.

The theoretical and practical meaning of the research consists in usage of motivation to teach foreign languages. At the same time they can be used in practice of reading in higher educational institutions and in school courses as a teaching method.

The structure of the research paper consists of introduction, two chapters, conclusion and bibliography.

The first chapter introduces and specifies motivation.

The second chapter deals with the ways of motivating the primary school children when teaching foreign languages.

In Conclusion the basic results of investigation are submitted and at the end **the list of used literature.**

CHAPTER 1.MOTIVATION IS A KEY TO LANGUAGE LEARNING
1.1. The definition of Motivation

This work deals with motivation, especially motivation of learners and teenagers in lessons of English. This theme is very close to me, because I am a future English

teacher in primary classes and I need to have some knowledge about how to motivate students in lessons.

The term motivation originated from the Latin word 'moveo– movere' the meaning of which is 'to move' in English. In psychology, the term is understood as forces that move our behavior or the sources, reasons of our behavior. The exact meaning of the word motivation among psychologists is not the same up to this day. The term is very wide; it includes such notions as longing, push, volition, wish, pressure, interest, aim, purpose, etc. Here are some possible definitions of what motivation is:

"The word, motivation is the common name for all impulses that lead to behavior, or as the case may be, to certain behavior."1 (Homola, 1972: 11) "Motivation is a general way of referring to the antecedents (i.e. causes and origins) of action. The main question in motivational psychology is, therefore, what these antecedents are." (Dornyei, 2001: 6)

"Because human behavior has 2 basic dimensions - direction and magnitude (intensity) - motivation by definition concerns both of these. It is responsible for the choice of a particular action and the effort expended on it and the persistence with it. Therefore, motivation explains why people decide to do something, how hard they are going to pursue it and how long they are willing to sustain the activity" (Ibid., 7) From observation of real situations one can see that people behave equally in different situations and differently in the identical situations. Therefore, it is possible to say that the cause of dissimilarities are certain motives which can be different at various people and can also change even with one person. A man is not usually motivated by only one motive but by the complex of motives that influence also one another and at the same time they are connected with one another.

To sum up things mentioned above, it would be useful to clarify the difference between the two terms: motive and motivation. Motives are dispositions, whereas motivation is a process that is possible only by the relationship between a disposition and a situation with an impulse. Motivation leads an organism to an activity in which it would be able to behave in a certain way.

Motivation is surely a very important thing when teaching anyone and anything. Students should be aware not only what they learn, but also why they learn. They should be interested in the subject matter as well as in the subject as the whole. This is the ideal situation. To reach this, however, is not as easy as it could seem. There are many factors that influence the process of learning. Some of them cannot be affected by teachers in any way, e.g. the learner's family background, the parental pressure, his ambition and talent, etc. Other, and I would say no less important factors, are fully in the hands of a school and teaching persons. The most obvious is the role of teachers: their attitude to learners and the subject itself, their experience, ability to manage the class, their preparation to lessons, willingness to help students if there are any problems and the ability to do it in an appropriate way, their knowledge of pedagogy, methodology, psychology, also their intuition is not at the last position, and many other items could be named. Except of a personality of a teacher, these things also influence the learner's interest and attention: the atmosphere in the classroom, the equipment, furnishing, color of walls, light, the relationships among the members of the class, and other items of school environment.

Nowadays, there are many different methods of teaching a foreign language. These programs originated just because some people wanted to teach differently, in a better way. They wanted to offer some other methods that could work on the base of something, for example natural curiosity, subconscious or punishment and praise. The philosophy of all of them is the same: to find the best way how to motivate learners and how to help them to reach the best results.

The aim of my research work is to summarize the theoretical knowledge about how the motivation works and what this term means in psychology and pedagogy, then to provide an overview of motivation strategies in English lessons and through several lesson plans to suggest how to apply the theory to the real lessons at basic levels.The following topic is divided into these parts: motivation as a term in psychology, motivation in pedagogy with emphasis on English teaching,

motivational strategies when teaching English with samples of lesson plans, conclusion, bibliography and appendix.

Motives are inner reasons for a certain activity or behavior. They can be divided as the conscious and unconscious ones. Motives can be also classified according to their stability, extent, origin, etc. Conscious motives are those motives with which a man is aware of how he acts and why he acts in this particular way - he knows the motive. Sometimes, however, a man does not know about the sources of his behavior. In fact, people realize only dominant motives and they cannot be aware of all motives that appear in the particular moment.

According to linguistic literature we can distinguish four basic sources of motivation: needs, interests, ideals and values. "Need can be understood as perceived lack or excess of something that is important for the life of an individual." (1 Ibid.,8) The author distinguishes basic biological needs, social needs and other types of needs that are hierarchically arranged from the lowest ones to the highest ones. The upper motives are activated only after the lower ones are satisfied. This theory was originally announced by the psychologist A. Maslow. Values can express a man's opinion about what is good and what is not. "A value is always a character of a thing, phenomenon, being, situation or activity in connection with fulfilling of motivational factors (interests, needs) of an individuality." (2 Ibid.)

1.2. The Role of motivation in Teaching Process

Motivation is a psychological phenomenon that relates between an active subject and an objective reality. As Linhart asserts (1986: 73-75), motivation of behavior of a man and his activity has two sources: subjective, that develops on basis of his needs and objective, which is determined by an objective reality and things that are

important for the subject in this situation. These sources can be called also primary (internal) and secondary (external) motivation. Primary motivation is connected to instincts and living needs, e.g. neural activity, biological needs, social needs, etc. Secondary motivation is not fulfilling of needs: a person is stimulated to the activity because s/he wants to reach something that is connected with this situation externally. Linhart says: "The activity itself is not the aim, but the means for achieving different aims"(1986: 74)

It is also possible to describe motivation as the positive and negative one. Positive motivation can be defined as an effort to attain something. It creates the inner interest and it is connected with a kind of reward, which is just the demanded thing. This kind of motivation is very effective, but if the impact of rewards is overused, it loses and it's motivatean effect.

The origin of the negative motivation is usually something unpleasant, e.g. psychic stress. A man tries to escape from the unwelcome impulse, for example if a radio plays very loudly, he turns it down. If there is no possibility to get rid of the unpleasant impetus, it can be a punishment. That is another eventuality of motivation, but it does not allow the development of a personality if used very often. Another kind of motivation is social motivation. A person behaves as a member of a certain group. Feelings of duty, responsible fulfillment of tasks and achievement of aims are also samples of this type of motivation. Social motivation has great significance in lives of people. These motives are learnt, acquired, secondary, but their intensity is equal to the biological needs.

A man has his own inner dynamics but he is at the same time exposed to the environment, because he is a member of various groups. By the influence of social conditions many secondary needs develop and these are the heart of motivation. Social factors, as for example social groups and their norms, roles within these groups, etc., have substantial influence on motivation of a man's behavior. A social group means two or more persons that are in mutual relationships. A special type of a social group is a team. It is a group in which its members are integrated by

accepted tasks and these members help one another to fulfill these tasks. A team should be organized and it affects the development of personalities of its members.

An individual can fulfill many of his motives just within a team. She achieves the group's aims by co-operation with other members of a group. This does not mean that all motives of a person are identical with the group's aims. Each person differs from others by his/her own motives, but the existence of the group's aim motivates its members. "The connection of group's goals with individual motives of members of a group resides in the fact that each its member tries to co-ordinate the group's goal with his own motives(Homola, 1972: 189)

Motivation in pedagogical process. Begin your teaching only after it was properly recommended to a student. So in every possible way you must urge so that a student interprets the subject matter which he is approached to as something admirable. (This admiration will arouse a wish, the wish will arouse the longing and the longing will arouse the diligence.) Begin your teaching only after there has been a strong learnerˈs wish to learn aroused. (Komensky, 1954, 42)

Motivation is an engine, regulator and inseparable component of learning. It is a necessary condition of the educational process. Teachers should be able to create very positive atmosphere at universities so that there would be as few such conflicts as possible.

Besides this motivation on emotional level, teachers have to motivate students also on various other levels. Assessment and feedback are one of them, and it is very important, because it helps students to create an idea about themselves and thus it participates on the development of a student[4] s motivational system. If a child has a positive attitude to himself, it is a great motivational factor, so teachers should help to create such an attitude. Learners must not be assessed according to inappropriate criterions. Making mistakes is normal when learning anything and it is significant to teach students to work with a mistake.

Learners are always somehow motivated to their schoolwork, but these motives can be very different. Among the essential motives belong these: effort to achieve

agreement of parents, of teachers, of friends in a class, or it can be just pleasure from learning. Motivation cannot be created, but it is possible to affect various conditions and with help of them to awake various motives. The learner's activity should not be forced, but aroused.

Teachers can affect the learner's motivation by their personalities, behavior, materials used in lessons, relationships to their students and atmosphere they are able to create in classes. The work at universities should be meaningful and lead to marked out aims. Learners should be led to the achievement of these aims and they should be also informed about their progress in gaining the objectives. The attaining of a goal has a strong motivational power, so the goal should always be attainable and realistic.

Among the most important motivational strategies belong a reward and punishment. Psychologists agree that rewards are more effective than punishments. Both of them are used in lessons in forms of praise and rebuke. I agree with the opinion that neither rewards nor punishment should be overused; otherwise it loses its motivational power.

Without doubt, the role of a teacher is very complicated in the area of motivation. They should be able to find the balance to prevent frustration or boredom. It is difficult to arouse the interest about the subject matter, so lessons should be dynamic to be able to compete with activities that are more attractive for students. In every case, it is important to arouse permanent motivation, help learners to form their personalities and at the same time to be the personality that students could identify with.

What is keeping learners motivated? Dornyei (2001) states that under the term „motivated learner" people imagine enthusiastic, eager, hard-working student who is always involved in activities and who is aware of reasons for his learning. If a student makes great progress, one could say that he is certainly highly motivated and vice versa, if a learner is not successful, many people are likely to say that it is because of his lack of motivation. Teachers should, however, look deeper in the

situation. There are many possible factors that can play a role in the student's failure.

When a child starts going to school, he himself is motivated by his own curiosity and enjoyment from the learning process. After some time at school, this eagerness very often disappears. As also Dornyei (2001: 50) claims, this is partially because children are very energetic and the educational systems do not allow sufficiency of movement, interesting things or challenging activities, students are monitored and assessed all the time. Curriculum must be taught and there is little space for anything else. I argue that teachers, however, still have possibilities how to adapt the learning situation to the needs of their students so that their natural curiosity and enjoyment from learning could be maintained.

The first area to be described is the situation in the classroom and the enthusiasm for the subject matter. Learners need to have suitable conditions for their effective learning. Then, teachers have to make their lessons interesting, challenging, active, encouraging, with the element of surprise. Lastly, students need to be supported, assessed, encouraged; they need to feel the sense of their effort.

The most difficult thing on motivating someone is that the process cannot be stopped. Motivation can be aroused, can increase, but it can also decline or disappear. (Dornyei.Ibid., 19) says that motivation fluctuates, changes over the time. I agree that teachers have to understand this to be able to arrange learning as well as motivational activities in balance.

From this list it is clear that according to learners ability and effort are the two most influential items of a man's success or failure. Teachers should highlight the importance of effort, however. Learners should believe that it is their effort what counts and that the chances of all are equal. This interpretation of the past achievement is called constructive attribution.

1.3. Types of motivation

Motivation can be divided into two different theories known as Intrinsic (internal) motivation and Extrinsic (external) motivation. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

can be observed among learners; they are high attitude which has a positive, efficient, and useful effect, and the second one is low attitude which makes blocks and causes weakness for learning language. As it was mentioned before, motivation, indeed, involves two main classifications as below: Intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation.

Intrinsic motivation is mental satisfaction which is achieved by others' praise, while, extrinsic motivation is an incentive activated by external factors such as good marks and getting reward.

It is, indeed, important the teacher knows that the two types of motivation which are intrinsic, and extrinsic, relate to each other and they are inter-relative. In addition, the personal, psychological, and social factors have effect on increasing or decreasing any mentioned type of motivation. In fact, it is essential and important for the teacher to know what the type of motivation is and how it is formed, captured, and, finally, displayed in the learner.[2] Both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations can have two subgroups that can activate the learners; The intrinsic motivation in an **extroverted** is in such a way that the learner takes advantage from and feels satisfy by communicating with others, while, in an **introverted,** the earner uses language for meditation and personal thinking in addition to personal activities and affairs.[3] Indeed, rely on intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, and for creating and developing either of them, the teacher should make the classroom quiet and without any anxiety.

Providing educational and academic advantages, encouraging students, and asking simple and easy questions at the beginning of class (before asking difficult questions) will increase motivation for learning.[4] Besides, the mentioned issues will fulfill the need of progress for the learner. On the other hand, sometimes, motivation

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[2]**Dweck, C. S. (1999). Self-theories: Their role in motivation, personality, and development. Philadelphia: psychology Press.**

[3]**Sansone, C., & Morgan, C. (1992). Intrinsic motivation and education: Competence in context.** *Motivation .and Emotion, 16,* **249-270.**

[4]**Harter, S., & Jackson, B. K. (1992). Trait vs. nontrait conceptualizations of intrinsic/extrinsic motivational orientation.** *Motivation and Emotion, 16,* **209-230.**

is an instrument for the student. In this sense, the learner uses for example English language in order to fulfill his need. In fact, the teacher should know that English language as an instrument should have the worth of attempt for the learner. The aims of the class should be in such a way that motivates the learners who have instrumental motivation in order to become aware of and realize the value of the learner who thinks about English language as an instrument for reaching a particular goal such as achieving grades or passing examination.[5] Also it should be mentioned either ,as a reality, that intrinsic motivation causes the learner to think that whether learning a specific issue (subject) is worth of effort and attempt or not.[6]

That is, if the learner in his judgment comes to the conclusion that learning a language is not worthy or does not have functional value, he becomes disappointed and gives up learning that language. In order to make the learner have a positive view about his own effort, some rewards such as grade, degree, and any sort of educational, scholastic, and academic encouragement should be given to him. Accordingly, the designed encouragements for the classes play an important role for achieving a good or a positive learning outcome. The learner, indeed, should know that his efforts are valued by teacher. Therefore, the teachers should be aware of all their students' activities, even the minor and trivial ones.

They should, subsequently, show positive responses (reactions) for the learners' good affairs or activities. In effect, strengthening or reinforcing the expected and desirable behaviors in the language teaching process is accomplished and achieved by encouragement, stimulating the feeling of curiosity and inquisitiveness about the cultures of the other nations, presenting and showing movie, as well as giving chance to the students. Consequently, motivation directly influences and affects the

[5]Henderlong, J., &Lepper, M. R. (1997, April).*Conceptions of intelligence and children's motivational orientations: A developmental perspective.* Paper presented at the biennial meeting of the Society for Researchin Child Development, Washington, DC.

[6]Gottfried, A. E., Fleming, J. S., & Gottfried, A. W. (2001). Continuity of academic intrinsic motivation from childhood through late adolescence: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 93,* 3-13.

language learners learning methods, skills, and practices. That is, motivation has a high effect on learner's communication with foreigners, determining learning amount, in addition to developing the desired levels of language teaching such as reading, comprehension, speaking, and writing. Briefly, motivation has a direct effect on both quality and quantity of language learning.[7]

The difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. The construct of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation theory is defined by: Intrinsic motivation refers to the motivation to engage in an activity because that activity is enjoyable and satisfying to do. Extrinsically motivated learners are those whose actions are carried out to achieve some instrumental end, such as, earning a reward or avoiding a punishment.[8]This internal-external distinction is one that has played a significant part in many current theories of motivation. Who distinguishes five separate dimensions that are considered to comprise motivation, each of which is defined by an intrinsic and extrinsic pole; these concepts have been used to explain differences in motivation between different learners. However, it is hard to consider motivation as something that is either simply internal or external to the learner. For example, learners who study hard to learn foreign language may be

intrinsically or extrinsically motivated or many have a mixture of both intrinsic and extrinsic reasons prompting them.

Teachers need to identify students' motivation in order to construct an effective lesson to meet their learning goals - performing a need analysis will be crucial here. Often a good way to encourage students to find a stronger intrinsicmotivation to learn English is to make the lessons fun.[9] Using humor in EFL lessons is a great way to turn an extrinsically motivated student into a student who actually enjoys learning because the language is fun.

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[7]**Harackiewicz, J. M.,Barron, K. E., Pintrich, P. R., Elliot, A. J., & Thrash, T. M. (2002). Revision of achievement goal theory: Necessary and illuminating.** *Journal of Educational Psychology, 94,* **638-645.**

[8]**Hunt, J. M. V. (1965).Intrinsic motivation and its role in psychological development.In D. Levine (Ed.),** *\ebraska Symposium on Motivation* **(Vol. 13, pp. 189-282). Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.**

[9]**Lepper, M. R., Henderlong, J., &Gingras, I. (1999). Understanding the effects of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation—Uses and abuses of meta-analysis: Comment on Deci, Koestner, and Ryan (1999).** *Psychological.*

Students who have intrinsic motivation are inclined to stay with intricate and complicated problems and gain knowledge from their slips and mistakes. Besides, intrinsic motivation is essential and fundamental for the integration process through which elements of one's accessible internal awareness and knowledge is assimilated or mixed with new knowledge.

Intrinsic/extrinsic motivation refers to whether the motivation is more inside a person or outside of him/her. Intrinsic motivation refers to the motivation which is originated inside a person.[10] There is no reward except the activity itself. It means that the essence of motivated action that is, sense of autonomy and the desire is self-initiating and self regulatingwhile in extrinsic motivation there is an anticipation of reward from outside and a person is motivated from an outside source rather than the self.

Maslow (1970) believed that intrinsic motivation is noticeably superior to extrinsic because we are motivated to achieve "self-actualization".

What is important is that the two orientations are not mutually exclusive. Some learners learn better if they are interactively oriented while others are more successful if they are instrumentally motivated and some learn better if they take the advantage of both orientations. In other words, one may have both kinds of motivations: s/he may be instrumentally motivated to pass a test or meet a requirement, but at the same time, s/he may love the culture of a community and want to learn and participate in its culture. Extrinsic and instrumental motivations are similar but not exactly alike. Extrinsic focuses on the fact that the reason is outside of a person, while instrumental is about the purpose of her/his learning. Intrinsic and integrative motivations are also different because intrinsic motivation has to do with what makes someone feel good while integrative motivation is about membership in a language community.

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[10]**Eccles, J. S., Wigfield, A., &Schiefele, U. (1998).Motivation to succeed. In N. Eisenberg (Ed.), Handbook of child psychology: Vol. 3. Social, emotional, and personality development (5th ed., pp. 1017-1095). New York: Wiley.**

Intrinsic motivation is an important factor when considering language learning. We describe the characteristics as an individual being motivated to act on an activity for the pure joy that accompanies such activity without any external factors or motives.

The importance of intrinsic motivation. The positive characteristics intrinsic motivation has to search for answers and study for one's own sake is significant factors to be a successful language learner. For students who possess this quality, there seems to be a chance to achieve autonomy and competence, as well as full-fill long-term goals. This is discussed in study, which concluded that students who are motivated to learn an L2 for their own sake are more likely to continue with language studies in the future. Thus, students with more intrinsicmotivation have a higher chance of continuing their studies and furthering their L2 competence.[11]

Intrinsically motivated students on the other hand are highly motivated for reasons beyond immediate rewards. Intrinsic motivation means a student wants to learn for reasons of enjoyment and personal fulfillment. An intrinsically motivated EFL student is likely to put more effort into learning the language as they want to learn for them, not simply to pass an exam.

As intrinsic motivation theorists have long argued, being interested and engaged in the process of education results in better learning and achievement.[19] Perhaps more interesting is the negative relationship between both indices of performance and extrinsic motivation, which was seen for both the composite measure and the individual subscales, with the exception of the subscale assessing dependence on the teacher. That is, to the extent that children reported a desire for easy work and an aim to please their teachers, they performed worse both on standardized tests and in regular classroom assessments. This demonstration of the adaptive value of intrinsic motivation relative to extrinsic motivation is particularly informative in light of recent debates about the impact of tangible rewards and other forms of extrinsic motivation on intrinsic interest and creativity.[12]

[11]Salili, F., Chiu, C., & Hong, Y. (Eds.). (2001). *Student motivation: The culture and context of learning.* **New York: Kluwer Academic/Plenum Press.**

[12]" Maehr, M. L., & Anderman, E. M. (1993). Reinventing schools for early adolescents: Emphasizing task goals.*Elementary School Journal, 93,* 593-610.

Extrinsic motivation in teaching grammar. Extrinsic motivation refers to the motivation one has to participate in an activity not for the joy of it, but to accomplish some external goal. For instance, an individual who participates in an activity to receive praise, money, or a reward, as well as avoiding punishment from an external figure is characterized as possessing extrinsic motive. Extrinsic motivation does have short-term motivational characteristics. However, students with it do not necessarily have positive attitudes about the L2, and research shows that such students could be more likely to discontinue language studies. If the motivation to learn an L2 is to pass a class or receive an academic credit, then once completing this goal, there may be no point for an individual to continue studying after receiving their mark action. According to Brown (1998), "In a language course, extrinsic pressures are most often manifested in foreign language requirements set by the institution and in established standardized test scores that must be achieved". In this type of L2 learning environment having these extrinsic pressures, I cannot blame them for losing intrinsic motivation.

Many external pressures seem to prevent any enjoyment in the classroom, which is the primary factor of intrinsic motivation.

Finally, because the present results suggest that intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation are potentially orthogonal constructs, a third major question concerns the implications of these two motivational orientations for academic achievement. Might both forms of motivation enhance performance.

Finally, both the original and decomposed versions scale explicitly address the reasons behind students' actions and choices and thus provide an important complement to other measures of intrinsic motivation that assess students' attitudes toward particular activities or content domains.[13] We believe that both types of assessment have merit and that some combination of the two may, in fact, be optimal. Thus, it would be useful to ask learners not just if they like to read books

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[13]**Miserandino, M. (1996). Children who do well in school: Individual differences in perceived competence and autonomy in above-average children.** *Journal of Educational Psychology, 88,* **203-21**

because they are curious and if they like to read books because they want to please the teacher but also if they simply like to read books.

Despite the advantages of our modified measure, however, we do not present this initial effort as a finished product. "First, in our simple decomposition measure, it appears that some of the extrinsic motivation subscales are less clearly independent of intrinsic motivation than others. In particular, the subscale assessing a desire for easy work was substantially negatively correlated with intrinsic motivation, suggesting that these constructs may approximate opposite ends of a single dimension. Of course, it is possible simultaneously to seek challenge and be guided by natural curiosity for some activities while desiring easy work for others or to exhibit intrinsic motivation for certain aspects of a given activity but seek a quick and easy solution for other aspects; however, we are not convinced that these are independent constructs in our current scale. On the other hand, it is easy to imagine that the degree to which one engages in a behavior out of curiosity, interest, or a desire to confront challenges can be independent of the degree to which one engages in that same behavior out of a desire to please a teacher.[14]

An argument for the coexistence of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is far more intuitive in this case, as corroborated by the absence of a correlation between intrinsic motivation and the subscale measuring a desire to please the teacher in the present study. At present, it is unclear whether the complex nature of extrinsic motivation is due to the particular items in our scale or to the inherent nature of the construct. At issue is whether we might have oversimplified the nature of intrinsic motivation. Future work could explore this interesting possibility by considering a more extensive set of intrinsic motivations in the process of scale construction.[15]

Our separate measures of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation also allowed for an examination of the achievement outcomes associated with these two motivational

[14]**Tzuriel, D. (1989). Development of motivational and cognitiveinformational orientations from third to ninth grades.***Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 10,* **107-121.**

[15]**"Shweder, R. A., Goodnow, J., Hatano, G., LeVine, R. A., Markus, H. R., & Miller, P. (1998). The cultural psychology of development: One mind, many mentalities. In W. Damon (Series Ed.) & R. M. Lerner**

orientations. Not surprisingly, there was a positive relationship between intrinsic motivation and performance both in class and on standardized tests.

Of course, these are only correlation findings, and it is unclear whether it is the type of motivation that drives achievement, the level of achievement that drives the type of motivation, or some combination of the two. It is certainly plausible that learners who do well at university might come to enjoy learning, feel capable of taking on challenges, and like to master the material independently as a result of receiving high marks and positive feedback. It is also possible that learners who do poorly at university are more often subjected to lectures from teachers and parents about how and why they should be doing better, thus shifting their attention to more external sources of motivation.

At least some evidence, however, suggests that democratic parenting practices are positively correlated with academic achievement even when controlling for previous academic achievement. Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, is the propensity to take part in activities because of the reasons which do not link to the activity. These reasons can be the anticipation of reward or punishment, like being successful in the exam or getting a good mark. To come to the point, intrinsic motivation is a motivation to do an activity because of itself. In fact, the individuals who are intrinsically motivated do and practice the activities and works because they feel that those activities are enjoyable. Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, is motivation to do a work or an activity as a means or way to achieve a target. Those who are extrinsically motivated perform and doaffairs as they think that their contribution will cause enviable results like a reward, teacher admiration, or evasion (prevention) of punishment.

SUMMARY

Rounding up the first chapter we can say that the term of motivation is very wide and student motivation is influenced by both internal and external factors that can start, sustain, intensify, or discourage behavior.

As mentioned above, Internal factors include the individual characteristics or dispositions that the students bring to their learning, such as their interests, responsibility for learning,effort, values and perceived ability. For example, are students confident or fearful when they approach new learning tasks? Do they attribute success to luck, or do they appreciate the effort required? Do they feel in control of the factors that lead to success ?

It is also important to understand the external factors, which schools can affect—the variables in learning conditions and environment that trigger, support, or change student motivation. Certain types of schooling practices may promote or hinder motivation, such as features of the classrooms, peer groups, tasks, and instructional practices. For example, challenging, relevant instruction helps to engage students. Another way to increase motivation is through positive connections to others, such as mentors and role models.

Students' beliefs about their ability to learn are shaped by messages and experiences at home, at school, and in the larger society. Low expectations can be subtly communicated by parents and teachers, and through school practices such as tracking, ability grouping, or curriculum that is not challenging. Conversely, high but achievable expectations convey the message that all students are capable of achieving:

Schools can positively influence student motivation through:

- Varied and integrated instructional strategies and resources.

- An open and caring school environment.

- A wide range of student supports.

- Sharing information and responsibilities for student learning among the staff.

Suggestions for Teaching in Your Classroom: Motivating Students to Learn

1) Use behavioral techniques to help students exert themselves and work toward remote goals.

2) Make sure that students know what they are to do, how to proceed, and how to determine when they have achieved goals.

3) Do everything possible to satisfy deficiency needs — physiological, safety, belongingness, and esteem.

CHAPTER 2. TEACHING ENGLISH TO YOUNG LEARNERS

2.1. Children and language

Almost all children acquire a language, apparently without effort. In many parts of the world, children grow up speaking two or more languages. And if young children move to a new country and go to school there, they seem to 'pick up' the new language with incredible ease.

Language acquisition seems to be almost guaranteed for children up to about the age of six. They seem to be able to learn languages with incredible facility. They are also capable of forgetting a language just as easily. It is almost as if they can put on and take off different languages like items of clothing! However, this ease of

acquisition becomes gradually less noticeable as children move towards puberty, and after that, language acquisition is much more difficult.

Acquisition here describes the way in which people 'get' language with no real conscious effort - in other words, without thinking about grammar or vocabulary, or worrying about which bits of language go where. When children start vocalizing their mother tongue at around the age of two, we do not expect them to study it; we expect to just watch it emerge, first at the level of one-word utterances, then two-word utterances, until the phrases and sentences they use become gradually more complex as they grow older. In order for acquisition to take place, certain conditions need to be met. In the first place, the children need to hear a lot of language. Such exposure is absolutely vital. Secondly, it is clear that the nature of the language they hear matters, too. When parents talk to their children, they simplify what they say, both consciously and unconsciously. They don't use complex sentences, or technical vocabulary; they use language which fits the situation, rough-tuning what they say to match the child's age and situation. Parents' language is marked by other features, too. They often exaggerate the intonation they use so that their voices sound higher and more enthusiastic than they would if they were talking to friend, colleague or partner. During childhood we get an enormous amount of such language exposure. Furthermore, most of the language we hear - especially from our parents - is given to us in typical social and emotional interactions so that as we hear language, we also hear the ways in which that language is used. Finally, children have a strong motivational urge to communicate in order to be fed and understood. Together with their parents (and later other adults) they make language together. And then they try it out and use it. This 'trying out' is shown by the way children repeat words and phrases, talk to themselves and generally play with language. But in the end it is their desire to communicate needs, wants and feelings that seems to matter most. And throughout childhood and beyond, most people have a great many opportunities and inducements to use the language they have been acquiring. It sounds, then, as if three features need to be present in order for children to acquire a

language: exposure to it, motivation to communicate with it and opportunities to use it.

Acquisition and learning

If, as we have said, children acquire language subconsciously, what does this tell us about how students should get a second language? Can we (indeed, should) attempt to replicate the child's experience in the language classroom?

Some theorists, notably the American applied linguist Stephen Krashen in the 1980s, have suggested that we can make a distinction between acquisition and learning. Whereas the former is subconscious and anxiety free, learning is a conscious process where separate items from the language are studied and practiced in turn. Krashen, among others, suggested that teachers should concentrate on acquisition rather than learning and that the role of the language teacher should be to provide the right kind of language exposure, namely comprehensible input (that is, language that the students understand more or less, even if it is a bitabove their own level of production). Provided that students experience such language in an anxiety-free atmosphere, the argument goes, they will acquire it just as children do, and, more importantly, when they want to say something, they will be able to retrieve the language they need from their acquired-language store. Language which has been learnt, on the other hand, is not available for use in the same way, according to this argument, because the learner has to think much more consciously about what they want to say. The principal function of learnt language is to monitor what is coming from our acquired store to check that it is OK. As a result, learnt language tends to 'get in the way' of acquired-language production and may inhibit spontaneous communication. This apparently convoluted discussion becomes relevant when we consider what we should do with students in class. If we believe that acquisition is superior to learning, we will spend all our time providing comprehensible input. What we will not do is to ask the students to focus on how the language works. Yet there are problems with this approach.

In the first place, the ability to acquire language easily tends to deteriorate with age. Secondly, teenagers and adults have perfectly good reasoning powers and may want to think consciously about how language works. To suggest that they should not think about language if they want to (that is, learn it consciously), would seem absurd. And we should remember that for many language learners, one of the biggest differences between them and children acquiring their first language is the amount of exposure they get (in terms of hours), and the situation in which this language is used. Learners in foreign language classrooms are in a very different situation from that of children of loving parents. Perhaps, mere exposure to comprehensible input is not enough, therefore, for older children and adults. Perhaps, as some claim, they should have their attention drawn to aspects of language so that they can notice these aspects; as a result they will recognize them when they come across them again, and this recognition

The young language learner

The teaching of English to young children has become especially important in recent years. One reason for this has been the introduction of primary EFL leaching in a number of European countries - but it is also a world-wide phenomenon. There is a lot of very good teaching in primary EFL classrooms. However, it is a fact that many teachers now find themselves teaching in primary school even though they have not been trained for this level. And even for teachers who have been trained, there is a lack of good books concerning this important _rea of teaching.

There is a big difference between what children of five can do and what children of ten can do. Some children develop early, some later. Some children develop gradually, others in leaps and bounds. It is not possible to say that at the age of five children can do x, at the age of seven they can all do y, or that at the age of ten they can all do both of them. But it is possible to point out certain characteristics of young children which you should be aware of and take into account in your teaching. You, as the teacher, are the only one who can see how far up the ladder your individual pupils are. We can only draw your attention to the characteristics of the average child which are relevant for language teaching.

The children are divided into two main groups according to the book "Teaching English to children" by Wendy A. Scott and Lisbeth H. Ytreberg - the five to seven years olds and the eight to ten year olds. They are assuming that the five to seven years olds are all at level one, the beginner stage. The eight to ten year olds may - so be beginners, or they may have been learning the foreign language for some time, so there are both level one and level two pupils in the eight to ten age group.

What **five to seven year olds** can do at their own level:

- They can talk about what they are doing.
- They can tell you about what they have done or heard.
- They can plan activities.
- They can argue for something and tell you why they think what they think.
- They can use logical reasoning.
- They can use their vivid imaginations.
- They can use a wide range of intonation patterns in their mother tongue.
- They can understand direct human interaction.

Other characteristics of the young language learner

- They know that the world is governed by rules. They may not always understand the rules, but they know that they are there to be obeyed, and the rules help to nurture a feeling of security.
- They understand situations more quickly than they understand the language used.
- They use language skills long before they are aware of them.
- Their own understanding comes through hands and eyes and ears. The physical world is dominant at all times.
- They are very logical - what you say first happens first. 'Before you turn off the light, put your book away' can mean 1 Turn off the light and then 2 put your book away.
- They have a very short attention and concentration span.
- Young children sometimes have difficulty in knowing what is fact and what is fiction. The dividing line between the real world and the imaginary world is not clear. When reading a story in a foreign language class of five year olds about a mouse that got lost, the teacher ended the story by saying, 'But, what's this in my pocket? I feel something warm and furry and it squeaks.' She then took a toy mouse

out of her pocket accompanied by gasps from her pupils. They had no problem in believing that the mouse had found its way out of the book and into their teacher's pocket. They simply thought the teacher was wonderful because she had found the lost mouse!

- Young children are often happy playing and working alone but in the company of others. They can be very reluctant to share. It is often said that children are very self-centred up to the age of six or seven and they cannot see things from someone else's point of view. This may well be true, but do remember that sometimes pupils don't want to work together because they don't see the point. They don't always understand what we want them to do.

- The adult world and the child's world are not the same. Children do not always understand what adults are talking about. Adults do not always understand what children are talking about. The difference is that adults usually find out by asking questions, but children don't always ask. They either pretend to understand, or they understand in their own terms and do what they think you want them to do. They will seldom admit that they don't know something either. A visiting friend took a confident five year old to school one day after the child had been going to school for three weeks. It was only when they arrived at a senior boys' school after forty-five minutes that the visitor realized that the child had no idea where she was. Her mother had asked her several times before she left home if she knew the way, the visitor had asked the same question several times in the forty-five minutes. The child had answered cheerfully and confidently that she knew the way to her school very well!

- Young children cannot decide for themselves what to learn.

- Young children love to play, and learn best when they are enjoying themselves. But they also take themselves seriously and like to think that what they are doing is 'real' work.

- Young children are enthusiastic and positive about learning. We all thrive ondoing well and being praised for what we do, and this is especially true foryoung children. It is important to praise them if they are to keep theirenthusiasm and feel successful from the beginning. If we label children failures, then they believe us.

Eight to ten year olds

General characteristics

Children of five are little children. Children of ten are relatively mature children with an adult side and a childish side. Many of the characteristics listed above will be things of the past.

- Their basic concepts are formed. They have very decided views of the world.
- They can tell the difference between fact and fiction.
- They ask questions all the time.
- They rely on the spoken word as well as the physical world to convey and understand meaning.
- They are able to make some decisions about their own learning.
- They have definite views about what they like and don't like doing.
- They have a developed sense of fairness about what happens in the classroom and begin to question the teacher's decisions.
- They are able to work with others and learn from others.

Language development

Eight to ten year olds have a language with all the basic elements in place. They are competent users of their mother tongue and in this connection they are aware of the main rules of syntax in their own language. By the age of ten children can:

- o understand abstracts
- o understand symbols (beginning with words)
- o generalize and systematize.

This refers to children's general language development. When it comes to learning a foreign language, there is still a lot we do not know. There are many similarities between learning one's mother tongue and learning a foreign language in spite of the differences in age and the time available. So far nobody has found a universal pattern of language learning which everyone agrees with. Much seems to depend on which mother tongue the pupils speak and on social and emotional factors in the child's background. What is clear here is that most eight to ten year olds will have some sort of language awareness and readiness which they bring with them into the foreign language classroom.

The period from five to ten sees dramatic changes in children, but we cannot say exactly when this happens because it is different for all individuals. The magic age seems to be around seven or eight. At around seven or eight, things seem to fall into place for most children and they begin to make sense of the adult world as we see it. Think about young children telling jokes. Five year olds laugh because everybody else does, but they don't always understand the joke. If they are asked to re-tell the joke it will be nonsense. Seven year olds think jokes are funny and they learn them off by heart. This means that they often get the punch line wrong or have to be prompted. Ten and eleven year olds remember jokes and can work out the punch line from the situation. The system of language and the understanding of it seems to fall into place for many children in the same way.

What this means for our teaching *Words are not enough*

Don't rely on the spoken word only. Most activities for the younger learners should include movement and involve the senses. You will need to have plenty of objects and pictures to work with, and to make full use of the school and your surroundings. Demonstrate what you want them to do. The balance will change as the children get older, but appealing to the senses will always help the pupils to learn.

Play with the language

Let the pupils talk to themselves. Make up rhymes, sing songs, tell stories. Play with the language - let them talk nonsense, experiment with words and sounds: Let's go - pets go.' 'Blue eyes - blue pies.' Playing with the language in this way

is very common in first language development and is a very natural stage in the first stages of foreign language learning too.

Language as language

Becoming aware of language as something separate from the events taking place takes time. Most eight to ten year olds already have this awareness in their own language. The spoken word is often accompanied by other clues to meaning - facial expression, movement, etc. We should make full use of these clues. When pupils start to read, the language becomes something permanent and there are fewer other clues to meaning. Pupils can take a book home, they can read it again and again,

they can stop, think about the language and work it out. The same is true of writing. So reading and writing are extremely important for the child's growing awareness of language and for their own growth in the language, although both are very demanding and take time and patience to learn.

Cooperation not competition

Avoid rewards and prizes. Other forms of encouragement are much more effective. Make room for shared experiences - they are an invaluable source of language work and create an atmosphere of involvement and togetherness. Most of us enjoy the feeling of belonging and this is particularly true of young children.

Group the children together whenever possible. This does not mean that they have to work in groups all the time, but most children like to have other children around them, and sitting with others encourages cooperation. Genuine cooperative pairwork and groupwork is usually the result of a long process.

But some pupils work best alone.

Grammar

Children have an amazing ability to absorb language through play and other activities which they find enjoyable. How good they are in a foreign language is not dependent on whether they have learnt the grammar rules or not. Very few of your pupils will be able to cope with grammar as such, even at the age of ten or eleven. They may be very aware and clear about the foreign language, but they are not usually mature enough to talk about it.

As a teacher, you should note the structures, functions and grammar items which you want your pupils to learn as well as those they already know, but your actual teaching should only include the barest minimum of grammar taught as grammar, and then for the older children only. This does not mean teaching grammar rules to the whole class. The best time to introduce some sort of simple grammar is either when a pupil asks for an explanation, or when you think a pupil will benefit from learning some grammar. This may be when you are correcting written work, or it may be in connection with an oral exercise which practices, for example, 'Did she . . .?' and 'Does she . . .?' Older pupils, especially those at level two, may ask exactly

what the difference is between 'did' and 'does', since both are used for questions, and you can then use the opportunity to explain the difference in simple terms. You might want to use the terms 'a yesterday question' and 'a today question'. It might or might not be appropriate to compare what happens in the mother tongue in the same situation. What is important is that the explanations should be given on an individual/group basis

when the pupils themselves are asking the questions, that the explanations are kept as simple as possible, and that the pupils are able to grasp the point and so benefit from the explanation.

Assessment

Even though formal assessment may not be a compulsory part of your work, it is always useful for the teacher to make regular notes about each child's progress. You may want to tell parents how their children are doing, and you should be talking to the children regularly about their work and encouraging self- assessment. From the beginning this can be done in very simple terms, stressing the positive side of things and playing down what the pupil has not been able to master. Nothing succeeds like success.

2.2. Class management and atmosphere.

We come to the job with our personalities already formed, but there are abilities and attitudes which can be learnt and worked on. As a teacher of young children it helps a lot if you have a sense of humor, you're open-minded, adaptable, patient, etc., but even if you're the silent, reserved type, you can work on your attitudes and abilities.

Abilities

We may not all be brilliant music teachers like Susan's Mr Jolly, but most of us can learn to sing or even play a musical instrument. All music teachers would agree in any case that everyone can sing, although perhaps not always in tune!

We can all learn to mime, to act and to draw very simple drawings. We can all learn to organize our worksheets so that they are planned and pleasing to look x And we can certainly all learn to have our chalk handy'.

Attitudes

Respect your pupils and be realistic about what they can manage at an individual level, then your expectations will be realistic too.

As a teacher you have to appear to like all your pupils equally. Although at times this will certainly include the ability to act, the children should not be aware of it. Children learning a foreign language or any other subject need to know that the teacher likes them. Young children have a very keen sense of fairness. It will make all the difference in the world if you yourself feel secure in what you are doing. Knowing where you are going and what you are doing is essential. You can build up your own security by planning, reading, assessing and talking to others. Hopefully this book will help you to know what you are doing.

Helping the children to feel secure

Once children feel secure and content in the classroom, they can be encouraged to become independent and adventurous in the learning of the language.

Security is not an attitude or an ability, but it is essential if we want our pupils to get the maximum out of the language lessons.

Here are some of the things which will help to create a secure class atmosphere:

As we said above, know what you're doing. Pupils need to know what is happening, and they need to feel that you are in charge.

-       Whenever a pupil is trying to tell you something, accept whatever he or she says - mistakes as well. Constant, direct correction is not effective and it does not help to create a good class atmosphere. Correction has its place when you are working on guided language exercises, but not when you are using the language for communication. We talk about this again in the chapter on oral work.

-       Just as Terry's ideal teacher is one 'who doesn't mind children getting things wrong, sometimes', ideal pupils shouldn't laugh at others' mistakes, and this has to be one of the rules of the class. Children of all ages are sometimes unkind to

- each other without meaning to be and are sometimes unkind to each other deliberately. Pupils have to be told that everyone makes mistakes when they are learning a new language, and that it is all right. Establish routines: 'Good morning. It's Wednesday today, so let's hear your news.' Friday is the day you read the book of the month. Have a birthday calendar, so that you know when everybody's birthday is, and have a routine for what to do on that day. Have a weather chart so that the weather can be written up every day. Have a calendar with day, date and month. Routines of this type build up familiarity and security for both age groups.

- Give the children the responsibility for doing practical jobs in the classroom - making sure the calendar is right, sharpening the pencils, giving out the library books, watering the plants. These activities are genuine language activities and involve both taking responsibility for learning and helping others to learn.

- As we said in Chapter 1, avoid organised competition. Although it can be great fun and usually leads to a great deal of involvement, there is almost always a winner and a loser, or a winning team and a losing team. Language learning is a situation where everyone can win. Children compete naturally with each other - to see who's finished first etc., but this is something different. Avoid giving physical rewards or prizes. It tells others that they have not 'won' and it does not help learning to take place. It is far better to tell the pupil that you like his or her work, or put it up on the display board, or read the story aloud for the others or do whatever seems appropriate. This gives the pupil a sense of achievement which doesn't exclude the other pupils. Include, don't exclude. Don't give children English names. Language is a personal thing, and you are the same person no matter what language you are using.

- **The physical surroundings**
- Young children respond well to surroundings which are pleasant and familiar. If at all possible, put as much on the walls as you can - calendars, posters,

- postcards, pupils' drawings, writing etc. Have plants, animals, any kind of interesting object, anything which adds character to the room, but still leaves you space to work. Encourage the children to bring in objects or pictures or postcards and tell the rest of the class a little bit about them in English. It doesn't have to be more than, 'This postcard is from Portugal. My aunt is in Portugal.' Physical objects are very important to young children, even children of ten.

- **Arranging the desks**
- Sometimes you may not be able to change how the desks are arranged in your classroom, and sometimes you may have to make one arrangement which you can't change. You may want to arrange the desks in different ways for different lessons, but it is much simpler if you decide on the most suitable arrangement for a lesson and stick to it. Moving desks during a lesson is a very noisy and time- consuming business.
- Let's look at three ways of arranging the desks in an ordinary classroom. **Arrangement A**

With Arrangement A, you can teach the whole class easily, and you can have group work for some of the time, with the class working in groups of four. It is good for pupils to sit in groups, even if they are doing individual or class work, since it is then much more natural for them to talk to each other.

.Arrangement A also lets you do pairwork easily and leaves you a space in the middle of the classroom for more general activities. It gives you room to play _ames, tell stories, act out dialogues, etc. The front of the classroom is not always :лебest place for these activities if you want to create a feeling of involvement -^:her than performance.

Arrangement b

arrangementB works for individual and whole class work, and you can easily do - - rwork if half the class turn their backs to the teacher, or if half the pupils move # : : chairs over to their neighbour's desk. Arrangement B does not encourage *ms* -ral communication since pupils can only see the back of the heads of the pupils ш " ;nt of them, so it is not as suitable as Arrangement A for language work.

Arrangement C works in the same way as Arrangement B, But is more flexible and leaves; you with space in the middle of the classroom.

Grouping the children

As we said in Chapter 1, it is important to keep in mind that not all children will take to pair and groupwork at once. Particularly five and six year olds are often happiest working alone, and are not yet willing to cooperate and share. They will want to keep all the cards, read the book alone, play with all the toys in the English comer, etc. Cooperation is something which has to be nurtured and learnt, so if your pupils have been to kindergarten or play school, or if they are already part of a class, then this may not be a problem at all.

If your pupils are sitting in groups of four most of the time, as in Arrangement A on page 13, you will find that although they are working as

four individuals, they often develop a group identity. This type of arrangement makes it easier to see when pupils are ready to cooperate with other pupils, and we would recommend some sort of regular grouping, especially for the five to seven age range.

Pairwork

Pairwork is a very useful and efficient way of working in language teaching. It is simple to organise and easy to explain, and groupwork should not be attempted before the children are used to working in twos first.

- Let pupils who are sitting near each other work together. Don't move desks - and chairs should only be moved if absolutely necessary.

Establish a routine for pairwork, so that when you say, 'Now work in your pairs', pupils know what is expected of them. The routine depends on how your classroom is arranged. If the pupils are sitting in rows as in Arrangement B, then it might be that all pupils sitting in rows 1 and 3 turn round to face rows 2 and 4, while those working in row 5 work with the person next to them.

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- Pairwork means that everyone in the class is occupied, but even if everyone in the class is working on the same thing, not all pairs will finish at the same time. Do not be tempted to let the pairwork continue until everyone has finished. As soon as you see that several of the pairs have finished, ask the others to finish off and move back to their own seats.

- If you do not have an even number of pupils in the class, then let one group work as a three. If you always partner the odd pupil then you will not be able to help the others.

- Be on the lookout for pupils who simply do not like each other - it is unlikely that they will work well together. This is more of a problem with eight to ten year olds than it is with five to seven year olds.

-    Go through what you want pupils to do before you put them into their pairs.

Group-work

Everything which has been said about pair-work applies to group-work. We cannot put children into groups, give them an exercise and assume that it will work.

Introducing group-work

If your pupils are not used to working in groups in other classes or if they do not naturally develop a group identity, as they may do if they are sitting permanently in a group (Arrangement A), then you can introduce them gradually to group-work.

4)   Start by having teaching groups - groups which you teach separately from the rest of the class. This allows you to give some pupils more individual attention.

5)   Then you can go on to introducing self-reliant groups - groups which are given something to do on their own, with the teacher only giving help when needed.

6)   Start with just one group. Tell them clearly what the purpose is - 'I want you to make me a poster', and why they are working together - 'If there are four of you, you can help each other and share the work.'

7)   Go through this process with all the groups before you let the whole class work in groups at the same time.

Numbers

Limit numbers in the group to between three and five.

Motivation in the Classroom

Children locked into classroom discussion are no different than adults locked into boring, irrelevant meetings. If you do not understand how something relates to your

goals, you will not care about that thing. If an adult cannot see the relevance of the material covered in a meeting, and has no desire to score political points, he will tune out or drop out. If a child does not understand how knowing the elements of the periodic table will help to address the concerns of his life, and he is not particularly interested in pleasing the teacher, he will do the same.

Because we do not want our children to be motivated solely by a desire to please the teacher, what we need to address is how to make the content of the curriculum fit into the concerns of the child. Sometimes, this is easy. The child who wants to design a roof for the family doghouse will gladly sit through a lesson on the Pythagorean Theorem if he understands that the lesson will teach him how to calculate the dimensions of the roof he needs. If a piece of content addresses a particular concern of a student or even a general area of interest, that student will not tune it out.

Most children, as they work through their years of school do, in fact, find areas of study they genuinely enjoy. But these areas are different for different people. The general problem of matching individual interests to fixed curricula is one that is impossible to solve. People obviously have different backgrounds, beliefs, and goals. What is relevant for one will not be relevant to another. Of course, we can force something to be relevant to students—we can put it on the test. But this only makes it have the appearance of significance; it does not make it interesting.Some children decide not to play the game this system offers. Instead, they continue to search for ways in which what is taught makes sense in their day-to- day lives, becoming frustrated as they realize that much of what is covered is irrelevant to them. If children are unwilling to believe that their own questions do not matter, then they can easily conclude that it is the material covered in class that does not matter.

What is left, then, if the content has no intrinsic value to a student? Any teacher knows the answer to this question. When students don't care about what they are learning, tests and grades force them to learn what they don't care about knowing. Of course, students can win this game in the long run by instantly forgetting the

material they crammed into their heads the night before the test. Unfortunately, this happens nearly every time. What is the point of a system that teaches students to temporarily memorize facts? The only facts that stay are the ones we were forced to memorize again and again, and those we were not forced to memorize at all but that we learned because we truly needed to know them, because we were motivated to know them. Motivation can be induced artificially, but its effects then are temporary. There is no substitute for the real thing.

A visitor walks into a third grade classroom in Kazakhstan. For the most part, all of the students are actively participating and enthusiastic.

The theories about motivated are as varied as the types of students that populate today's classrooms. Some focus on curiosity, and some focus on intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, still other theories focus on what the teachers should do.

High school students are still a curious lot. The curiosity, however, is not the wide-eyed, trusting soul that was in that third grade classroom. Instead, they are ready to question what the teacher says, investigate things that we as adults know they should stay away from, and rebel against the concepts they feel unfair or unjust. They do not have the wide-eyed, what-ever-the-teacher-says-is-right attitude.

As we walk down the hallway of the high school or listen in the teacher's lounge, we find that there are as many varied ways to teach as there are waysstudents learn. In one room, there is the teacher who sits on the desk and speaks in a near-monotone voice. In another room, there is the teacher who reads without expression to the students, believing that they are following along. Still another teacher is telling the students exactly what information is on the test and how to write to it. Further down the hall, however, the teacher is moving around the room, asking the students questions that incite them to think and respond without the threat of right or wrong answers. Many of these questions begin with "What do you think..."

Although there are still students who sleep in the last teacher's classroom, there are more interaction and more participation and, for the most part, more learning.

Intrinsic motivation influences learners to choose a task, get energized about it, and persist until they accomplish it successfully, regardless of whether it brings an

immediate reward. Intrinsic motivation is present when learners actively seek out and participate in activities without having to be rewarded by materials or activities outside the learning task. The first-grader who practices handwriting because she likes to see neat, legible letters like those displayed on the letter chart is intrinsically motivated. The fourth-grader who puts together puzzles of states and countries because she likes to see the finished product and wants to learn the names of the capital cities is intrinsically motivated. The ninth-grader, who repeats typing drills because he likes the feel of his fingers hopping across the keys, and connects that sense with the sight of correctly spelled words on the page, has intrinsic motivation. Before we begin, consider the two most obvious features of the behavior of motivated learners: energy and determination. Motivated learners have more than just a vision of a goal they want to achieve. They have a passion or interest for achieving that goal. Motivated learners initiate actions, expend effort, and persist in that effort. As you become acquainted with the various theories, think about how they apply to your learners and keep this question in mind: How can this theory account for the energy and direction of a motivated learner?

Person-as-Machine: Bio behavioral Motivation Theories

Teacher: Now Schoolboy, do you see why we have to do this stuff?

Schoolboy: It's boring. I really don't care about all this stuff!

Teacher: Schoolboy, do you care about passing this course?

Schoolboy: Is that a threat?

Teacher: Schoolboy, when I was in high school, I had a teacher who said there are only two things in life that are required.

Schoolboy: School is one of them, right?

Teacher: No, death and taxes. You got to die and you got to pay taxes. Everything else is optional.

Schoolboy: So you mean I don't have to do this stuff?

Teacher: You don't have to do this stuff. You don't have to read the paper ind know what's going on in the world. You don't have to graduate from high school. You don't have to get a job.

Schoolboy: Brother...

Teacher: I'll be happy to help you if you want help.

Schoolboy: I get it. I'll do it!

How to win the hearts and minds of learners has been a concern of educational psychologists since the foundation of their science. In any given classroom, some learners will participate enthusiastically while others will not, but the explanation for this disparity is not always apparent. Over the years educational psychologists have used the term "motivation" to account for variations in the energy and direction of learners' behavior. But as we will see, motivation means very different things to different psychologists.

Since no one has ever seen, touched, or weighed motivation, educational psychologists typically use metaphors to help them describe this phenomenon. The use of metaphors to describe complicated mental phenomena is familiar to you from earlier chapters of this book: Piaget uses the "balance" metaphor to help explain cognitive development, and cognitive psychologists use the metaphor of the mind as an information processing system. Likewise, various other metaphors have been the principal source of motivation theory and research (Weiner, 1991).

The earliest theories of motivation assumed that the forces that give energy and direction to human behavior were beyond human control. These theories propose that either internal or external forces beyond our control cause people to display motivated or unmotivated behavior.

Aristotle tells us that we are the sum of our actions and motivation. His words resonate with me personally. As a teacher we appreciate the premise that an individual's cumulative actions can result in a fantastic end product. At School, we have taken this even further. We have taken action this year and we have done so collectively and we can only pay tribute to the outcome. We have had a remarkable year at school and the school has grown from strength to strength.

Traditionally, many would see one of my roles as a teaching and leading role. We have been fortunate this year to learn a great deal myself. We have learned that School is the sum of all our actions and that each child, parent, teacher, staff

member and heads have all acted together to further enhance and develop motivation and excellence in our School.

We have seen our heads giving focused and knowledgeable expertise to provide solid financial and strategic direction for School. We have witnessed our Parents Association and indeed our parents, giving selflessly and enthusiastically in a fellowship, fund raising and supportive role. We are grateful for the positive, motivating role that they have played this year.

We have continued to learn that the teachers at School are a remarkable group of individuals whose collective actions deserve our thanks and admiration. We need to find the words to thank a teacher and to pay tribute to their actions and teacher motivation in the classroom, on the sports field, culturally and musicallyand probably most importantly, the guiding and nurturing role that they play on a daily basis in their students' lives.

School's boys and girls have also contributed to a most successful year. Through their actions they have shown motivation in the classroom and grasped the opportunities available to them with both hands. They have worked hard and played straight and they have been fine ambassadors to the School, their parents and most importantly - to themselves.

We are all destined to make choices and those choices do largely control our actions. We are most fortunate and grateful that School is filled with so many motivated people who make positive choices, which ultimately lead to so many meaningful and productive actions.

2.3 Modern Assumptions and Techniques of Integrated Skills In Primary Education.

The aim of this **passage** is to outline the main features of the four language skills and to demonstrate some useful techniques. The ideas are based on the *Kid's English* series. The only materials the teacher and the class need are the **board, paper and pens.**

Although language often involves the use of all four skills, for the sake of

their improvement, we are going to focus on each skill separately:

Listening involves various sub-skills like listening for gist, listening for specific information, listening for general comprehension, etc.

The listening activities, according to *Kid' English,* contain three main stages:

- **Warm-up** - This introduces the learners to the topic and focuses their attention, either by provoking them to make suggestions, or by pre-teaching some new vocabulary.

- **Listen and respond** - This is the main part of the activity. The pupils listen to a text and respond to what they hear in a variety of ways. Here are some techniques:

8) **Listen and complete** -The pupils listen and use the information to complete a picture, a map, a diagram.

9) **Listen and correct-** The pupils listen to a text, which contains a number of factual mistakes.

10) **Listen and do** - The pupils listen to e series of instructions or actions and do them as they hear them. */Ex. Simon says, Polite robots, Your nose is a pencil - some of these games were demonstrated.)?*

11) **Listen and draw** - The pupils listen to a description of a person, a place or an object and draw it as they listen. */Draw a tree, draw a box under the tree, draw a cat in the box, ect.*

12) **Listen and guess** -The pupils listen to a description of a person, a place, an object and try to guess who or what it is? */Ex. I'm thing of a person. The Ss ask*

questions-Is it a boy or a girl? Has he got black hair? What colour are his/her eyes?

13) **Listen and match** - The pupils listen to a description and match it to people, pictures, objects, places.

- **Fallow -up** -This stage gives the pupils the opportunity to practice what they have learned using the other language skills.

The procedure is:

1) To explain clearly what we want the pupils to do and to check that they have understood it.
2) First listening -we read the text, act out the story, play the record/ the pupils just listen.
3) The pupils do the task while they listen.
4) Get the pupils to check their answers in pairs.
5) Then we check the answers with the whole class.
6) We can check the answers on the board, or use some parts of the text to work on in detail.

The good thing about this Oxford series is that the same topics re-occur in all four books, only each time the focus is on a different skill.

Reading involves various sub-skills similar to the ones in listening:

- reading for detail (intensive reading)
- reading for gist (skimming)
- reading for special information (scanning)
- predicting content
- inferring meaning from content and context

Some typical techniques are:

1) **Read and complete -** The pupils read a text and use the information to complete a list, a table, a chart or a picture.

2) **Read and correct** - The pupils correct mistakes in a text.

3) **Read and draw** - the pupils read a text and draw what is described.

4) **Read and guess** - the pupils read a text and guess what is described./Some *riddles were read*

5) **Read and match** - The pupils match the information in a text with other reading texts or pictures.

6)   **Read and reorder -** The pupils read a text in muddled order and number the sentences or paragraphs in the correct order. Or they physically reorder sentences on separate stripes of paper.

7)   **Read and sort -**Two texts mixed together. The pupils have to sort them out.

The main stage of each activity has six basic steps:

-     Put up the text.

-     Set the skimming or scanning task.

-     Set the read and respond task.

-     Give the pupils time to read the text individually

-     Let the pupils compare their answers in pairs.

-     Go to the answers with the whole class and discuss them.

Many of the follow-up activities are aimed at extending the pupils' vocabulary. Some ideas are:

-     Wall poster- pupils own work displayed on the wall */projects/*

-     Reading cards - short texts+ activities -a kind of lending library

Speaking - The aim is to achieve oral communication that means to be able to convey messages. Each activity has three main stages:

-     **Setting up** - This introduces the pupils to the topic

-     **Speaking practice** - This is the main part of the activity. The pupils communicate with each other in pairs or groups or compete as a team.

The speaking part is a kind of bridge for the learners between the classroom and the world outside.

Learning new language in the classroom - **speaking practice** - using language to communicate in real life.

In order to build the bridge, speaking activities must have three features. They must give the learners **practice opportunities** for **purposeful communication** in **meaningful situations.** */Suggestions-interviews, foreign guest,ect.*

Some examples of **speaking techniques** are:

   1. **Ask and answer -** Learners ask and answer questions. */Ex. With a ball/*

2. **Describe and draw -** In pairs. Learner A has a picture, which learner **B** cannot see. Learner A describes the picture to the partner and learner **B** draws it.
3. **Discussion -** learners work in pairs or groups to find out each other's ideas : r opinions on a topic.
4. **Guessing** - The teacher, or some of the learners, have information which the others have to guess by asking questions.
5. **Remembering** - learners close their eyes and try to remember, for example, items from a picture or the location of objects in the classroom.
6. **Miming-** A learner mimes, for example, a feeling or action which the others have to identify.
7. **Ordering** - learners arrange themselves in a particular order (for example alphabetical) by asking questions until they find their correct position.
8. **Completing a form/questionnaire** - learners ask and answer questions, or provide information, in order to complete a form or questionnaire.
9. **Pole play** - learners act out an imaginary situation. They either use a dialogue, or the teacher gives them instructions about what to say.

Writing includes so many other elements such as handwriting, spelling, syntax, grammar, paragraphing, ideas, etc. For the Ss in primary school the most important writing skills are mastering the Roman alphabet, copying, handwriting, spelling and basic sentence formation. The three main stages of the activities are:

- **Lead-in** -This introduces the learners to the topic and focuses their mention. It helps them to start thinking about the topic and to practice some of the language they will be needed.

- **Organizing texts** - This stage provides controlled writing practice in preparation for a free writing task.

- **Creating texts** -This stage gives the learners the opportunity to use the knowledge they have acquired in the previous two stages in producing their own text. The T provides a context and a reason for writing.

Some text organization techniques are:

1. **Completion** - The learners fill in the blanks in a text or a crossword puzzle with an appropriate word or phrase.
2. **Describing a picture** - The learners write a description of a picture.

3. **Joining** - The learners join words or sentences using a linking word, such as "and" or "but".

4. **Matching** — The learners have to match the two separate halves of sentences which are written in the form of two lists.

5. **Reordering** - Sentences or texts are given to the Ls in muddled order and they have to rearrange them in the correct order.

Creating texts techniques:

6. **Writing from a picture** - The learners use a picture as a starting-off point for creating a text.

7. **Responding to a text** -The learners are given a text to read before they write, for example, a poem or a letter. The text acts as a source of inspiration.

8. **Survey and report** - Here a writing text is proceeded by a speaking task, in which the learners have to gather information from each other and use it to write a report.

9. **Visualization** - The learners close their eyes and visualize a scene which the T. describes to them. They then write about the scene they have imagined.

As we outlined the main features of the four language skills, let's practice them in a fun way by using flashcards.

- **Listen and respond** - Either stick the flashcard around the room or ask some of the to hold them up. Say a word and ask the children to point to the flashcard. Instead of just saying words, you can say the word in a short sentence. Ex. I like bananas. Tell the Ss to listen for the key word and point to the flashcard.

- **Stop** - Use about 5 flashcards. Say a word, then show the Ss the flashcards :ne at a time. The children shout "Stop!" when they see the picture. You can do '-his slowly at first and then speed up.

- **Help the teacher** -Hold up a card for the Ss to see without looking at it yourself. Guess what the picture is. Is it a banana? Tell the Ss to answer Yes or No.

- **Jump-** Ask the Ss to stand up. Show them a flashcard and say a word. Tell the children to jump if the word is the same as the picture on the flashcard or to stand still if it is different.

- **Say the name** - Hand some flashcards out around the class. Ask the

children with the cards to hold them up for all to see. Say Who's got the banana? And tell the other children to answer with the name of the child who has that flashcard.

- **Echo** -Ask the pupils in LI what an echo is. Ask them to be your echo. Show them a flashcard and say the word. Ask the pupils to echo it by repeating the word several times, becoming quieter and quieter. You can make it more fun by saying the word in different ways.

- **Repeat** - Ask all of the pupils to stand up in their places. Show the flashcards one at a time saying a word. Tell the pupils to repeat the word if it is the same as the picture on the flashcard and to remain silent if it is different. Tell any of the children who get it wrong to sit down and to help you to spot any children who get any other words wrong.

- **Bit by bit** - Cover the flashcard with a piece of white paper. Reveal the picture bit by bit and ask the children to guess what it is.

- **Flash** - Flash a flashcard, at first very quickly and then more slowly, until someone says the word.

- **What's in my right hand?** - Show two or three flashcards and ask the children to say the words. Put them behind your back, swap them around a few times and ask the pupils which card is in your right hand.

- **Guess** - Choose a flashcard without the pupils seeing which one and ask them to guess which one you have chosen.

- **Who's got it?-**Hand out some flashcards around the class. The pupils with the cards hold them up for all to see. Say the name of a child. The rest of the pupils say the word on their flashcard.

- **Disappearing words** -Put several flashcards on the board. Point at them one at the time and the pupils say the word. Remove a card and repeat the process until pupils are chanting all the words with no prompts.

- **Memory** - Put five flashcards on the board. Give the pupils time to memorize them then take them away and ask the pupils to say the words.

- **Extra** - Put five flashcards on the board and say four of the words. Tell the pupils to say the extra word.

- **What's missing?-**Put five flashcards on the board. Ask one student to go out of the room. Remove a flashcard from the board (or ask a child to do this). Tell the child who went out to come back into the room and say which word is missing?

- **What I am thinking of?** - Use about four cards. Put them where everyone can see them. Think of one of them and give the pupils two guesses to find out which one you are thinking of. If they guess correctly, they get a point. If they don't, the T. gets a point

The role of games on language lessons

Games offer students a fun-filled and relaxing learning atmosphere. After learning and practicing new vocabulary, students have the opportunity to use language in a non-stressful way. While playing games, the learners' attention is on the message, not on the language. Rather than pay attention to the correctness of linguistic forms, most participants will do all they can to win. This eases the fear of negative evaluation, the concern of being negatively judged in public, and which is one of the main factors inhibiting language learners from using the target language in front of other people. In a game-oriented context, anxiety is reduced and speech fluency is generated - thus communicative competence is achieved.

Games are also motivating. Games introduce an element of competition into language-building activities. This provides valuable impetus to a purposeful use of language. In other words, these activities create a meaningful context for language use. The competitive ambiance also makes learners concentrate and think intensively during the learning process, which enhances unconscious acquisition of inputs. Most students who have experienced game-oriented activities hold positive attitudes towards them. Students said

that they liked the relaxed atmosphere, the competitiveness, and the motivation that games brought to the classroom. On the effectiveness of games, we reported that action research reported that their students seem to learn more quickly and retain the learned materials better in a stress-free and comfortable environment.

The benefits of using games in language-learning can be summed up in nine points. Games:

1. learner centered.
- promote communicative competence.
- create a meaningful context for language use.
- increase learning motivation.
- reduce learning anxiety.
- integrate various linguistic skills.
- encourage creative and spontaneous use of language.
- construct a cooperative learning environment.
- foster participatory attitudes of the students.

There are many advantages of using games in the classroom:

1. Games are a welcome break from the usual routine of the language class.
2. They are motivating and challenging.
3. Learning a language requires a great deal of effort. Games help students to make and sustain the effort of learning.
4. Games provide language practice in the various skills- speaking, writing, listening and reading.
5. They encourage students to interact and communicate.
6. They create a meaningful context for language use.'

Why Use Games in Class Time?

Games are fun and children like to play them. Through games children experiment, discover, and interact with their environment.

Games add variation to a lesson and increase motivation by providing a plausible incentive to use the target language. For many children between four and twelve years old, especially the youngest, language learning will not be the key motivational factor. Games can provide this stimulus.

The game context makes the foreign language immediately useful to the children. It brings the target language to life.

The game makes the reasons for speaking plausible even to reluctant children.

Through playing games, students can learn English the way children learn their mother tongue without being aware they are studying; thus without stress, they can learn a lot. Even shy students can participate positively.

How to Choose Games

A game must be more than just fun.

A game should involve "friendly" competition.

A game should keep all of the students involved and interested.

A game should encourage students to focus on the use of language rather than on the language itself.

A game should give students a chance to learn, practice, or review specific language material.

Examples of some games and activities

PREPOSITIONS OF TIME AND PLACE
- MAGAZINE SEARCH

Materials: Magazines to share in groups
Dynamic: Small groups
Time: 15 minutes
Procedure: 1. On the board, write a list of prepositions of place that the students have studied. Divide the students into groups of three or four and give each group several magazines. You may want to ask students to bring in their own. If you are supplying them, be sure that they have full-page ads or other large pictures [15].
- Give the groups a time limit and have them search through their magazines to find a picture that contains situations illustrating prepositions of place.
- When the time is up, each group goes to the front, of the class, holds up its picture, and explains (in sentences) the contents of the picture, using prepositions of place.
Example: The dog is under the table.
The table is next to the man.
The table is in front of the window.
4. The group that found a picture allowing them to correctly use the most prepositions of place from the list on the board wins.
NOTE: With an intermediate group, choose a wider range of prepositions that they have already reviewed.
2. SCAVENGER HUNT
Materials: Worksheet 1.1, objects filled in various objects provided by instructor.
Dynamic: Pairs
Time: 20 minutes
Procedure: 1. Before students come into the classroom, distribute various objects around the room, placing them in visible positions that students can describe using their prepositions of place. List the objects on the worksheet.
- Divide the class into pairs and give each pair a copy of the worksheet.
- The students look around the room for each object listed on the worksheet and write a complete sentence describing its location. The first group to finish brings their worksheet to you to be checked. If the answers are correct, that group wins [16].
3.TIC TAC TOE
Materials: Board, Worksheet 1.4 (optional)
Dynamic: Teams
Time: 10 minutes
Procedure: 1. Draw a tic tac toe grid on the board with the first word of the phrasal verbs written in. Divide the class into two groups.
2. A student from Team X comes to the board and writes in the corresponding particle for the verb he/she selects. If correct, he/she draws his/her mark in the square (an X). (You may choose to accept only combinations you have studied in class or that are listed in the students' books, or you may decide toaccept any correct combination. Whichever you decide to accept, make your decision clear to the students before playing the game.)

- A student from Team O then comes to the board and does the same. If an answer is incorrect, the student cannot draw his/her mark and erases the answer. The next player on the other team may choose that same square or another square.
- The first team with three marks in a row wins.
NOTE: You will probably want to explain game strategy such as blocking, but often the student's choice is based on which verb he/she knows.

-       As a follow-up, divide the class into groups of three and use the worksheet. One student is X, one is 0, and the other is in charge and can have his/her book open to the verb page to judge whether an answer is correct. After the first game, the students should rotate roles so that the judge is now one of the players. Continue until all students have had a chance to be the judge. As you will see, some of the verbs on the handout take several different prepositions. As long as the students make an acceptable phrasal verb, the answer is correct.

NOTE: The items on the worksheet come from the list in Fundamentals of English Grammar. If this worksheet is not appropriate to your class, modify it.

Variation: On the grid on the board (or on a modified worksheet), fill in the squares with both parts of phrasal verbs. When a student selects a certain square, he/she must use the phrasal verb in a complete sentence which demonstrates understanding of the meaning. If the sentence is correct, the student puts his/her team's mark in that square.

Example:

ask out do over fill up

get off give up try on

turn off make up hang up

A student from Team X chooses "give up." The student then makes a

sentence orally: I couldn't understand the assignment, so I gave up. The sentence

must reflect the student's understanding of the meaning of the phrasal verb. A

sentence such as I gave up or Don't give up is not acceptable. If a sentence isaccepted as

being correct, the student writes an X over the square. A student from Team O then

chooses a square and makes a meaningful sentence using that phrasal verb. Alternate turns

until one team has three in a row or the game is a draw.

Cooperative learning activities are also motivating. These techniques have been found to increase the self-confidence of students, including weaker ones, because every participant m a cooperative task Yias an important ro\e to p\ay. Knowing that their team-mates are counting on them can increase students' motivation. There are some examples of them which I have used in practice:

Inside - Outside Circle:

Step 1: The students work in teams on certain material.

Step 2: The students form two big circles on the floor, one inside the other. If, for example, there are 6 teams of 4 students, 3 teams form the inner circle and the other 3 the outer circle. The inner circle looks outwards, the outer circle inwards. Each person in the inner circle has a partner in the outer circle. The students now exchange material or discuss with their partner.

Step 3: The students in the outer circle (or inner circle) move 4 persons to the right (or left), so that everyone is now facing a new partner. Material is exchanged with the new partner.

Inside-outside circle is one of the most versatile structures. It appears under the categories Class building, Mastery and Information sharing. It is very good for getting the pupils/students to feel relaxed with each other in a new class, where one can, for example, use it to get them to talk about themselves in English. If so, Stage 1, of course, is removed and the rotation is one person at a time - as long as one wishes.

3-Step Interview

Step 1: Pair-work: student A interviews student B.

Step 2: Partners switch roles

Step 3: Team work: Round Robin: the students explain in turn what their partner said.

'3-step interview' is categorised as an information-sharing structure. It can be used to process material in numerous ways. One example could be that the students interview each other about which of the two tales they have read they like the better and why, which person in a short story they find most appealing/realistic/interesting and why, etc. In the process, the person being interviewed will not only have to express himself or herself in the target language - (s)he will also become involved in an interpretation process. One could also imagine the students interviewing each other about what they would consider working on if they themselves were to plan the next sequence, etc.

Travelling Heads Together

Step 1: The team is given a task. They discuss until they arrive at an answer and make sure they all agree about it and can defend it.

Step 2: A student from each team (e.g. with the aid of a student selector5) goes to the next group, where (s)he explains the team's answer.

Travelling heads together is a variation of the structure Numbered Heads Together, which is categorised as a Mastery structure. In the original structure, where the selected student gives the answer to the whole class, the emphasis is on the work done in the first team to master the material. But when the student is instead sent on to the next team, the structure becomes just as much an information-sharing structure, as the presentation to the new team is not only proof of the material having been mastered but also a sharing of this new knowledge. One can thus choose to let various teams work on various questions and share the answers in this way.'

CONCLUSION

The findings of the study reveal that Uzbekistan students learn a foreign language both for extrinsic and intrinsic reasons. In view of the understanding that intrinsic motivation is very important in promoting success, it is essential that students, whose initial reason for taking up a foreign language course is extrinsic in nature, be constantly encouraged with the hope that they would come to love the learning process. The evidence in the study also suggests that compulsory foreign language requirement may have enhanced intrinsic motivation. Therefore, foreign language program providers in Uzbekistan need to take into consideration different impulses due to different policies which lead students to learn these foreign languages. The content of the courses and the methods of classroom teaching can then be planned based on the different needs and motivation of the learners.

Realizing the importance of producing graduates who are competent in foreign languages in order to compete globally, it is necessary for institutions of higher learning to encourage their students to be interested to learn foreign languages as motivation has been found to influence success, rate of attrition, interest and enrollment rate. Hence, efforts in enhancing the motivation should continue so that foreign language ability is realized as an asset to graduates of Uzbekistan institutions of higher learning for their future career.

In the present qualification work we attempted to investigate the problem of game using at English language lessons, one of the main problems in theory of English grammar teaching. We chose the theme of our qualification work because we interested in it. We used different kind of references to investigate the role of games in teaching English.

Recently, using games has become a popular technique exercised by many educators in the classrooms and recommended by methodologists. Many

sources, including the ones quoted in this work, list the advantages of the use of games in foreign language classrooms. Yet, nowhere have we found any empirical evidence for their usefulness in vocabulary presentation and consolidation.

Though the main objectives of the games were to acquaint students with new