MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND SECONDARY SPECIAL EDUCATION OF THE REPUBLIC OF UZBEKISTAN

URGENCH STATE UNIVERSITY FACULTY OF PHILOLOGY

FINAL QUALIFICATION WORK

for defending bachelor's degree on 5111400 - «Foreign language and literature» (the English Language)

Theme: "Motivational Variables in Second Language Acquisition"

Scientific supervisor:

senior teacher. Jumaniyozova .N

Urgench – 2018

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION	3
CHAPTER ONE	
THEORETICAL BACKGROUND: DEFINITION OF MOTIVA	ATION,
THEORIES AND TYPES	7
1.1. The emergence of the concept of motivation	7
1.2. Main theories in the sphere of SLA	16
1.3. The variety of motivation in language learning process	23
CHAPTER TWO	
WAYS AND TECHNIQUES OF DEVELOPING MOTIVATIO	N AND
PRACTICAL APPROACHES TO DEFINING LEARNERS' AT	ITITUDE31
2.1. Practical techniques of developing motivation in SLL	32
2.2 Main factors in enhancing student motivation and identifying the	eir attitude39
2.3 How to motivate learners in acquiring second language	49
CONCLUSION	57
USED LITERATURE	60

INTRODUCTION

We know November 10, 2012 The First President of the Republic of Uzbekistan Islam Karimov signed a decree "On measures to further improve foreign language learning system" [2;12]. It is noted that in the framework of the Law of the Republic of Uzbekistan "On education" and the National Programmer for Training in the country, a comprehensive foreign languages' teaching system, aimed at creating harmoniously developed, highly educated, modern-thinking young generation, further integration of the country to the world community, has been created[1;17]. During the years of independence, over 51.7 thousand teachers of foreign languages graduated from universities, English, German and French multimedia tutorials and textbooks for 5-9 grades of secondary schools, electronic resources for learning English in primary schools were created, more than 5000 secondary schools, professional colleges and academic lyceums were equipped with language laboratories. However, analysis of the current system of organizing language learning shows that learning standards, curricula and textbooks do not fully meet the current requirements, particularly in the use of advanced information and media technologies. Education is mainly conducted in traditional methods. Further development of a continuum of foreign languages learning at all levels of education; improving skills of teachers and provision of modern teaching materials are required. According to the decree, starting from 2013/2014 school year foreign languages, mainly English, gradually throughout the country will be taught from the first year of schooling in the form of lesson-games and speaking games, continuing to learning the alphabet, reading and spelling in the second year (grade). Also it is envisaged that university modules, especially in technical and international areas, will be offered in English and other foreign languages at higher education institutions. The State Testing Centre, along with other relevant agencies, is tasked with preparing draft proposals on introducing foreign languages testing to the entrance examinations for all higher educational institutions. In order to increase teaching standards in distant rural areas, the higher educational

institutions are allowed targeted admission of people living in distant areas to foreign language programs on the condition that they will oblige themselves to work in the acquired specialty at their residence area for at least 5 years after graduation. The decree also envisages 30% salary increase for foreign language teachers in rural areas, 15% increase for those in other areas. The National TV and Radio Company, State Committee for communications, informatisation and telecommunication technologies, Agency for Press and Information of the Republic of Uzbekistan are tasked to prepare and broadcast language-learning programs, significantly increase access to international educational resources via "Ziyonet" educational network, promote publication of foreign language textbooks, magazines and other materials.

The actuality of the theme: It is true that foreign language teaching is very complicated process. Giving knowledge to learner and teaching effectively are important things in language teaching process. But there is also another notion what is called motivation what supports learners to learn better and effectively. It is also one of the main notions in language teaching methodology. Teacher should realize what motivation is and be aware about the types and ways of developing motivation. The language learners are different and some of them may need motivation while dealing with language. So, to study motivation helps to have affective teaching process.

Level of studying the theme: On the tendency of teaching foreign language a plenty of scientists worked including Миролюбов.А.А; Wlodkowski. R.J; Stipek D. J.; Weiner B; Dornyei. Z ; Gardner. R. C; Wlodkowski. R.J. and others. In their works given above you can see instructions, ideas, recommendations and samples of new language teaching methods. However they did not consider language teaching process only, but also creating language atmosphere, easy acceptable samples of tasks. Anyway they are very useful on language teaching process.

Aim and tasks of research: The main purpose of working on this research is to develop learners' motivation variables and clarify their attitude to language

4

learning, in order to increase their activeness and extend their outlook during the process, realizing their psychology, feelings and attitudes to the subject.

Practical value of the work: The practical value of the research is that the material and the results of the given qualification work can serve as the material for practical courses of not only foreign language teaching and learning but other subjects too.

Scientific novelty of research:

- Making the lesson enjoyable during the teaching process.
- Finding and using different types of motivation variables in teaching.
- Using modern technology; internet sources like in order learner can ask any question belonging to the subject, even several real life questions.

Structure of the research: The research work consists of Introduction, two chapters, conclusion and list of used literature.

Chapter one is called as "Theoretical background: Definition of motivation, theories and types " and it is devoted to highlight information about the emergence of the concept of motivation, theories in the sphere of SLA and about variety of motivation in language learning process

Chapter two called "Ways and techniques of developing motivation and practical approaches to defining learners' attitude" focuses on practical techniques of developing motivation in SLL, main factors in enhancing student motivation and identifying their attitude and about how to motivate learners in acquiring second language.

In broad terms "Motivation" is an abstract, hypothetical concept that we use to explain why people think and behave as they do. It is obvious that in this sense the term includes a whole variety of motives – from financial encouragements such as a raise in salary to idealistic beliefs such as the desire for freedom – that have very little in common except that they all influence behaviour. Thus, "motivation" is best seen as a broad umbrella term that covers a variety of meanings. Why do we use "motivation" if its meaning is so vague? My guess is simply because it is a very convenient way of referring to what is a rather complex issue. For example,

when we say that a certain student is "motivated", most teachers and parents can well imagine what we mean -a keen, committed and enthusiastic learner who has good reasons for learning, who studies with vigour and intensity, and who demonstrates perseverance – yet it would be rather unwieldy to be more specific and list all these attributes. Similarly, we will have no problem imagining an `unmotivated' learner, even though, again, it might be quite complicated to describe exactly what this "unmotivation" consists of. The term is just as useful for theoreticians and researchers as for practitioners because it highlights one basic aspect of the human mind. This aspect is related to what one wants/desires, in contrast to characteristics related to what one rationally thinks or feels. This triadic distinction of the human mind has been around for hundreds of years, and it is certainly a useful division when we consider specific learners: Aren't a student's "keenness", "cleverness" and "temperament" obvious features to consider when we start describing someone in our class. To summarise, "motivation" is related to one of the most basic aspects of the human mind, and most teachers and researchers would agree that it has a very important role in determining success or failure in any learning situation.

About the content of this research: This research work is entirely devoted to discussing motivational variables, that is, types, methods and techniques to generate and maintain the learners' motivation. Although a great deal has been written in the past about what motivation is, describing its components and dimensions and how these influence learning, very little has been said about how this theoretical knowledge can be applied in the actual classroom. If classroom practitioners are thinking (rightly) that researchers have generally left them to their own strategy by not saying too much practically relevant about the topic, this research is intended to offer some remedy to that situation.

CHAPTER ONE

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND: DEFINITION OF MOTIVATION, THEORIES AND TYPES

This chapter one is called as "Theoretical background: Definition of motivation, theories and types " and it is devoted to highlight information about the emergence of the concept of motivation, theories in the sphere of SLA and about variety of motivation in language learning process. Motivation has been defined and clarified by scores of scholars maintaining that the term `motivation' is a convenient way of talking about a concept which is generally seen as a very important human characteristic but which is also immensely complex.

1.1. The emergence of the concept of motivation

Basically, human behavior has two basic dimensions – direction and magnitude/ intensity – motivation by definition concerns both of these. It is responsible for:

- The *choice* of a particular action;
- 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. All motivation theories in the past have been formed to answer these three questions but, quite frankly, none of them have succeeded fully. This is not very surprising, though: human behaviour is very complex, influenced by a great number of factors ranging from basic physical needs through well-being needs to higher level values and beliefs such as the desire for freedom or one's faith in God. Can we blame motivational psychologists for not yet coming up with a comprehensive theory to explain the interrelationship of all these diverse motives?

In Maslow's famous "Hierarchy of Needs", distinguished between five basic classes of needs, which he defined as:

• *Physiological* needs (e.g. hunger, thirst, sexual frustration);

- *Safety needs* (need for security, order and protection from pain and fear);
- *Love needs* (need for love, affection and social acceptance);
- *Esteem needs* (need to gain competence, approval and recognition);
- *Self-actualisation needs* (need to realise one's potential and capabilities, and gain understanding and insight).

Classrooms are rather intricate microcosms where students spend a great deal of their life. Besides being the venue where students acquire skills and learn about the world, classrooms are also where they make friends, fall in love, rebel against the previous generation, find out who they are and what the purpose of life is . . . in short, where they grow up. Pure theories of motivation, that is, models that represent a single theoretical perspective and are therefore anchored around a few selected motivational factors, while largely ignoring research that follows different lines, do not lend themselves to effective classroom application. So much is going on in a classroom at the same time that no single motivational principle can possibly capture this complexity. Therefore, in order to understand why students behave as they do, we need a detailed and most likely eclectic construct that represents multiple perspectives. Although some key motives do stand out in terms of their general impact on learning behaviours, there are many more motivational influences that are also fundamental in the sense that their absence can cancel or significantly weaken any other factors whereas their active presence can boost student achievement. According to Dornye there are three levels:

- 1. *The Language Level* encompasses various components related to aspects of the L2, such as the culture and the community, as well as the intellectual and pragmatic values and benefits associated with it. That, is, this level represents the traditionally established elements of L2 motivation associated with integrativeness and instrumentality.
- 2. *The Learner Level* involves individual characteristics that the learner brings to the learning process, most notably self-confidence.
- 3. The Learning Situation Level is associated with situation-specific motives rooted in various aspects of L2 learning within a classroom setting: course-

specific motivational components related to the syllabus, the teaching materials, the teaching method and the learning tasks; teacher-specific motivational components concerning the motivational impact of the teacher's personality, behaviour and teaching style/practice; and group-specific motivational components related to the characteristics of the learner group.

A process model of language learning motivation

The construct that it is described below reflects the principles of a more general and elaborate model. The new element of the model is that it is based on a process-oriented approach¹. This means that it takes a dynamic view of motivation, trying to account for the changes of motivation over time. We may be sure that this is an important consideration, because when we talk about a prolonged learning activity, such as mastering an L2, motivation cannot be viewed as a stable attribute of learning that remains constant for several months or years. Instead, what most teachers find is that their students' motivation fluctuates; going through certain ebbs and flows. Such variation may be caused by a range of factors, such as the phase of the school year.

What does "motivating someone" involve?

Motivating someone to do something can involve many different things, from trying to persuade a person directly to exerting indirect influence on him/her by arranging the conditions or circumstances in a way that the person is likely to choose the particular course of action. Sometimes simply providing a good opportunity is enough to do the trick. "Whatever form it takes, however, the motivating process is usually a long-term one, built one grain of trust and caring at a time".

Who can be motivated? "Most discussions about motivating techniques are based on the idealistic belief that all students are motivated to learn under the right conditions, and that you can provide these conditions in your classroom". Unfortunately, this assumption is not necessarily true in every case. Realistically, it is highly unlikely that everybody can be motivated to learn everything and even generally motivated students are not equally keen on every subject matter. Yet, my personal belief is in accordance with the spirit of the above statement in that I think that most students' motivation can be `worked on' and increased. Although rewards and punishments are too often the only tools present in the motivational arsenal of many teachers, the spectrum of other, and potentially more effective, motivational strategies is so broad that it is hard to imagine that none of them would work.

Whose responsibility is it to motivate learners?

"Some of the motivational techniques are closely related to subject-matter teaching, whereas others may require extra attention and time". Given the reality of constant time pressure in many school contexts, the question of `Whose job is it to improve motivation?' is a valid one. The current situation is not very promising in this respect: by-and-large, promoting learner motivation is nobody's responsibility. Teachers are supposed to teach the curriculum rather than motivate learners, and the fact that the former cannot happen without the latter is often ignored. For example, I am not aware of a single L2 teacher training programme worldwide in which the development of skills in motivating learners would be a key component of the curriculum.

We may guess is that it is every teacher's who thinks of the long-term development of his/her students. In the short run, preparing for tests might admittedly produce better immediate results than spending some of the time shaping the motivational qualities of the learner group and the individual learners. However, few of us teachers have entered the profession with the sole objective of preparing students for tests . . . Besides, motivational training might be a very good investment in the longer run, and it may also make your own life in the classroom so much more pleasant. "The real reward for motivating teachers is not on pay-day, it is when their passion is caught by the students. That is a big-time return on anyone's investment"

Motivational strategies

Motivational strategies are techniques that promote the individual's goalrelated behaviour. Because human behaviour is rather complex, there are many diverse ways of promoting it- in fact, almost any influence a person is exposed to might potentially affect his/her behaviour. Motivational strategies refer to those motivational influences that are consciously exerted to achieve some systematic and enduring positive effect. With respect to the various strategies promoting classroom L2 learning, there are several ways to organise them into separate themes: we could, for example:

- Problematic facets of the classroom's motivational life are listed and suggestions are offered on how to handle these. E.g. How to deal with student lethargy; lack of voluntary participation; or anti-learning influences of deviant children.
- Focus on key motivational concepts such as intrinsic interest, selfconfidence or student autonomy - and use these as the main organizing units.
- Centre the discussion on the main types of teacher behaviour that have motivating effects. E.g. Showing a good example and modeling student behaviour; communication and rapport with the students; consciousness raising about self-regulated strategies; or stage man-aging classroom events.

Creating the basic motivational conditions

Motivational strategies cannot be employed successfully in a "motivational vacuum" – certain preconditions must be in place before any further attempts to generate motivation can be effective. In my experience, the following three motivational conditions in particular are indispensable:

- 1. appropriate teacher behaviors and a good relationship with the students;
- 2. a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere;
- 3. a cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms

Of course, the three conditions are interrelated because, for example, you cannot have a pleasant classroom climate if there is tension between you and the students, but it is useful to look at them one by one. There are many ways of expressing that the students' learning matters. They include:

- offering concrete assistance;
- offering to meet students individually to explain things;

- responding immediately when help is requested;
- correcting tests and papers promptly;
- sending learners copies of relevant/particularly interesting articles;
- arranging extracurricular instructional programmes/opportunities;
- encouraging extra assignments and offering to assist with these;
- showing concern when things aren't going well;
- allowing students to call you at home when they have a problem (Hmm...)
- *being available for overtime (Hamm ...)*

Jere Brophy adds a further important ingredient to the commitment issue. He emphasizes that in our communication with the students we should take it for granted that the students share our enthusiasm for learning. We should make explicit references to this. In this way, as Brophy argues, "To the extent that you treat students as if they already are eager learners, they are more likely to become eager learners. Let them know that they are expected to be curious.

Developing a personal relationship with the students and achieving their respect is easier said than done. It is a gradual process built on a foundation whose components include the teacher's:

- acceptance of the students,
- *ability to listen and pay attention to them,*
- availability for personal contact

Ability to listen and pay attention to students. "Listening to a person is the `single most powerful transaction that occurs between ourselves and another person that tells that individual that we accept him as a human being". The way we listen tells learners more than anything else how much consideration we are really giving them'. That is, students need to feel that you pay personal attention to them. Of course, everybody will understand that with a whole class to look after, you cannot spend too much time with individual students. "But there is a whole variety of small gestures that do not take up much time which can convey personal attention and can touch the lives of every student in some way".

For example: greet students and remember their names, smile at them, notice interesting features of their appearance, learn something unique about each student and occasionally mention it to them, ask them about their lives outside school, show interest in their hobbies, express in your comments that you've thought about them and that their individual effort is recognized, refer back to what you have talked about before, recognize birthdays, move around in class, include personal topics and examples about students in discussing content matters, send notes/homework to absent students.

Availability is a difficult issue at a time when most teachers around the world are overburdened and pressed for time. There is no question that individual personal contact with the students can do wonders to our relationship with them.

A pleasant and supportive atmosphere in the classroom

Language learning is one of the most face-threatening school subjects because of the pressure of having to operate using a rather limited language code. Learners are forced to "babble like a child" which might just be the last straw for some whose personal identity is already unstable or damaged. In a language class learners need to take consider-able risk even to produce relatively simple answers/statements because it is all too easy to make a mistake when you have to pay attention to pronunciation, intonation, grammar and content at the same time. "No wonder that language anxiety has been found to be a powerful factor hindering L2 learning achievement". The solution, according to the general consensus amongst motivation researchers, is straightforward: We need to create a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere. So the question is: how can we create a pleasant and supportive classroom atmosphere? "Whether or not a class becomes a cohesive community is not simply a question of luck. There are a number of specific factors that can positively contribute to the process, and many of these are within the teacher's control". In the following, I will list ten important factors along with some practical examples and suggestions.

1. The amount of time spent together and the shared group history: there isn't much you can do about this one . . .

2. The extent to which group members can learn about each other: In order to help learners to get to know each other better, you can include special `ice-breaking activities' at the beginning of a new course. These are designed to set members at ease, get them to memorise each other's names, and to share personal information. Later on in the course you can provide further opportunities for students to learn more about each other by personalising certain language tasks or by choosing, in preference, activities with a potential for eliciting genuine personal information.

3. Proximity (i.e. physical distance such as sitting next to each other), contact and interaction: You may want to move students round from time to time to prevent the emergence of rigid seating patterns. Also, activities such as pair work, small group work, role-play and project work are very effective in allowing people to come into contact and interact with one another. Extracurricular activities and outings are also good ways of providing opportunities for contact and interaction.

4. Cooperation between members for common goals: student collaboration can be successfully promoted by including certain tasks - such as role-play performances, problem solving activities, project work, filling in worksheets, and preparing group reports - which require the preparation of a single `group product'

5. The rewarding nature of group experience: a commonplace yet true is that the more people enjoy the learning process in the class, the more they will want to belong to the class

6. Successful completion of whole-group tasks and a sense of group achievement: you may occasionally include whole-group tasks or projects which generate a satisfying visible product, or conclude in the solving of a puzzle or problem - after which the group can congratulate themselves on their achievement.

7. Intragroup competition: small group `fun' competitions promote inter-member relationships. You may want to put students together who would not normally make friends easily.

14

8. Common threat or joint hardship that group members have experienced: these create solidarity among the `fellow-sufferers', but I am not sure how far we can take the practical implications of this . . .

9. Group legends: you may promote the building of a kind of `group mythology' by encouraging learners to give the group a name and to invent characteristics for it. They may also establish group rituals, create a semi-official group history, prepare `group objects' and symbols (such as flags or coats of arms) and find or create appropriate group mottoes/logos.

10. Investing in the group: it has been found that when members spend a considerable amount of time and effort contributing to the group goals, this will increase their commitment towards these goals. Therefore eliciting some significant investment early in the group's life may work towards group cohesiveness.

How to discipline learners who break the rules

Much of the work that teachers usually do is taken care of by the students themselves; the group makes sure that everyone understands what to do; the group helps to keep everyone on task; group members assist one another. Instead of the teacher having to control everyone's behaviour, the students take charge of themselves and others[3;54]. Unfortunately, there will be times when the group won't do the job for us and we must confront students about misbehaviour. At times like this, the rule of thumb generally mentioned in the literature is that we should address the issue directly, trying to discuss with the students involved what they can do to engage in more positive behaviour. This may be easier if we manage to separate students from their actions in the spirit of "I accept you but not your behaviour". Educators argue that, contrary to belief, most misbehaviour in the classroom is the result of the students' low self-esteem: "Students, rather than being malicious, attention- seeking egomaniacs, are misbehaving because they're scared or insecure". In any case, if any disciplining is necessary, it should be fair, well-understood by the "victim" and consistently applied.

1.2. Main theories in the sphere of second language acquisition

Classroom teachers in primary and secondary schools, however, tend to have perceptions that are in a sharp contrast with this idyllic view. Instead of all those keen pupils who – according to the theory – should be eagerly absorbing the morsels of wisdom offered to them, what they can see are rather reluctant youngsters who are totally unaware of the fact that there should be an innate curiosity in them, let alone a desire to learn. The regrettable fact is that if school children could freely choose what to do, academic learning for many would most likely feature very low on their agenda. Let's face it: school attendance is compulsory, and "the content of the curriculum is almost always selected on the basis of what society – rather than the learners themselves – considers important". Furthermore, it is also difficult for the students who are in the most energetic years of their lives to spend what seem to them terribly long periods of time confined to the relatively small space of the classroom, and the fact that they are continuously monitored and assessed does not add to their well-being either. It is correct to start the discussion of building motivation with the question of values. Everybody from a very young age onwards has a fairly well-established value system consisting of a collection of attitudes, beliefs and feelings related to the world around us and who we are in it. This value system is the outcome of our upbringing and our past experiences, and it plays a powerful role in our lives: it largely determines our basic preferences and approaches to activities[4;120]. Therefore, the most farreaching consequences in motivating L2 learners can be achieved by promoting positive language-related values and attitudes. In the following the scholars will distinguish three relatively separate value dimensions – attitudes and values related to the:

- actual process of learning the target language intrinsic value;
- target language itself and its speakers integrative value;
- consequences and benefits of having learnt the target language-instrumental value

Increasing the learners' expectancy of success

The notion of "expectancy of success" has been one of the most researched factors in motivational psychology for the past four decades, which is due to the undeniable fact that we do things best if we believe we can succeed. Similarly, we learn best when we expect success. Of course, expectancy of success is not enough in itself if it is not accompanied by positive values; we are unlikely to initiate a task, even if we expect to succeed in it, that we do not enjoy and that does not lead to valued outcomes. Expectancy of success and values go hand in hand, which is why motivation theories that are based on these two key components are called "expectancy-value theories" Besides the obvious prerequisite that we should not give learners tasks that are too difficult for them, there are several other methods for achieving heightened success expectations:

- *Provide sufficient preparation*. The perceived likelihood of success does not depend only on how difficult the task is but also on how well the learners are prepared for the task. Pre-task activities have become standard features in modern language teaching methodologies, and these tasks increase success potential. Well-selected strategies and procedures recommended by the teacher fulfill the same role.
- *Offer assistance*. If the students know that they can count on your ongoing guidance and help while they are engaged in a learning activity, this knowledge will naturally increase their expectation of success. "A task that would be too difficult for students left to their own devices might be just right when carried out with your support".
- Let students help each other. One reason why cooperative, small group tasks are particularly motivating is that students know that they also have their peers working towards the same goals, resulting in a "safety in numbers" kind of assurance.

• *Make the success criteria as clear as possible*. Students can only expect to be successful with confidence if it is quite clear what "success" means in the particular context.

The criteria for success need to be obvious to them from the beginning of learning if they are to know which elements of their performance and production are essential. When the criteria are public and clear, students have a "road map" to success and can self-evaluate their learning as they proceed. If the success criteria involve assessment of the students' achievement, it is useful for them to know the exact format of the tests, the specific content areas that will be covered and the evaluation criteria. Past tests and papers can give realistic examples of what is to be expected.

• *Model success*. Even if the success criteria have been well specified, there may be some learners who simply cannot imagine what preparing for these will involve and therefore keep wondering if they can cope.

They will find it very useful to see some "live demonstration", that is, examples of students successfully performing the expected learning activity. This modeling task can be effectively done by peers or past students, but video recordings can also be successfully used for the purpose of demonstrating what learners are expected to achieve.

• *Consider and remove potential obstacles to learning.* "Wlodkowski highlights the fact that when students face learning sequence many will inevitably start thinking about what might interfere with the attainment of the goal".

Such intruding factors might be varied in nature: a lack of enough time; other obligations; insufficient resources; disturbance by others, etc. It enhances the learners' expectancy of success if you address these issues in advance, possibly by involving the learners themselves[5;32]. Even if you cannot offer any immediate solutions, the fact that the students have been reminded of these potential obstructions will give them more time to plan ahead. The most obvious strategy is to initiate a discussion with the students about goals in general. We may find that

when participants on a new language course are asked to share openly their own personal goals, this usually revealed considerable differences, which in turn led to a fruitful negotiation process with the objective of outlining "class goals". You have won half the motivation battle if the class group can agree on a common purpose and sense of direction by taking into account:

- Individual goals which may range from having fun to passing the exam or to getting the minimum grade level required for survival;
- Institutional constraints `you're here to hear the L2; this is the syllabus for this year';
- Success criteria which traditionally have had to do with exams and marks, but other communicative criteria can often be a better incentive, e.g. to be able to understand most of the lyrics of a pop group, or other specific communicative objectives.

The composite group goal can then be displayed on a wall chart. It is important to also mention that the initial effort to establish a `class goal' will need to be followed up by a recurring review of the original goal(s) in view of the progress made towards them. Such `goal reviews' can give both the teacher and the learner a chance to evaluate and regain momentum[6;41].

Making the teaching materials relevant for the learners

Educators think students do not care, while the students tell us they do care about learning but are not getting what they need. Indeed, one of the most demotivating factors for learners is when they have to learn something that they cannot see the point of because it has no seeming relevance whatsoever to their lives. This experience is unfortunately more common than many of us would think. After all, as Brophy argues, most schools' curricular topics and learning activities are selected primarily on the basis of what society believes students need to learn, not on the basis of what students would choose if given the opportunity to do so. Schools are established for the benefits of students, but from the students' point of view their time in the class-room is devoted to enforced attempts to meet externally imposed demands. Accordingly, much of the motivational advice offered to teachers in the educational literature boils down to the following general principle: Find out what your students' goals are and what topics they want to learn about, and then build these into your curriculum as much as possible. This makes sense: students will not be motivated to learn unless they regard the material they are taught as worth learning. Let us suppose for a moment that we are not totally tied up by institutional and curricular constraints and that we have a certain amount of leeway to liven up the course material. The first step has to involve our finding out about the interests, hobbies and needs of our learners: If we wish to relate content to student interests and experiences, we need to be knowledgeable about them. This can be done by means of interviews and one-to-one chats; group discussion and brainstorming e.g. about events or people that the students find significant; places they would like to go to; life styles they envy or disapprove of, etc.; essay writing assignments ;questionnaires with open-ended questions.

Making learning stimulating and enjoyable

People are usually quite willing to spend a great deal of time thinking and learning while pursuing activities they enjoy. Just think of all the hours we devote to, say, doing crosswords, rehearsing for amateur theatre performances or fiddling with the computer[7;98]. These examples suggest that learning does not necessarily have to be a boring and tedious chore. If we could somehow make the learning process more stimulating and enjoyable, that would greatly contribute to sustained learner involvement. This is an assumption that most motivational psychologists subscribe to and which also makes a lot of sense to classroom teachers – indeed, many practitioners would simply equate the adjective "motivating" with "interesting".

If both theoreticians and practitioners agree on the importance of making learning stimulating and enjoyable, why does available research indicate that the general characteristic of classroom learning is usually just the opposite: unglamorous and drudgery-like? Well, there are several reasons:

• Many teachers and also students share the belief that serious learning is supposed to be hard work, and if it is enjoyable, it is doubtful that it is

serious or significant. "Too often the word "enjoyable" has a bad reputation in school

- With increasing pressures on teachers to cover the curriculum and to prepare students for tests and exams, their emphasis inevitably shifts from the process the extent of learner involvement and enjoyment to the product, that is, to producing fast and tangible outcomes.
- Not all assignments can be fully engaging. We have to teach the whole curriculum and certain parts are bound to be less attractive for the students *than others. "We teachers are not in the entertainment business and cannot be expected to turn everything fun".*

This has been the bad news. The good news is that there is an impressive array of motivational strategies that have been found to be effective in livening up classroom learning. This suggests that, within what is feasible; we might be able to find an angle for making learning more stimulating in many, if not most, situations. Broadly speaking, we can pursue three main types of strategy:

- Breaking the monotony of learning,
- Making the tasks more interesting,
- Increasing the involvement of the students.

Of course, these three stimulation goals overlap. What breaks the monotony of learning will also make the process more interesting, and what is interesting may encourage further student involvement. Yet I find that it makes the discussion clearer if we address these issues independently[8;45]. We should also note here that all the other motivational aspects discussed later in this chapter also contribute to the quality of the learning experience, since in a way everything that motivates students to learn increases the attraction of the course.

Breaking the monotony of learning

Even in classes characterised by a mixture of interesting teaching approaches, there is a danger that as the school year progresses, both teachers and students can easily settle into familiar routines. The routines, then, can easily turn into a monotonous "daily grind", with the class losing its "edge". Monotony is inversely related to variety. In order to break monotony, we need to vary as many aspects of the learning process as possible. First and foremost are the language tasks. For example, we can vary the:

- Linguistic focus of the tasks e.g. a grammar task can be followed by one focusing on sociocultural issues;
- Main language skills the tasks activate e.g. a writing task can be followed by a speaking activity;
- Channel of communication varying auditory, visual and tactile modes of dealing with learning; selectively using visual aids;
- Organisational format e.g. a whole-class task can be followed by group work or pair work. Variety, however, is not confined to tasks alone. It can also concern other aspects of the teaching/learning process, such as:
- Our presentation style;
- The learning materials;
- The extent of student involvement e.g. occasionally students lead some of the activities);
- The classroom's spatial organisation e.g. how the tables and chairs are arranged).

Making the tasks more interesting

What are the most motivating features of task content? Here are some ideas:

Challenge: Humans like to be challenged, as evidenced by our continual fascination with crosswords, puzzles or computer games, and the same applies to taking risks if those are moderate. This means that tasks in which learners need to solve problems, discover some-thing, overcome obstacles, avoid traps, find hidden information, etc. are always welcome.

Interesting content: A simple but effective way to raise task interest is to connect the topic with things that students already find interesting or hold in esteem. For example, including prominent events or people from the youth culture can add an attractive dimension to the activity[9;220]. Learning about, say, daily

routines can become much more interesting by focusing on a famous pop star, trying to imagine what he/she does and does not do.

The novelty element: If something about the activity is new or different or unfamiliar or totally unexpected, this will certainly help to eliminate boredom.

The intriguing element: Tasks which concern ambiguous, problematic, paradoxical, controversial, contradictory or incongruous material stimulate curiosity by creating a conceptual conflict that needs to be resolved.

The exotic element: We all like learning about places and people which are unique and have a certain amount of grandeur. Tasks are inherently captivating if they engage the learner's fantasy. Everybody, children and adults alike, enjoy using their imagination for creating make-believe stories, identifying with fictional characters or acting out pretend play.

The personal element: There is something inherently interesting about learning about the everyday life of real people; this has been capitalised on by TV soap operas and their generally high viewing rates prove that the principle works. In a similar vein, many stilted coursebook tasks can be made stimulating by personalising them, that is, by relating the content to the learners' own lives.

1.3. The variety of motivation in language learning process

The field of human motivation is a complex and expansive domain, not lacking in motivational experts or approaches. In this part of the work there are suggested limited survey of several classroom motivation strategies and endeavors to provide both theoretical and practical perspective for each. When one thinks of the idea of classroom motivation it often brings to mind strategies that are used to provide incentives for students do something and/or do it with greater intensity. Yet, when we examine motivation more closely we recognize that it is not always something that is added to the situation. It can be something that comes from within us[10;73]. While an absolute distinction can be risky, we might refer to some motivators as coming from the outside – or being *extrinsic;* and others coming from within – or being *intrinsic*. Extrinsic forms are those in which there is something added that comes from an external agent, such as a reward from the teacher. Contrastingly, intrinsic forms tap into internal sources. These forms of motivation may reflect the meeting of a basic need, or can come from an inner source of satisfaction, such as personal fulfillment.

Exploring the most popular classroom motivational strategies

While it is true that there are few absolutes in the field of motivation, it may be helpful to the practitioner to classify various motivational strategies into those that are more extrinsic and those that are more intrinsic. Given that it is true that at any time there are a multitude of motivational influences that exist inside and outside of any learner, it is still useful to examine each strategy independently. In the following, many of the most common intentional strategies used in schools to motivate students are examined[11;284]. These strategies are divided into those that are can best be characterized as extrinsic, those that encourage intrinsic motivation, and those that will have a variable effect depending on how they are applied.

Extrinsic Motivation Techniques. The following passages examines what could be considered the leading *principally extrinsic* motivational strategies used in classrooms historically. These include grades, rewards, praise, punishments, public recognition and phone calls home. These passages also include recommendations for applying these strategies in a manner that produces more beneficial and effective results.

Grades are the most prevalent example of a formal extrinsic motivator used in schools. Their primary purposes are to 1) provide a concrete representation of either the completion of a task and/or the quality of a performance, and 2) act as an incentive for later benefits and opportunities. As representations of the level of quality performance, grades have only a symbolic meaning. They only represent something of value and have no inherent value[12;510]. Therefore, in practice, grades become more effective when they are clearly related to a meaningful outcome. This is why grading systems that incorporate more authentic measures

such as performance assessment rubrics will be more motivational than more artificial uses such as a total of the number of correct responses on a worksheet. Moreover, the way that a grade is derived can help it become more meaningful and tap into an intrinsic source, rather than being entirely an extrinsic reinforcement.

Rewards such as tokens, sticker, stars and prizes. Another common extrinsic motivational strategy, used primarily at the elementary level, is to give tokens and other prizes to student when they perform a desired behavior. These extrinsic rewards act as concrete representations that something of "value" has been accomplished. Therefore they are intended to act as the reinforcement in the process of *operant conditioning*. This technique originated in the field of psychology called *behaviorism*, and is most associated with one of its pioneers, B.F. Skinner. In operant conditioning, the operant – or desired behavior that is being conditioned – is reinforced by an extrinsic reinforcement/reward. In this case the operant is the act of desirable behavior on the part of the student, and the extrinsic reward is the token or prize.

Incentives. Incentives can take many forms such as prizes at the end of the week for successfully performing a task or refraining from an undesirable task, or group privileges for being first or best, or rewarding students who do well on one task the chance to opt out of a further task. They concretize the non-verbal bargain: "If you (the student) do something that the teacher has determined is good, you will get something that you should like." In this way, incentives can be helpful in clarifying what is desirable behavior[13;87]. At their best they can help promote good habits and shape more functional patterns of action. For example, if a mother provides a child an incentive to make the bed every day, the child may become comfortable with that behavior and continue it throughout their lifetime, even after the incentive is not longer present. In the case of healthy behaviors that become intrinsically satisfying once they become habits, this can lead to positive long-term benefits. Students will eventually return to their previous level of motivation for the academic activity. Moreover, they will become accustomed to the bribe and likely demand it. Second, it will reinforce the principle that the work that is being

done in the academic time is something that is undesirable. For those who feel compelled to include extrinsic forms of reinforcement among their motivational strategies, it may be helpful to consider the following guiding principles for how to use them effectively.

- Relate the reinforcement to a clearly identified desired behavior. The primary focus should be on the accomplishing the desired behavior rather attaining the reward.
- The more closely in time the attainment of the reward is to the desired behavior the stronger the effect of the reinforcement will be.
- Intermittent and/or random schedules of reinforcement will be more powerful than regular and predictable schedules of reinforcement.
- Reinforcements that are given after the display of an "expected" behavior will be more effective than arrangements and "deals" made before the desired behavior is performed.
- Avoid putting students in situations in which they are competing for rewards, especially meaningful rewards.

Only use competition in cases where all students are in an equal position to display the behavior if they so choose. Rewarding effort, good choices, cooperation and other things that students can control can be effective at attaining more of those behaviors. But competition that includes rewarding winners for ability, personality, parental support, and/or academic performance will undermine the level of motivation in the class and can even backfire with many students when it comes to the desired behavior change.

Following these guidelines will not lead to higher levels of intrinsic motivation, but they will likely be effective in changing behavior in the short-term. Moreover, they will help reduce the dependency of students on rewards and make it easier to remove them over time[14;78]. When we do gradually remove the reinforcements, we should be left with a substantial amount of new "learned behavior" and only a minimal amount of "withdrawal" from the students who have developed a dependency on the reinforcement. Below are three examples of typical but problematic uses of extrinsic rewards followed by a more effective strategy in the same situation:

Typical but Problematic: "If you all do your work, I will give the class a prize on Friday." Problems include: the reward is too far removed in time; the probability that a reward is going to be needed for every desirable behavior; and when Friday comes, you will likely be in a difficult spot. It is a certainty that some students will have met their end of the bargain and others will have not. Do you see the potential problem? Another way is: "*You have just spent the entire period focused on a task, that is the first time you have all been able to do that, I am going to give you all* _____ (*extrinsic reward or removal of a negative reinforcer*)." This is better because it was random, immediate, and will cause behavior change. The students know what they did, so they will likely repeat it. They will not expect it, but will exhibit behavior that they understand may be reinforced. A lesson was learned, when we _____ (e.g., do our jobs), the teacher will reward us.

Typical but Problematic: "The group that does the best job of ____ *at the end of the day will get a prize.*" Problems include: this is competitive and there will be some resentful people eventually; the work is done in anticipation of the prize – the prize is primary and the purpose of the behavior is secondary; and the reinforcement is not well connected any particular repeatable behavior (good reinforcement promotes the repetition of desired behavior).

Better Idea: "I asked you to put away _____ and take out _____, this table did it right away without being asked again, so they will get (thing, time, being first, first choice, etc)." This is better because: it will change behavior, as the other tables will be much quicker in the future anticipating that something similar might happen again; it reinforces your expectations – real learning took place in a very concrete example; it was immediate and clearly related both in time and causality; and the focus is on the "expected" behavior first and the reward second[15;69].

Typical but Problematic: A "token economy" or arrangements where students get points for certain behaviors and the points are added up for some *reward at the end of a certain period.* Problems include: behavior done primarily for extrinsic rewards. This is essentially paying students to do what they should be doing and what we want them to love to do for its own sake. We are *destroying* both of those goals. The schedule of reinforcement is continuous. Continuous reinforcement leads to a gradual decrease of motivation. It ends up creating a lose decision, "Do I increase the reward to maintain the motivation level, or do I slowly watch my students begin to demand an extrinsic reward for everything and increasingly avoid behaviors that are not rewarded (including just about everything that we want them to care about in our class)?"

Better Idea: If you are committed to the use of a point system:

- 1. Use it for a short duration at the start of the year three weeks or less.
- 2. Use it to clarify your expectations. Relate your reward system to the critical expectations that are necessary for the class to function, such as listening, cooperation, efficient procedures.
- 3. Use only random and/or intermittent reinforcement schedules. Random is the best. That is, students realize what the desired behavior is supposed to be working cooperatively, listening, being on task, raising hands, etc. but they do not know when the reinforcement will occur if you compare the level of the desired behavior in a random reinforcement condition vs. a fixed condition, you will be amazed at the difference.
- 4. Give points and take points away without warning. Warnings always weaken reinforcements.
- 5. Do not give a large amount of attention to the points. Attach your emotion to the accomplishment of the behavior rather than the attainment of the points.
- 6. The ultimate reward cannot be meaningful or substantive. It cannot relate to grades, your affection, or something of real material worth. In fact, simply achieving the most points can be enough of a reward in and of itself, and may be a preferable reward in our effort to emphasize that the process was the point, not who won or lost.

7. Make it a game for fun and mutual entertainment, and focus on how it is leading to behavior change. Again the extrinsic is always presented as a material reminder of something of real and intrinsic value such as learning or becoming a better class.

J Positive Reinforcement. When asked about their favorite motivational strategies most teachers and pre-teachers respond by saying something to the effect that they want to be "positive," and use a lot of "positive reinforcement." On the surface, this is encouraging, especially when compared with the possibility that they would rely heavily on strategies defined by destructive criticism, shaming, pain-based logic, and what we referred to earlier as "coercive power." Yet, not all of what we call positive reinforcement is the same, or will have the same effect[16;24]. Positive reinforcement is used to describe a wide range of practices including the use of extrinsic rewards, praise and approval, encouragement, having positive expectations, being warm and accepting, using positive recognitions, providing increased opportunities, or using systems for rewarding quality behavior.

Problematic "Praise" Messages. What is commonly referred to as "praise" is at its essence a personal comment from the teacher that conveys the message that the student is "being and/or acting in a manner that pleases the teacher." For example when the teacher says, "Good work, John," they are using messages that sound very encouraging on the surface. And the intention *is* to encourage good behavior. But as we look more carefully at the messages, we will see that these types of messages have potentially negative effects.

As a conclusion to the first chapter, we would like to mention the following this paper addresses the various aspects and models of motivation that affect language learning. While the primary focus was on the learner and the internal factors that encourage and facilitate their pursuit of language achievement (i.e. intrinsic/integrative), it is evident that there are external factors that also influence this process (i.e. extrinsic/instrumental). Therefore many questions are raised as to whether one can identify which type of motivation an individual will exhibit and whether this will lead to a greater or lesser success than another type. I am inclined

29

to agree with William and Burden (1997), in that motivations from both internal and external influences are somewhat intertwined and rooted within individuals. However with that being said, a common ground among scholars who may have opposing views in this topic, would agree that the individual themselves are or should be aware of the motivation that drives them in second language acquisition. L2 motivation has gone through different stages over the past 40 years. Gardner's theories served as a starting point to understand L2 motivation[17;99]. Since then, the various motivation periods have gone through a process of evolution in which relevant theories were reformulated to specific learning contexts while some other approaches were criticized. The most recent period has interestingly brought our attention to the complexity of L2 motivation.

CHAPTER TWO

WAYS AND TECHNIQUES OF DEVELOPING MOTIVATION AND PRACTICAL APPROACHES TO DEFINING LEARNERS' ATTITUDE

Motivation is something that is directly related with behavior. A person sets his mind up to figure out a certain work and does accordingly. It can be assumed that motivation has relevant and crucial value in learning a second language that influences the success of language learning. This article will compel the reader to read it as motivation is the hunger which spreads learners desires or needs. Therefore motivation cannot be denied in learning a second language. Second language is something that is not native to someone. That is why in learning a second language if one keeps determination in one hand; the other hand should be filled with motivation. It is like the necessity of having both hydrogen and oxygen molecules in forming water, deficiency of any of which will hamper it. Without motivation learner cannot perform or learn a language. Motivation makes purposes clearly visible. Learning a different language is very challenging but if the leaner has internal desire to learn any language, he/she can do well. It is an internal or external desire in people, which increases learners" interest to learn a different language to achieve a goal. Motivation can be both internal and external. Internal motivation is, learners self-desire or performing any activity for own sake. On the other hand extrinsic motivation is more related with any award or punishment.

All of the conditions that we know contribute to successful second language acquisition are lacking in most EFL contexts: there just isn't enough English input in the environment, there probably aren't enough opportunities for interaction with English speakers, there usually aren't enough strong role models promoting the learning of English, and there may not be widespread enough social acceptance for the idea of becoming proficient in English[18;23]. Because of these adverse conditions, a learner has to have extraordinary motivation in order to succeed at learning English. Apart from the role that intellectual capacity and language aptitude play in a second or foreign language learning, motivation is a major factor

in the successful study of language acquisition. It is considered goal directed and defined as "the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes toward learning the language". Motivation is also an important contributor to language achievement in terms of linguistic outcomes, which traditionally embrace the knowledge structure of the language, i.e. vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation and the four basic skills of the language, including listening, understanding, reading and writing.

2.1. Practical techniques of developing motivation in SLL

So what defines a good relationship? Good intentions are a start. Many teachers describe looking back at their early years of teaching and recognizing that while their attempts were clumsy and even ill-advised, their positive intentions and desire for the welfare of their students produced a great deal that was positive. Love can overcome bad strategies to a great extent when it comes to motivating children. But it does not undo a mistake and it does not always lead to success. Some of the best intentioned and brightest teachers leave the profession because the love they had for their students and for sharing their subject was not returned by the students. Below is a list of suggestions for how one can get the most from their teacher-student relationships:

Show unconditional positive regard for students. Separate your acceptance of them as people from their behavior and their achievement. There is never a time when withdrawing positive regard achieves a lasting positive result. This frees you to be honest and objective with your feedback related to their work and behavior. *Being a friend is fine*. The idea that one should not "smile until Christmas" is illconceived. But being a buddy and/or too familiar runs the risk that students will misunderstand your position and role, and as a result there is a loss of position power. If your class is about "you," you will struggle to create healthy relationships with your students. It is easy to fall into the mindset that you are going to pretend that you are invested while in reality you are un-invested emotionally.

- Likewise, avoid the trap of using excessive personal praise, disappointment, and rewards for good behavior. It indicates that your motivations are rooted in your own needs rather than those of your students. It may seem effective, but beware of creating a classroom full of "happiness addicts."
- 2. Using humor can be motivating and can keep students more engaged and on your side. But be careful not to use victimizing humor. Self-deprecating humor, recognizing absurdities, having fun with your own mistakes and surprises, and tasteful jokes can be effective ways to bond with your students and show that you care enough to account for their basic need for fun.
- 3. Make the effort to take an interest in your students as individuals. Knowing about them, their interests, and what they are doing outside of your class can have a powerful effect[19;16].

Assessing Behavior. Most teachers at some point consider the idea of assessing student behavior. Many end up incorporating it on a minimal level, many others are turned off by its potentially manipulative properties, some use behavioral assessment systems that do more harm than good, and very few use take full advantage of its transformative potential. Used purposefully, assessing process and participation can have a dramatic effect on the quality of process investment, effort level, or any other behavior that is included in a well-developed system. It can be a useful adjunct to the class's social contract and democratic operating procedure. Used unsystematically or as a deficit model, it can have a harmful effect that may be invisible but profoundly destructive. A thoughtful implementation can promote the intrinsic sources of motivation on the part of the students. Used carelessly, it can feel like just another external source of teacher oppression and domestication.

Competition: By definition, competition creates a scarcity of rewards and a sense of urgency to obtain that reward. This can certainly be motivating to many students. Used wisely, competition can increase the level of intensity and fun in an

activity. However, used unwisely, competition can create a whole host of negative side effects such as increasing students' fear of failure, increased cheating, overemphasis on end results rather than process, increased mistrust among students, promoting the advantage of the advantaged, and creating an emotionally unsafe emotional climate in the class.

Instructional Design. It is likely that the *single most significant factor* in achieving a class who is working hard and caringly is the selection of the *type of work* that we have them doing. Conversely, when there are motivational problems and/or behavioral problems, most often it is the type of instruction that is the main culprit.

Intrinsic Motivational Techniques. Intrinsic motivational techniques cannot be as easily explained as separate techniques or strategies when compared to the extrinsic techniques. Like any successful methodology, they must be developed intentionally, but a holistic approach is most effective. Much of the process of promoting intrinsic motivation involves the removal of barriers to the students' abilities to access their inner motives and satisfiers. Rewards, pain-based motivators, meaningless tasks, learning in isolation, and a lack of support all act to block intrinsic sources of motivation[20;52]. For one's intrinsic sources of motivation to grow, the learning context must support them. It may be most instructive and practical to examine many intrinsic motivational ideas within a single structure - that of basic needs. Inquiry and Problem-Based Learning, Increased Responsibility, and Achieving Personal Growth all make much more sense when we examine them within the context of how they meet basic needs. Unlike extrinsic forms of motivation, intrinsic forms are less about adding something. For instance, basic needs simply exist, and we all have them. During the school day, either they are met within the context of the learning environment, or students will be forced to meet them in alternative ways. In some cases, the alternate means students use to meet their needs manifest as disruptive behavior and problems for the teacher, or unhealthy habits for the student.

34

Basic Needs. Each of us has fundamental basic needs that we must find a way to satisfy. If we are unable to satisfy them, we will experience some type of dissonance. While theorists vary slightly when identifying the core areas, the basic human needs for love and belonging, power, competence, freedom, and fun seem to be inherent and universal. These basic needs exist continuously both in and outside of the classroom. The evidence that a student comes from a home in which their basic needs have been met is usually quite apparent. Most likely, they act more confident, centered, and trusting[21;40]. The time spent at school can often have an even more determinant effect on students' ability to meet their basic needs than their time away from school. The activities in which they are engaged are more structured, limiting their ability to meet their needs more naturally, and in many cases, meeting one's need is more challenging at school. As a result, we discover that students find numerous creative ways to get their needs met during the school day. Quite often these means lead to what is labeled "inappropriate behavior." As teachers we have no choice but to recognize that student have basic needs, and that those needs will manifest themselves, one way or another. Most students have the ability to deny their needs for a short period of time, but to do this day after day would be intolerable. And more importantly, student should not have to endure a school environment that denies their basic needs. For some teachers it may require a paradigm shift, while for others it may help clarify their perspective. But a critical ingredient to successful classroom management is to view all problems though the lens of basic needs initially. For example, if we look out at our class and see faces wrought with frustration, a common but highly ineffective response will be to view that reaction as inconvenient to us and what we had planned. A more effective reaction, one that will lead to a solution, is to ask ourselves, "What basic need is lacking right now?" When we view student misbehavior within the lens of "I need them to know that their behavior is inadequate," it will lead us down a management solution dead end. While we are not obliged to meet every student's basic need, when we examine the behavior and/or emotional climate in our class through the lens of basic needs, problems

become illuminated, diagnosis gains coherence, and solutions become more evident[22;19]. When basic needs are not being met, the reaction by the student can take the form of either an internal or an external reaction. As each basic need is examined more closely, these reactions become more evident, as well as how each basic need can be met in the classroom.

Each of us needs to feel that we are loved and that we are a wanted part of a group. The desire to be accepted by the group is considered by many theorists as the fundamental human drive. Moreover, our sense of self acceptance is greatly influenced by factors within our environment. If we feel perpetually unloved, alienated or isolated, common internal reactions include a sense of guilt, worthlessness, loneliness, lowered self-esteem, while common external reactions include acting out, over-achievement, clowning, and pleasing. Teachers can give students a greater sense of love and belonging by recognizing unique qualities and talents, creating an emotionally safe community environment, and showing genuine care and respect. Each of us needs to feel that we have some control over our destiny. If we do not experience a sense of "agency" in our lives we feel helpless. And as we will discuss in the next passages, a sense of power is fundamentally related to the development of an internal locus of control[23;45]. If we feel we do not have any power, common internal reactions include becoming withdrawn and passive-aggressive, while common external reactions include rebellion and hostility. Teachers can give students a sense of power by giving students choices, giving responsibility and opportunities for leadership, giving ownership for the development of class procedures.

Competence. Each of us wants to feel a sense of self-efficacy. We need to feel that we are capable and have something valuable to contribute. Much of our identity is connected to what we can do, and how well we can do it. If we feel useless, unvalued, incompetent or unappreciated, common internal reactions include losing motivation and/or a sense of inadequacy, while common external reactions include bragging, acting overly competent, attention-getting, and excuse-making. Teachers can give students a greater sense of competence by focusing on

36

progress and not products, removing conditions in which comparisons among students are used, recognizing incremental achievement and original ideas, expressing high expectations, and helping students achieve the goals they have set for themselves.

Freedom. Each of us needs to feel that we are autonomous and have freedom of choice. We must feel a sense of liberation to be able to express our individuality. If we feel too restricted or imprisoned, common internal reactions are becoming withdrawn or resentful, while common external reactions include fighting back, active resistance and/or seeking paths around authority. Teachers can help students experience freedom through supporting autonomy and creativity, avoiding personal praise and disappointment, validating differing viewpoints within the class, and fostering the attitude that the teacher does not have nor must have all the answers, and the idea that everyone makes mistakes[24;121].

Fun. Each of us needs to be able to have fun and experience wonder and joy. Fun may be difficult to define. What is fun for one person may not be fun for another. Yet we all feel the need to experience enjoyment and whimsy. If we are put in a repressive and/or tedious environment, common internal reactions include boredom, frustration and daydreaming, while common external reactions include making one's own fun, engaging the teacher in off-task games, and hostility. Teachers can promote students' sense of fun by the use of humor, providing opportunities for creative play, making learning engaging and interesting and a thoughtful use of healthy competition. As we examine the conditions that meet basic needs we find that they have the effect of promoting intrinsic motivation and vice versa. When we assist students on a path of personal growth, we inevitably meet the needs of power and competence. When we give increased responsibility, we are not so much adding something or giving something to the student, we are allowing the basic needs for power, contribution, and belonging to be fulfilled and the student therefore to bloom. The sense of movement that a group feels will be related to how well the goal of the activity (or series of activities) is internalized. But as we will see later, all goals will not achieve the same outcomes and/or kinds

of motivation. For example, consider the two cases you examined from your own experience. Which case held more intrinsic interest to you? It is a good bet it was the first one in which you felt that it was "going somewhere." Be careful when selecting your goals. It is very likely that the goals that ultimately lead to extrinsic rewards will not last as long or maintain their effectiveness over time as those that are rooted in sources of internal satisfaction[25;66]. Again consider the event that you recalled for the first case. How would you characterize your goals?

Comparison of Case Examples. A case example might help clarify the principle. Imagine if you were given the task of pulling weeds. For most of us the task alone is not inherently reinforcing. So we would likely only do it for some payment. Let's say we are getting paid as our reinforcement--assume that we agreed to do the work for \$50 a day. What would our motivational level be for our first day? Assume that we were paid the same amount no matter what our rate or quality. What would happen to our motivation? In comparison, let's say that we were paid per weed. How would that affect our level of motivation? What if our supervisor stopped by every once in a while and gave us a bonus if they observed an exceptional level of effort? As you can see all of these variables will affect our level of motivation. They would not change the stated goal, but they would affect our psychological sense of movement toward that goal.

However, consider this case from another perspective. We might ask as a result of the motivation provided in each condition, are we more or less likely to desire to engage in weed pulling without being paid in the future. And what will the result be to our motivation to take part in work that is similar to weed pulling? This example illustrates that with a well-conceived plan of reinforcements we can increase motivation by manipulating the reinforcement schedule and the clarity of the goal. But while we can likely obtain a high level of motivation in the short-term with an extrinsic type of goal such as the one described, we have to ask what the long-term cost of any motivational program would be.

Now let's paint a picture that may look something like the one that you envisioned earlier in the situation in which you felt like things were "going somewhere." How would you characterize the goal of the work? It was likely both very meaningful and very clear. I would also predict that you knew what you were aiming for and you had a desire to attain the goal[26;13]. But why? Possibly, you were being given an external reinforcement, but it is also likely that you saw a real value to the work. It was relevant to you. The reinforcement could simply have been seeing progress toward your goal, and the feeling of getting better and/or accomplishing something. And if there were others involved, part of the reinforcement may have been the feeling of working together to achieve a common goal.

2.2. Main factors in enhancing student motivation and identifying their attitude

"You cannot push anyone up the ladder unless he is willing to climb himself." -

Robert Schuller

The student's role in education is crucial and should go beyond the traditional view of student as customer or recipient of knowledge. In addition to the roles of buyer and recipient, "students are the raw materials for education and the primary products of educational transformations; and most important...students are key members of the labor force involved in creating education". Also, the increasing diversity of individual differences among students can be seen in time management, learning styles, maturity, demographics, experiential background, cultural orientation, and interests. Teachers should be "producers of environments that allow students to learn as much as possible" or that school should become learning habitats wherein relationships are fostered between people, students develop their own individual instruction plan, and a variety of investigating system options to replace the passive receipt of information[27;43]. Some tips for improving Ingredient 1 or student contributions to motivation as listed below.

That is, student motivation is enhanced when these factors pertinent to students are present:

Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation: Typical students bring varying degrees of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to the learning arena. Intrinsic motivational factors found to be at work with most students include involvement, curiosity, challenge, and social interaction. Extrinsic motivational factors include compliance; recognition; competition; and work avoidance avoid more work than necessary.

Various individual and social factors: Overall academic motivation is affected by various individual and social factors. For example, intrinsic motivation is affected by the reason for preferring the school, the probability of finding a job after graduation, the order of preference, the future expectation, the distinctiveness of testing and measuring activities at the school, and desire to complete a Masters' degree. In the simplest terms, it is necessary to be motivated and to make an effort. Extrinsic motivation is significantly affected by the probability of finding a job, the attitude towards the teacher, the peer group, the level of income, the appropriateness of the classrooms, the adequacy of teaching materials, and the number of siblings. The most effective extrinsic motivation is the probability of finding a job.

Hierarchy of needs: Regarding lower level needs, if a student is hungry or thirsty, it is more difficult to focus on learning. Low self-esteem and ego will make the student feel unappreciated and unrecognized. As such, the educator must do what is necessary to support the student to a higher level of need satisfaction so that the student can focus his or her attention on learning.

Perceived well-being: Students' perceptions may be clouded by their perceived well-being, e.g., bad mood, not being able to find parking, or having a disagreement with someone before class. Well-being or life satisfaction is the degree to which a student is content with his or her life including pleasure in daily activities, meaningfulness of life, goodness of fit between desired and achieved goals, mood, self-concept, perceived health, financial security, and social contact.

To increase satisfaction with the learning experience and in turn performance, these well-being factors need to be extrapolated into the classroom. That is, factors beyond quality of teaching can affect student satisfaction including student motivation, course level, grade expectations, type of academic field, and workload difficulty. At the very least, teachers will need to be compassionate and even supportive of the personal life conditions of their students that surface in the process of education.

Efficient use of energy and focus: Students should be taught how to produce results while maintaining focus and energy. Businesses and organizations certainly focus on getting the right results with the least effort or cost. Hence, educators need to train students to "stalk" efficient and effective results[28;65]. In another complementary vein pertinent to the "greening" of business and the planet as a whole, each individual ultimately will be required to become a master of focusing on and using skills such as personal energy conservation and regeneration. This theme of efficiency should serve the student in his or her studies as well as in his or her life and global citizenry.

Public speaking competence: Student motivation has been positively related to public speaking competence, but not to the demonstration of communication knowledge. Because fear of public speaking is a prevalent phobia of most people, continued practice in public speaking will teach students how to face their greatest fears and get over them, hence, getting over unconscious blocks, rebuilding traits, and enhancing self-concept. These positive results should make students more confident and motivated. Students lead very busy lives. As a result, evidence shows that students are devoting less time to their studies. While the quantity of time spent studying has an influence on performance, this influence is moderated by the students' study time is used. Ultimately, studying has quantitative aspects as well as qualitative aspects, that is, amount of time studying and good study habits are both important.

The development of a long-range educational plan will help students to value education and to make the most of their time in school. This plan also should contribute to their confidence and reduce the fear of the unknown. That is, students who have compiled a long-range plan are less likely to give up when difficulties occur. This plan is even more effective when it is updated continuously and encompasses the transition from education to career. Creating a vision of adulthood and who they want to become is very empowering. This planning process can empower students to see the connection between school and work. Ultimately, it prepares them for a lifetime of productive employment and continual learning.

Students display more motivational benefits from teachers they like over teachers they dislike. However, education is much more than a personality contest. The role of teachers seems to be shifting from preprogrammed knowledge dispensers to instead managers of student learning and the learning environment. Therefore, teachers must be empowered to exercise professional judgment in the classroom to attain clearly expressed goals. Professional educators should be given latitude to test individual approaches based on strategic goals and incentive systems. Also, teachers should be provided with training to support them in this expanded role including more time for peer interaction to share views on what is effective. Overall, teachers should do unto the students as they would want done unto themselves. The following suggestions are offered regarding Ingredient 2 or teacher contributions to student motivation:

Subject knowledge and motivational level: The professor's knowledge of the subject matter and the motivational level of the professor are most important to motivate college students to do well in college[29;215]. That may be because professors could influence the student's internal state of wanting to do well in college. While high school students make statements like I want to get a job, to feel proud of myself, to graduate with my friends, and to avoid feeling like a failure, college students are motivated by the professor's knowledge of the subject matter, the professor's sense of humor, the motivational level of the professor, high

quality of teaching, intellectual challenge, engagement in class, and academic help outside of the class. For example, curriculum quality and teacher skills make more difference to educational outcomes than initial test scores or racial backgrounds of the students. Teacher skills include staying calm, eliminating negative thoughts or feelings, disengaging stress, remembering that students have their own realities and are doing their best, not taking students' actions personally, remembering that students are not bad rather just in the process of development, and maintaining a sense of humor.

Teacher qualifications: Qualifications of the teacher employed in universities should be questioned and improved. Educators need to acquire new qualities and continue to grow and evolve as they are role models for the students. Given that there is variability across campuses, there need to be support structures for educators as well as clear understandings that teaching involves more than just subject matter knowledge and classroom management skills. In particular, the knowledge needed for effectively teaching a specific subject pedagogical content knowledge which represents the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organized, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction.

Test giving: Teachers need to know how to give tests that are motivating to the students. Tests need to have thematic relevance, that is, they need to aim at checking what students have learned and whether they can apply it to real-life tasks. In addition, tests that are more demanding or challenging than anything practiced in class will have negative effects on student motivation. Also, tests should be based on course objectives and should not involve surprise or novelty. Specifically, test questions should be as easy as possible for test takers to process, even when the content is very challenging. In general, test-taking instructions, terminology, layout, and item choices need to not be ambiguous, confusing, illogical, unclear, imprecise, or poorly designed.

When the teacher is more enthusiastic about a topic, then the students will be more inclined to believe that the topic has value for them. That is, teacher enthusiasm can motivate students. Enthusiasm can be expressed by facial expressions, body language, stating preferences, describing personal experiences or amazing facts, showing collected artifacts, using humor, putting energy into their lesson preparation, and meticulously preparing materials. The teacher also should balance his or her enthusiasm appropriately for the audience.

Ingredient 3: Content

At the least, content must be accurate and timely. However, content also should be relevant and useful to the student in his or her life. Olson notes that student motivation depends on the extent to which the teacher is able to satisfy the student's need for 1) feeling in control of their learning, 2) feeling competent, and 3) feeling connected to others. As such, content also must be included to satisfy each of these student needs. Following are some suggestions for Ingredient 3 or content contributions that will build student motivation. That is, content needs to be developed and improved with awareness of the factors listed below:

Students experience success and achievement: Ensuring that students experience success is an extremely important strategy for motivation. Success creates self-confidence which in turn makes students more inclined to engage in learning. This requires that tasks be moderate and have an achievable level of difficulty. The goal is to have students experience success in their understanding. Some techniques for ensuring this success include: state the goal for the lesson; provide simple and clear explanations; ask the students to express their comments, questions, and ideas; question the students; provide hand-on activities as often as possible; and assessment tasks should be flexible[30;104].

Student ownership: Students feel some ownership of a decision if they agree to it. Whenever possible, students should be allowed to determine class rules and procedures, set learning goals, select learning activities and assignments, and decide whether to work in groups or independently. Allowing students to select

learning partners has been shown to improve their motivation to learn. Also, it is important to get students to accept the reasons why some aspects of the course are not negotiable.

Student choices: Human beings are naturally curious and self-directed, that is, they want to learn, make choices, and achieve. As a result, students will be more motivated when they are given choices. Doing something one chooses rather than what one has been told to do, can be very motivating. Having some element of negotiation is better than a classroom that is completely permissive. Some choices might include: who they work with, what book to read, their assignment topic, how the assignment will be presented, and when the assignment is due. However, when offering choices, instructors should construct options that meet the students' needs. Choices should be offered in a manner and context that meets students' needs and that are offered in a non-controlling accepting atmosphere. Guided inquiry is a technique that allows more flexibility in that they choose their research question and methodology, yet the instructor provides some parameters. As such, the various choice options need to be based on students' needs, interests, goals, abilities, and cultural backgrounds. Choices need to not be too numerous or complex as well as congruent with the students' values.

Content that contributes to the student feeling connected may include advisory programs, cooperative learning, peer mentoring, peer counseling, and community service. Regardless of whether or not students participate in these programs, they need a sense of trust, respect, caring, concern, and community with others. In student/teacher interactions even a single event can determine how the student feels about a class and how he or she will perform[31;335]. One way to build connection is to send a welcoming e-mail before the first day of school. This has been shown to enhance student motivation, attitude toward the instructor, and perceptions of the course. Whether it is an e-mail or another computer contact such as instant messaging or social networking, the contact is relatively effortless and seems to improve student attitudes toward the instructor and the course.

Technology and information from the Internet such as Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, and phone apps: Students love the Internet, so give them examples, videos, or demonstrations of topics from Internet sites that are interesting to them. At the very least, this incorporation of technology, the Internet, and phone apps involves using more of the students' language and experience base. Also, the Internet is a great way to keep up-to-date and to show important current trends and ideas. However, students need to understand how to assess the validity and safety of Internet sites and information. Whiteboards also can be powerful, interactive technological tools for improving instruction, but instructors need to know how to use them effectively.

Ingredient 4: Method/Process

The method or process is the way in which content is presented, that is, the approach used for instruction. Two basic approaches for supporting and cultivating motivation in the classroom are 1) creating a classroom structure and institutional method that provides the environment for optimal motivation, engagement, and learning; and 2) helping the student to develop tools that will enable him or her to be self-regulated. Some specific ideas or tips for improving Ingredient 4 or the method/process contributions to student motivation are:

Educators could experiment with monetary incentives but budgets usually do not allow this possibility. Another option is to help the student get a scholarship/job/work study or participate in a sponsored competition featuring financial awards. Small incentive gifts could be given but these may not be as effective as money. Another option is to emphasize and illustrate the financial betterment that will occur for the student once he or she has completed his or her education[32;59]. Or, the educator could use the incentive of time, that is, give the student the time to do something the student feels is important to him or her. In general, rewards and punishments work at controlling the students' immediate classroom behavior, but they do not foster an intrinsic, long-term desire or commitment to learning.

Experiential learning or self-learning: At the upper end of the hierarchy, experiential learning or self-learning becomes more highly utilized. Experiential learning is when an individual is actively involved with concrete experience, that is, a student cognitively, affectively, and behaviorally processes knowledge, skills, and/or attitudes such that knowledge is created through the transformation of experience. Smith and Kolb explained individual experiential learning differences in terms of four learning styles or ways in which the mind works:

1. *Convergent learning style* abstract conceptualization, active experimentation, may have solutions to the wrong problems, and excellence at technical tasks

2. *Divergent learning style* concrete experience, reflective observation, may be paralyzed by alternatives generated, and people oriented

3. *Reflective or assimilator learning style* loves ideas and concepts, theoretical professions, theory but no application, and ideas over people

4. *Doer or accommodator learning style* concrete experience and active experimentation, carries out plans, likes changing the environment, may produce tremendous ends but all in the wrong area, and prefers trial and error method.

One method to use to support students in accomplishing their goals is verbal conformity wherein the student repeats all or part of the goal in his or her own words. This simple act of saying will influence his or her private convictions. Some methods that can be used to achieve verbal conformity include: a) have the student explain the goal to a third party, b)have the student write a memo on the subject, and c) grapple for words and have the student fill in for you. The student needs to understand the goal first before using verbal conformity.

Flexible and stimulating just-in-time training and interactivity: One way to support students in seeking out responsibility and working toward goals to which they are committed is to use flexible and stimulating just-in-time training which allows the student to train at his or her own pace and time. The key to effective use of this training is interactivity. That is, it is important to focus on the material to be learned and on how the students interact with it rather than being side tracked by glitz. Guide the students logically through the information and monitor their

progress adjusting as necessary. As expected, the natural use of technology and the Internet is essential here for building interactivity and just-in-time learning.

Different types of framing: Educators need to be aware that different types of framing of a problem or decision area can lead to different preferences or shifts in judgment. In particular, students who have a more enjoyable experience during training are more likely to perceive the system to be easier to use which in turn can lead to enhanced behavioral intentions to use the system. Also, game-based training perceived as enjoyable will potentially allow users to scale initial hurdles to acceptance and usage, create higher-level intrinsic motivation, and lead to sustained usage behavior.

Reinforcement strategies: Two reinforcement strategies have been found to lead to significantly higher test scores: reviewing the concepts delineated on the study guide and silent reading of class notes. Both of these strategies could be used to increase student motivation.

Ingredient 5: Environment

Environment is the key ingredient of student motivation. First of all, an environment must be available and accessible. Thereafter, that environment must be of a quality or caliber that contributes to the motivation of the students. For example, if an environment is not safe, it is difficult and maybe even unwise to put all of your attention on learning. On the other hand, an environment of openness and freedom to learn from our mistakes can foster motivation to learn. Also, the environment can be physical as well as mental, emotional, and even spiritual in some regard. Suggestions for creating an environment conducive to student motivation are as follow:

Create an effective environment: when creating an effective environment, educators need to consider the following:

- Overall approach to material presentation and development,
- Examples coming before and after detailed discussions of the concepts,
- The use of engaging classroom activities,
- In-depth discussions or simulations,

- The use of good business or organizational problems rather than contrived examples,
- The use of real-life exercises throughout that are varied in scope and field of Application,
- Using applications relevant to students' everyday experiences or to their chosen career fields,
- Encouraging critical thinking e.g., what do you mean, why, what if, what works/does not work, and how would you...
- *Empowerment*: Empowerment can contribute positively to the learning environment. Empowerment can mean vested authority or enablement. Before investing authority in a role or person, it is necessary to clarify the student's mandate and the expectations of his or her performance. Enablement means having the right tools and support when they are needed.
- Engagement and considering student and teacher opinions: The learning environment should take into consideration the intrinsic and extrinsic student motivations and the opinions of students and teachers in arranging the environment. Materials, tools, and equipment that are needed in the educational process should be determined, obtained, and modernized so that active learning is promoted[33;50]. This engagement results in students feeling that their teachers have a special interest in them. Students need to be encouraged to engage and to participate.

2.3. How to motivate learners in acquiring second language

What is it about the academic motivation of students that teachers should know? Certainly, knowledge of motivation concepts, principles, and theories should be basic elements in a foundations course in educational psychology, but this is not really what educational psychology should be about. Teachers need to know how this conceptual knowledge relates to the classroom and to their instructional role in the classroom. Teachers also need to know how to rely on this knowledge when dealing with issues that involve motivational concerns and when making instructional decisions. For example, consider a not very unusual problem facing a teacher about homework. How can a teacher set homework policy so that students complete the homework and still maintain their interest in the material? Teacher A's policy states that all homework must be turned in daily, that all homework will be graded daily with letter or percentage grades, and that homework counts for 30 percent of the quarter grade. Teacher B's policy states that students are to spend no more than thirty minutes per night on homework, that homework will be graded satisfactory or unsatisfactory, that students can redo and correct their work, and that homework counts for 10 percent of the quarter grade. We may think the stringency of Teacher A's policy might be more effective, but research on motivation would suggest that Teacher B's policy is more likely to fulfill both objectives. At the classroom level, teachers are often faced with a child who continually avoids challenge. At the building level, teachers must come together and decide how to structure a reading program so that students will read more but also enjoy reading more. These are simple examples of everyday problems and decisions that involve motivation questions. Student motivation has, for some time, been described as one of the fore most problems in education.

1. It is certainly one of the problems most commonly cited by teachers. Motivation is important because it contributes to achievement, but it is also important itself as an outcome. Motivation is not synonymous with achievement, and student motivation cannot necessarily be inferred by looking at achievement test scores. Immediate achievement and test performance are determined by a variety of factors and may even be assured through a variety of ways, and some practices that serve to increase immediate achievement may actually have the effect of diminishing students' interest in learning as well as their long-term involvement in learning. When we talk about motivation as an outcome, we are concerned with students' motivation to learn.

2. If we place a value on developing a motivation to learn in students, we are concerned with whether students initiate learning activities and maintain an involvement in learning as well as a commitment to the process of learning. Effective schools and effective teachers are those who develop goals, beliefs, and attitudes in students that will sustain a long-term involvement and that will contribute to quality involvement in learning. If we evaluate our schools and classrooms strictly by how much students achieve, we can easily lose sight of these other educational goals and values. We not only want students to achieve, we want them to value the process of learning and the improvement of their skills, we want them to willingly put forth the necessary effort to develop and apply their skills and knowledge, and we want them to develop a long-term commitment to learning.

3. It is in this sense that motivation is an outcome of education. Students who elect to take advanced science classes because they want to learn more and not just because they think they can do well is an example of this outcome. It is therefore a first priority to help teachers develop an understanding of why motivation is important. This, indeed, may be a challenge when educational psychology textbooks typically allot only one chapter to motivation, and this chapter usually provides little more than an overview of theories and concepts. Moreover, topics that are intricately related to motivation, such as classroom management, individual differences, testing and evaluation, grouping, and family, are often treated in separate chapters with little or no linkage to and without discussion of motivational processes. motivational concepts Educational psychology is about application; it is not enough to highlight theories or review basic constructs and dot these presentations with a few examples. Motivation has often been characterized within what has been called a quantitative view of motivation[34;554].

Motivation constructs. To teach quantitative concepts such as duration, intensity, and direction is not going to help teachers understand how or why students develop adaptive, positive, or effective thought patterns. At a very

general level, these thought patterns include goals, beliefs, and attitudes that are involved in how students approach learning situations, engage in the process of learning, and respond to learning experiences. Some examples are self-worth or self-concept of ability, attributions, self-regulated learning, and achievement goals. We need to pay more attention to how teachers can become more successful in socializing these adaptive motivation patterns in students. To set the stage for some later points, let me briefly describe just a few of these constructs.

Self-worth. Students' self-worth is intricately tied to their self-concept of ability in school settings. This self-concept of ability or self-efficacy has significant consequences for student achievement behavior. Self-efficacy is an expectation or belief that one is capable of performing a specific task, organizing and carrying out required behaviors in a situation. Efficacy is not self-concept of ability in a general sense; it is task - or situation-specific. One's self-worth is implicated when the task is important and when one's ability is threatened. Clearly, in the classroom, all tasks can be made important through the use of external rewards and certain evaluation procedures. Indeed, it is very difficult to look in a classroom and determine what is or is not important to different children. As a consequence, self-efficacy is often a critical factor predicting children's task and persist on difficult tasks, and even actual choices, willingness to try performance in many classrooms. At first glance, it may appear that increasing student's self-efficacy is merely a matter of increasing children's confidence that they can do well. This is not necessarily the case. Consider an example where a teacher tells all her students that everyone's story is going to become part of the class newspaper. Although all the children can expect success in getting their stories "published," a child may still harbor intense doubts about whether he or she can write a story. The child's self-confidence of ability to write the story has not been changed. Children's self-efficacy does respond positively when they learn to set short-term, realistic goals and are shown how to make progress toward these goals. It is not a matter of convincing them they can do well or even guaranteeing it; it is giving them the strategies to do so. Children's

understanding about their ability is responsive to developmental changes as well as situational influences, and this also has important implications for practice[35;4]. Young children tend to have an optimistic view of their ability, high expectations for success, and a sort of resilience after failure.8 Moreover, young children tend to equate effort with ability. To them, hard workers are smart and smart children work hard. As children progress through school, their perceptions of their ability decrease and tend to reflect the teacher's evaluation of their ability. Older children's self-evaluations are more responsive to failure or negative feedback, meaning that they are more likely to adjust their downward after failing. Older children also develop a more expectations differentiated view of effort and ability. While effort can increase the chance for success, ability sets the boundaries of what one's effort can achieve. Effort now becomes the "double-edged sword." Trying hard and failing threatens one's selfconcept of ability.

Achievement goals. Related to attributions are students' reasons for learning and their achievement-related goals. The issue here is why students engage in learning and choose to engage in academic tasks rather than whether they choose to do so. For example, students may choose to participate in specific activities to gain external rewards, to develop their skills and ability, or to demonstrate that they are smart by outperforming others or by trying to achieve success with minimal effort. Students who are interested in learning new things and developing their skills and ability have been described as mastery-oriented. These students are willing to expend the necessary effort to learn something new and confront challenging tasks. It is this mastery-goal orientation that is more and sustained involvement likely to produce independent learning in achievement activities. These students are motivated to learn. Students who instead perceive that normative performance is important and want to demonstrate that they have ability or to protect their ability when threatened are labeled performance-oriented. Such students tend to think more about their ability than about "how to do the task." Their strategies, such as memorizing

facts or reading or studying only what they think will be on a test, tend to serve their performance only over the short term. Whether students adopt mastery or performance goals is, in part, dependent on their classroom experiences, essentially their perceptions of how the teacher structures the classroom[36;9]. Many children enter school with mastery or learning goals but many become socialized into a performance goal orientation. When we consider the preponderance of public evaluation practices, normative comparisons, extrinsic rewards, ability grouping, and emphasis on production, speed, and perfection, it is no wonder that children find it difficult to maintain a learning or mastery orientation.

Enhancing motivation. In most of our foundational courses, we stop once we have covered the basic theories or motivational constructs. We cannot assume, however, that teachers are prepared to translate these ideas into classroom practice. This is a major problem for foundations courses. We give too little attention to how motivation concepts interface with the instructional program, too little attention to how the social context of the classroom can undermine or facilitate the development of students' motivation to learn, and too little attention to how motivation principles relate to each other. What we do is cover the basics, highlight a few principles, maybe even review a case study or two, and then hope that the teacher's intuition has somehow been enlightened and that the teacher will be able to apply this knowledge. Many textbooks, when it comes to dealing with applications, rely on conventional wisdom. There are several major texts that present a problem and then present teachers' solutions. These solutions are not linked to any conceptual framework. There is even an implicit endorsement of these ideas and solutions as credible, viable, and conceptually sound because the source is practicing teachers. Unfortunately, it is often the case that this is not so. The problem is that many strategies for enhancing student motivation involve the use of principles that are counter-intuitive. Let me illustrate this point with examples that are related to the motivation constructs described in the preceding section.

If children lack confidence in their ability to succeed, we might infer that these low-confident children should receive a heavy dose of success experience. The considerable literature on learned helplessness and attribution retraining, however, has shown that success alone does not alleviate a helplessness syndrome. In contrast to what we might surmise, providing or ensuring successful outcomes or feedback does not necessarily bolster children's confidence in their abilities. Such a prescription ignores the role of cognitive motivational factors in determining how children interpret their classroom experiences. For many children success is not sufficient to create or maintain a belief that they have the ability to reverse failure [37;77]. Children who are convinced that they lack the necessary ability to do school tasks do not take responsibility for success and even underestimate their performance when they do well. Thus, it is not a matter of persuading them they can do well or even guaranteeing it; instead, practice should involve giving them short-term goals and strategies for making progress toward the goals. Once students understand how to reach a goal and focus on strategies, rather than outcomes, they are more likely to "own" the outcome.

Related to an emphasis on success is the prescription "try to find something positive to say about a child's work." Reinforcing children's work even if it involves some small aspect of the total effort should be a step in the direction of giving the child more confidence. Unfortunately, for the very children who most need positive feedback, the "something positive" is often something unimportant and irrelevant to the task requirements. For example, if the task is to write a book report in a certain format, commenting positively on the child's neat handwriting is not likely to have the intended effect. On the one hand, the generous use of praise would seem to be an obvious and salient way of encouraging children who generally perform poorly, but as Brophy has shown, the way praise is often used in elementary school classrooms can undermine the achievement behavior of these children. The praise children receive is often on irrelevant aspects of a task; in these instances, children discount the praise.

Praise on easy tasks or praise that is no contingent on children's effort or performance quality can be interpreted by children as evidence that they lack ability; it can, therefore, have unintended negative effects on children's selfconfidence. The effects of praise must also be considered from a developmental perspective. Praise can be interpreted quite differently by younger and older children. Praising young children's effort conveys to them a positive expectation that they can do the work and can enhance their perceptions of their competence. Because older children have differentiated concepts of ability and effort, praising their effort may actually be interpreted by them as low expectations for their ability[38;118]. It is therefore important to understand how developmental changes in cognition mediate the effects of well-intended behaviors. The application of basic psychological principles requires more than just a casual understanding of how cognition gives meaning to actions and classroom events.

To sum up the chapter, we would like to restate that this study introduced many perspectives from researchers on the role of motivation in students' performance. There were some purposes to research in this area. Researcher chose this to find out the importance of motivation or the role of motivation in students" performance. Gadner, Dornyei and Ushioda defined motivation as the most important key or factor of learning a second language. The researcher proved in the study that, motivation is the main stimuli for better performance in learning. In this study, another purpose was to find out the effect of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation had a strong influence on learner. Both of them play an important role to learn a second language. This study also investigated the present atmosphere in the class-room[39;81]. Researcher found the class-room atmosphere is a now improved and friendly for the students. Another main purpose of the study was to investigate the role of the teachers for motivating the students. The role of the teachers is very much affective for the learners for language learning. In that

study, the researcher agreed that, teachers are playing the most important role for motivating the students. Ramage talked about the strategies of the teachers to make the students motivated. In this study researcher found that, class-atmosphere and the guidance of the teachers can make students motivated. Teachers should try to remove the afraid of the students. Students can learn better if they know about the purposes of the learning[40;64]. It is the duty of the teachers to motivate them by showing them the outcomes or the purposes of the learning.

CONCLUSION

Having learned a wide range of useful motivational strategies and techniques, we must now address the crucial question of what might be the best way of establishing a motivation-sensitive teaching practice. There is so much to pay attention to in the classroom: language content, teaching methodology, timing, administration, discipline, etc. that for many of us taking on another difficult "burden" - namely to be on a constant "motivational alert" – may be asking for too much. So what do we do?

Finally, if we want teachers to apply these constructs in order to develop these motivational patterns in students, it is important to recognize that motivation occurs within a context-the school, the classroom, and the family. We spend a great deal of time discussing individual differences in motivation, treating motivation as a trait, but not enough time attending to how the organization and structure of the classroom shapes and socializes adaptive and maladaptive motivation patterns. Moreover, developing a positive motivational orientation in students is necessarily a matter of dealing with diversity among students in the classroom. Teachers need to know ways of dealing with this diversity, and these methods ought to involve a comprehensive look at the classroom. Thus, the teacher must first be guided by goals that assign primary importance to developing in students a motivation to learn. Second, we need a framework for identifying those aspects or structures of the classroom that are manipulable. These structures must represent the classroom organization and must relate to instructional planning. Then we need to identify strategies that will serve to enhance the motivation of all students. These strategies or applications must be grounded in theory and research and evaluated in relation to developmental factors and in relation to other motivation constructs, as well as individual differences. Many educational psychology textbooks describe one or two ideas for application but do not provide a comprehensive view of classroom organization. When we look at the

classroom, there are six areas of organization that are manipulable and that involve motivational concerns: task, authority, recognition, grouping, evaluation, and time. These structures have been described in considerable detail by Epstein. There is considerable research that relates to each area, and there are many motivational strategies that can be extracted from the research; the point is to apply appropriate strategies in all of these areas frequently and consistently. Preservice teachers often learn a great deal about only one area, and practicing teachers often focus on one or two areas but do little in the others. As a consequence, motivation becomes restricted to one area of the classroom. Often that area is reward or recognition (providing rewards and incentives), and even in that area inappropriate strategies are used. This framework offers a starting point for extracting motivational strategies and applications from research and theory, and for relating them to all areas of classroom organization and instructional planning. This is important because motivation enhancement cannot be reserved for Friday afternoons, or be viewed as something to be used during free time or extra time or as superfluous to academic activities. Nor can motivational concerns surface only when a student does not do well. Motivation as an outcome is important to all students in the classroom all the time. This view gives student motivation a central place as an educational outcome, important in its own right. The emphasis is on identifying strategies that will foster a mastery-goal orientation in students and that relate to all aspects of classroom learning and organization. It requires a comprehensive approach to looking at how motivation theory and research interface with classroom learning. When we speak and investigate about our research work I can admit that motivation is very fruitful and effective in teaching process. Another common extrinsic motivational strategy, used primarily at the elementary level, is to give tokens and other prizes to student when they perform a desired behavior. These extrinsic rewards act as concrete representations that something of "value" has been accomplished. Therefore they are intended to act as the reinforcement in the process of operant conditioning. This technique originated

in the field of psychology called *behaviorism*, and is most associated with one of its pioneers, B.F. Skinner. In operant conditioning, the operant - or desired behavior that is being conditioned – is reinforced by an extrinsic reinforcement/reward. In this case the operant is the act of desirable behavior on the part of the student, and the extrinsic reward is the token or prize. The notion of "expectancy of success" has been one of the most researched factors in motivational psychology for the past four decades, which is due to the undeniable fact that we do things best if we believe we can succeed. Similarly, we learn best when we expect success. Of course, expectancy of success is not enough in itself if it is not accompanied by positive values; we are unlikely to initiate a task, even if we expect to succeed in it, that we do not enjoy and that does not lead to valued outcomes .My guess is simply because it is a very convenient way of referring to what is a rather complex issue. For example, when we say that a certain student is "motivated", most teachers and parents can well imagine what we mean -a keen, committed and enthusiastic learner who has good reasons for learning, who studies with vigor and intensity, and who demonstrates perseverance – yet it would be rather unwieldy to be more specific and list all these attributes

USED LITERATURE

- 1. Karimov I.A "Harmoniously Developed Generation is the Basis of progress of Uzbekistan" -T.: 1998, 17p.
- 2. Karimov I.A a decree "On measures to further improve foreign language learning system" 12p.
- 3. Saidaliyev S. Chet tili o'qitish metodikasidan ocherklar. -Namangan: 2004,54p
- M. Hodjaev, T.B. Ryasnaya, M.Y. Molyavskaya. English for the Youngest. Samarkand, Uzbekistan, MChJ Tong, 1999, 120p
- Malik A. Hodjaev Language Teaching Experiment. Samarkandksiy Vestnik, Samarkand, Uzbekistan, 1997, (Journal article) 32p
- Комков.И.Ф." Методика обучения иностраннъм язикам" Минск.1979, 41p
- Maslow, A. H.Motivation and Personality (2nd ed). New York: Harper and Row. . 1970, 98p
- Stipek, D. J. Motivation and instruction. In D. C. Berliner and R. C.Calfee (Eds.) Handbook of Educational Psychology. New York: Mac-millan, 1996,45
- 9. Weiner, B. Human Motivation: Metaphors, Theories and Research.1996,220p
- 10.Weiner, B. Integrating social and personal theories of achievement motivation. Review of Educational Research, 1994,573p
- 11.Dornyei, Z. 1994. Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom. Modern Language Journal, . 1994,284p
- Dornyei, Z. Motivation in action: Toward a process-oriented conceptualisation of student motivation. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 2000.510p
- Dornyei, Z. Motivational strategies in the language classroom. Cambridge: CUP. 2001 87p

- 14.Dornyei, Z Teaching and Researching Motivation. Harlow: Longman. 2001,78p
- 15.Dornyei, Z. and I. Otto 1998. Motivation in action: A process model of L2 motivation. Working Papers in Applied Linguistics (Thames Valley University, London), 1998,69p
- 16.Dornyei, Z., ed. Attitudes, orientations, and motivations in language learning. Oxford: Blackwell. 2003,24p
- 17.Gardner, R. C. Integrative motivation and second language acquisition. In Z. Dornyei & R. Schmidt 2001,99p
- 18.Wlodkowski, R.J. "Enhancing Motivation to Learn." San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1985.23p
- 19.Wlodkowski, R. J..Enhancing Adult Motivation to Learn. San Francisco, A: Jossey-Bass. 1986,16p
- 20.Wlodkowski, R. Motivation and Diversity: a Framework for Teaching. In M. Theall (ed.) Motivation in Teaching and Learning. New Directions for Teaching and Learning # 78. San Francisco: Jossey Bass, 1999.52p
- 21.Burden, P. R. Classroom Management and Discipline. New York: Longman. 1995,40p
- 22.Raffini, J. P. 150 Ways to Increase Intrinsic Motivation in the Classroom. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon. 1996.19p
- 23.MacIntyre, P. D. Language anxiety: A review of the research for language teachers. In D. J. Young (Ed.) Affect in Foreign Language and Second Language Learning. Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill, 1999.45p.
- 24. Young, D. J. (Ed.) 1999. Affect in Foreign Language and Second Language Learning. Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill. 1999,121p
- 25.Ehrman and Dornyei Ehrman, M. E. and Z. DoÈ rnyei 1998. Interpersonal Dynamics in Second Language Education: The Visible and Invisible Classroom. Sage, Thou-sand Oaks, CA. 1998,66p

- 26.McCombs, B. L. and J. S. Whisler .The Learner-Centered Classroom and School: Strategies for Increasing Student Motivation and Achievement. SanFrancisco, CA: Jossey-Bass. 1997,13p
- 27.Covington, M. 1992.Making the Grade: A Self-Worth Perspective on Motivation and School Reform. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.Glasser 1980,43p
- 28.Dweck. C. Self-theories: Their Role in Motivation, Personality, and Development. Psychology Press. 2000,65p
- 29. Brophy, "Conceptualizing Student Motivation," pp. 2000,215p
- 30. Brophy, J. E. Motivating Students to Learn. McGraw-Hill, Boston, MA. 1998,104p
- 31. Carole Ames and Russell Ames, 'Systems of Student and Teacher Motivation: Toward a Qualitative Definition," Journal of Educational Psychology (1984): 335p
- 32.Raffini, J. P. 150 Ways to Increase Intrinsic Motivation in the Classroom .Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon1996,59p
- 33.Ushioda, E. The role of motivational thinking in autonomous language learning. In D. Little and B. Voss (Eds.) Language Centres: Planning for the New Millennium. Plymouth: CERCLES, Centre for Modern Languages, University of Plymouth, 1997,50p
- 34.Wong, M. M. and M. Csikszentmihalyi 1991. Motivation and academic achievement: The effects of personality traits and the quality of experience. Journal of Personality, 1999,574p
- 35.Dornyei, Z. and Otto, Motivation in action: A process model of L2 motivation. Working Papers in Applied Linguistics, (Thames Valley University, London) 1998,4p
- 36.Scheidecker, D. and W. Freeman Bringing out the Best in Students: How Legendary Teachers Motivate Kids. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press 1999,9p

- 37.Mc Combs, B. L. and J. E. Pope .Motivating Hard to Reach Students. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association. 1994,7p
- 38.Cohen, A. D. 1998.Strategies in Learning and Using a Second Language. Harlow: Longman. 1998,118p
- 39.Dornyei, Z. Psychological processes in cooperative language learning: Group dynamics and motivation. Modern Language Journal, . 1997,81p
- 40.Lengnick Hall and sanders,1997,64p