Analyzing the Role of Using Motivation Strategies to Improve EFL Students' Performance:

A Case Study of Faculties of Education, University of Gezira, Sudan (2017)

Abeer Ahmed Mahgoub Mohammed

August/ 2018

Analyzing the Role of Using Motivation Strategies to Improve EFL Students' Performance:

A Case Study of Faculties of Education, University of Gezira, Sudan (2017)

Abeer Ahmed Mahgoub Mohammed

B.A

Omdurman Islamic University- Faculty of Art (French)

(1995)

D.A in (ELT)

University of Gezira- Faculty of Educational sciences – Alkamleen

A dissertation

Submitted to the University of Gezira in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the Degree of Master

In

English Language Teaching (ELT)

Department of Foreign Languages

Faculty of Educational Sciences of EL-kamleen

Gezira University

August/ 2018

Analyzing the Role of Using Motivation Strategies to Improve EFL Students' Performance:

A Case Study of Faculties of Education, University of Gezira, Sudan (2017)

Abeer Ahmed Mahgoub Mohammed

Supervision Committee:

Name	Position	Signature
Dr. Elhaj Ali Adam Ismaeel	**Main Supervisor**	**………………**
Dr. ELmubark Elsidig Saeed	**Co-Supervisor**	**………………..**

Date: 8 /2018

Analyzing the Role of Using Motivation Strategies to Improve EFL Students' Performance:

A case Study of Faculties of Education, University of Gezira, Sudan (2017)

Abeer Ahmed Mahgoub Mohammed

Examination Committee:

Name	Position	Signature
Dr. Elhaj Ali Adam Ismail	**Chairperson**	**……………….**
prof.Ibrahim Ahamed Alfaki	**External Examiner**	**………………..**
Dr. Ahamed Gassm Elseed Ahmed	**Internal Examiner**	**………………..**

Date of Examination: **/ August /2018**

Dedication

I dedicate this work to

My family, teachers and friends

Acknowledgements

Sincere gratitude be to Allah, the Almighty for his help. I am grateful to **Dr. Elhaj Ali Adam Ismail** my supervisor for his encouragement and constant help. Thanks are also due to my family who helped me a lot.

Analyzing the Role of Using Motivation Strategies to Improve EFL Students' Performance:

A Case Study of Faculties of Education, University of Gezira, Sudan (2017)

Abeer Ahmed Mahgoub Mohammed

Abstract

Motivation plays an important role in the promotion of teaching and learning excellence. Teacher motivation has great influence in student motivation, if the teacher is well motivated, it will reflect in student motivation. The study aims at to shoed light to the most important and the least important motivational strategies employed in the Sudanese EFL context. To encourage teachers to use the effective tools to motivating EFL students. The study adopt the descriptive analytical method. A questionnaire was used as a tool to collecting data. The sample of the study consist of (286) EFL teachers of Sudanese Universities faculty of Education, the data analyzed by using statically package social- sciences program (SPSS). The study found that:. EFL teachers in Sundaes University duly employ the motivational strategies they believe in. EFL student's practitioners in Sudan University did not find any motivational strategy less than important. The relationship between teacher and learner play a great role in teaching and the learning process. To motivate students during the classroom, a teacher should provide his learners with a tape to appeal them for lessons. To increase motivation among the learners' this needs excellent designers of curriculum. The study recommended that: EFL Teachers should undertake advanced motivation courses since they are not professional in the field. All teaches should undertake advanced motivation strategies courses so that they can deal with it easily. Mutual respecting is a very important between teachers and learners inside the classroom because it enhance treatment between them. Visual aids should be consider by teachers when they teach young learners.

تحليل دور استخدام استراتيجية التحفيز في تطوير أداء طلاب اللغة الانجليزية كلغة أجنبية:

دراسة حالة: جامعة الجزيرة، كلية التربية، السودان (2017)

عبير احمد محجوب محمد

ملخص الدراسة

تلعب الدافعية دورا هاماً في تعزيز براعة التعليم والتعلم. دافعية المعلم ذات أثر عظيم في دافعية الطلاب، إذا كان دافعية المعلم جيدة فإنها سوف تنعكس على دافعية. هدفت الدراسة لإلغاء الضوء علي أهم الاستراتيجيات المتبعة في منهج اللغة كلغة أجنبية السوداني. لتشجيع المعلمين على استخدام الأدوات الفعالة في لزيادة دافعية طلاب اللغة الانجليزية كلغة أجنبية. اتبعت الدراسة المنهج الوصفي التحليلي. والاستبانة كأداة لجمع البيانات. تكونت عينة الدراسة من (286) معلما من معلمي كليات التربية، تم تحليل البيانات باستخدام برنامج الحزم الإحصائية للعلوم الجامعات السودانية (SPSS)الاجتماعية. توصل المعلمون بالجامعات السودانية يستخدمون استراتيجيات الدافعية التي يقنون بها، تلعب العلاقة بين المعلم والطالب دورا مهما في عملية التعليم والتعلم، تحتاج زيادة دافعية الطلاب لتصميم منهج ممتاز. **استخدام وسائل التواصل والمعلوماتية داخل صف اللغة الانجليزية كلغة أجنبية يزيد دافعية الطلاب. توصلت الدراسة: يجب على ان يطلع لكورس في التحفيز ليكون أكثر احترافا في مجال، يجب على المعلم استخدام وسائل التواصل والمعلوماتية والعارضات (بروجكتكر) في الصف لزيادة دافعية وتحفيز الطلاب، يجب ان يضع المعلم الوسائل المرئية في اعتباره عند تدريس طلاب اللغة الانجليزية كلغة أجنبية، يجب على المعلم استخدام كلمات بسيطة عندما يريد مناقشة فقرة او قصة** لتحفيز الطلاب في الصف، يجب على المعلم ان يزود طالبه بشرائط كاست لجذبهم نحو الدرس

Table of Contents

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCATION

1.1 Background

Conventionally , the learner , the teacher , and the instructional Materials are the most recognizable ingredients in the teaching of a second/foreign language. However, there are other important factors which normally operate less overtly and sometimes invisibly in the background .These include the following : educational policies, course administration , teaching methodologies , the objectives of learners , extramural language exposure , and the availability of learning centers and libraries . All these factors are either tangible or measurable and can be decreed into action , engineers by management planning , or implemented with budgets. There is , however , one missing ingredients which researchers and practitioners consider so important that all the other factors might be futile without it . This ingredient is motivation-the force which drive learners to make optimal use of the available learning resourses and achieve their learning objectives (Kimura, Nakata, and Okumura, 2001). "Motivation servers as the intial engine to generate learning and [it] later functions as an ongoing driving force that helps to sustain the long and usually laborious journey of acquiring a foreign language " (. Being a psychological construct, learner, motivation serves as the oil that lubricates the other parts of the language-learning mechanism and enables them to move freely and thus produce results. Motivation, according to Dornyei and Otto (1998), is dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritized, operationalised

and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out " This comprehensive definition touches upon every aspect of the construct that is relevant to the present study . in the present study , motivation is the dynamic stimulus within an individual which activates mental and physical activity , creates desires and realizes them or without success .

The recognition of the critical importance of motivation in adult language education dates back to the middle of the twentieth century or even earlier . Gardner and Lambart (1959) observed that an aptitude for language learning . According to them , achievement in a L2 is enhanced by the ability of the learner to adopt certain behavior patterns which are characteristic of the learner to another culture- the culture of the target language speakers . In the absence of the sometimes overpowering or even unavoidable opportunities for motivation to learn engendered by submergence in the target language environment, the language teacher becomes one of the best sources of motivation (Burns, 2010; Cheung, 2001). EFL practitioners often employ traditionally recognized motivational strategies in the classroom, although in theory there are no limits to the number of possible strategies. Depending on the background of the students and classroom circumstances, a teacher may employ strategies that are specific to language instruction, or even to the teaching of any subject. The motivational strategies available for teachers to choose from are derived from individual experience or formulated from research finding. Klavas (1994), for example , advocates motivational strategies based on taking the individual learning styles of the students into account, while schater (1999) recommends the use of technology rich environments to motivate students for increased for achievements in all subject areas. Den Brok, Levy, Breklemans, and Wubble (2005) recommend "proximity" in the

interpersonal behavior of the teacher towards students, while cheung (2001) supports the use of popular culture in the classroom to enhance students motivation. In contrast, others have proposed multiple broad strategies , each of which subsumes a large number of potential microstrategies, thanasoulas (2002) proposes four broad themes for developing a framework for motivation , using Dornyei and Otto's (1981) process-oreiented model. Each of these themes is sub categorized into and taxonomy of microstragies, many of which are explored in the present study. Ultimately, it is the individual teacher's prerogative to adopt the recommended strategies or devise new ones around popular or prescribed themes According to Dornyei (2001), the range of motivational strategies is so wide in terms of choice and effectiveness that it is virtually inconceivable that at least one or other among them would not be effective in any situation.

1.1 The Objective of the Study

The study explored the following objectives in relation to the over – riding aim:

1. To shoed light to the most important and the least important motivational strategies employed in the Sudanese EFL context.

2. To show the most frequently and the least frequently employed motivational strategies in the Sudanese EFL context.

3. To encourage teachers to use the effective tools to motivating EFL students.

1.2 Questions of the Study

The study explored the following questions in relation to the over – riding aim:

1. What are the most important and the least important motivational strategies employed in the Sudan EFL context?

2. What are the most frequently and the least frequently employed motivational strategies in the Omani EFL context?

3. Which way and techniques will be useful in to motivate EFL students ?

1. 3 Hypotheses of the Study

1. There are important least important motivational strategies employed in the Sudan EFL context?

2. There are most least frequently employed motivational strategies in the Sudanese EFL context?

3   There are some techniques and way will be useful in to motivate EFL students .

1.4 Significance of the Study

This study analyze the motivational strategies employed in the Sudan EFL context. It also advises the teachers to select rich teaching materials that improve learners' abilities to learning language and provide them with enjoyment and pleasure. Moreover, the study intends to help teachers develop their ways of teaching language.

1.6 Methodology of the Study

This study will follow the descriptive analytical method.

1.7 Limits of the Study

The study limited to University of Gezira, Faculty of Education.(2016)

1.8 List Approbation

EFL: English Foreign Language**.**

SPSS: Statically program for social Science**.**

CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

Motivation is the one of the most appealing yet complicated device used in learning. It has been a main subject of inquiry by researchers in many fields and mainly field of second/ foreign language learning, in teaching situation, various form of behavior are related to the concept of motivation. So what and why motivation, is a focal question which needs a great deal of efforts to better understanding English language process.

2.1 Definition of Motivation

Motivation is a concept about which there has not only been a universal a agreement but also a topic of a great deal among some definition of motivation, the researcher present a few samples historically, motivation comes from Latin Roots" *moves*" which means to move. Chauhan and MC and Clecllant(1987:4) defined motivation as " *Inferences about conscious intent that we make from observing behaviours"* . In the field of second and foreign language learning and in the socio educational model of second language acquisitions, Gardner(2001:6) defined motivation as*:*

> " *driving force in any situation" and that motivation to learn a second language is viewed as a comprising of three elements: First, he motivated individual expends efforts to learn the language, second: the motivated individual wants to achieve the goal, third the motivated individual will enjoy the task of learning the language."*

According to Gardner(2008:7) the individual cannot be considered as the motivated by only possessing one of three elements, instead, the truly motivated individual displays many attributes for example, the motivated individual:

a. Expend efforts to achieve the goal, is persistence and attentive to the task at hand.

b. Has goals and desire, her she has aspiration both immediate and distal.

c. Enjoy the activity of striving for the goal.

d. Experience positive reinforcement from his or her successes and dissatisfaction response to failure.

e. Makes attribution concerning his or her success to failure .

f. Is arousal when striving for the goal?

g. Makes use of strategies to aid in achieving the goal.

Dornyei (2001:119) viewed motivation as "multi faceted construct including personal, psychological, educational and social dimensions."

> *in social world." " Human ,motivation to learn is a complex phenomena involving a number of diverse source and conditions some of the motivational sources are situation, specific, that is, they are rooted in the student immediate learning environment, where some other appear to be more stable and generalized stemming past experience*

Thus it's clear that all those who dealt with motivation agreed upon the concept but them different to define it.

2.2 What is Motivation?

Motivation is a theoretical Maoher and Meger, (1997 :80)construct used to explain the imitation, direction, intensity and quality of behviour especially goal directed behavior.

Motivation is a particular (Ormord, 2003:60) interest in the field of education because of its strong impact on students learning. Motivation in education can have several effect in how student learn and their behavior toward subject matter it can provide:

- Direction.

- Increase energy an overall effort.

- Increase initiative and drive.

- Enhanced cognitive processing abilities.

- Highlight reinforcing consequences.

- Over all improve performance.

Motivation is an abstract and extremely important term in psychology, its pivotal concept most theories of learning. Motivation is a type of movement that penetrates boundaries, stimulates inter play between internal and external initiates and perpetuates mutual impact and interaction between the individual and his environment.

Motivation can be conceptualized as a part of process, a series of movement that direct and structures life itself. A distinction will be mad (Haddad2008:20) mention two types of motivation, general involves, internal movement and the action resulting from motivation, which tend to involve thought and emotion focused on the desire for a certain object or result where as the external involves action that are geared toward creating or obtaining the object or result. Motivation is inner drive to do something to finish a book complete on assignment motives are the forces that determine the arousal and direction of purpose full behavior, moreover, motives sustain behavior.

No doubt, all learners are ready to learn because they are driven by their normal interest to explore the new knowledge, and the learning capability therefore is a constant source of intrinsic pleasure for them. Meanwhile, the importance of motivation in foreign language learning has been emphasized continuously. Motivation is described as a personal trait. Some people have it and the others do not. In practice, some are labeled to be lazy because they do not display an outward sign of motivation.

However, individuals differ in their basic motivational drives. It also depends on their areas of interest. The concept of motivation is situational and its level varies between different individuals and at different times.

Motivation factor as a predictor of second language learning performance was introduced by Gardner and his colleagues. They attested integrative and instrument motives. Their integrative-instrumental distinction soon became extensively recognized and became a standard model. Gardner et al., (1992: 198) state that

> "*Instrumental motivation refers to acquiring language as a means*
> *for attaining instrumental goals while integrative motivation stems*
> *from a desire to understand the language and culture of another*
> *group for the purpose of interaction.*"

A relatively strong correlation between motivation and language learning success have found by researchers who investigated the effect of motivation on students achievement . Additionally, motivation widely has been found to affect the use of language learning strategies as stated in Ehrman and Oxford (1995: 359-386) who find out that

> *"Motivation has also been found to affect the use of language*
> *learning strategies, with highly motivated students generally*
> *employing strategies more frequently than less motivated students in*
> *many types of foreign language program."*

Motivation refers to the choices people make as to what experience or goals they will approach or avoid, and the degree of effort they will exert in that respect Keller (1983: 111). This definition clearly indicates that motivation includes making choices and exerting efforts. A considerable knowledge of two variable motives was discovered by MacIntyre and Gardner (1991: 62) who note that the old characterization of motivation in

terms of integrative versus instrumental orientation is too static and restricted. More confirmed for the validity and the fundamental importance of Gardner's social psychological model was done by Ely (1986: 28-33) who indicates the existence of two types of motivation clusters that resembled integrative and instrumental orientations. Later,

In the beginning of 1990s there has been a substantial view of EFL experts who were searching towards other motivational patterns. One of them is Dornyei (1990: 1-25) who proposes four subsystems motivational types such as: *integrative motivation*; *instrumental motivation*; *the need for achievement*; *attritions about past failures*.

The best approval one of the well-known interpretations is the differentiation between "*intrinsic*" and "*extrinsic*" motivation. Extrinsically motivated behaviors are the ones that the individual performs to receive some external reward as good grades, or to avoid penalty; while intrinsically motivated behaviors are internal rewards such as the joy of doing a particular activity or satisfying one's curiosity .

This framework was supported and extended by Clement and Kruidenier (1983: 273–291) and Noels et al., (2000: 57-85) who divide intrinsic motivation into "*knowledge*," "*mastery*" and "*stimulation*", and extrinsic motivations into "*external*," *introverted*" and "*identified regulation*." Thus, Sergi, M., (2004: 427-441) suggests that motivation can be related to different stages of information processing like "*input*," "*central processing*" and "*output*". In addition, Noels, et al. (2000: 60) point out that these models are not meant to replace the distinction between integrative and instrumental ones, but rather to complement it. Repeatedly, the rationality of such a discrepancy has been justified by pragmatic evidence. So, Shedivy (2004: 103-119) classifies five major factors "*the spark*," "*blending in*,"

"*desire to immerse*," "*pragmatic orientations*," and "*political awareness*" that motivate college students to study foreign language beyond high school into an integrative-instrumental contrast.

To increase the socio-psychological perspective, as a crucial aspect of motivation, researchers attempt reach the mainstream educational psychological theories such as Self-determination theory and Attribution theory. Naturally, these theories were cognitive. They are reflecting the belief that how one thinks about one's abilities, possibilities, potentials, limitations, and past performances, as well as various aspects of the tasks to achieve or goals to attain.

Also, the motivation of the individuals is powerful importance to the performance of language learning. Many researchers agree that motivation facilitates learning (Crookes and Schmidt, 1991: 469-512; Gardner, 2002: 1-20; Norton, 2001: 512-521). Gardner, (2002: 1-20) highlights the role of motivation for successful learning and reveals that

> "*If there is no intrinsic motivation among student, then, the teacher should create such motivation by understanding learners variability and choosing appropriate teaching mate4rials and curricula.*"

Though both instrumental and integrative motivations have been established as important predictors of language learning. Hence, previous work by Gardner and his colleagues has provided different findings as to which of the two types of motivation is more essential. Gardner and his colleagues conduct several studies in Canada which indicate that both financial rewards and integrative desires were positively related to various aspects of second language learning, *such as length of learning, effectiveness of learning, behaviors in the classroom, and willingness to interact with*

members of that community .MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991: 85-117; Gardner et al., 1992). However, Clement and Kruidnier (1983: 72) conduct comparative study of learners from subcultural and multicultural backgrounds. They argue that the integrative orientation appeared only in multicultural contexts among members of a clearly dominant group. Dornyei (1994: 49) concerns about the distinction between second language acquisition (SLA) and foreign language acquisition (FLA), pointing out that the studies of Gardner and his colleagues were mainly conducted in SLA contexts characterized by direct exposure or frequent interaction with the target-language community, while FLA contexts involve the target language being taught in school as an academic subject and a great proportion of the variance in language attainment. He claims that although integrative motivation affects language learning to some extent, instrumental motivation may be particularly important. Csizer and Dornyei (2005) in a study with Hungarian learners they find that integrativeness is the primary factor in the overall motivational disposition of second language learners.

Clear evidence appearing a fact that contexts have a deep impact on the way instrumental and integrative motives relate to language learning. The nature and the effect of certain motivation components might vary as a function of the environment in which the learning takes place (Dornyei, 1990: 48). MacIntyre and Gardner (1989: 251 - 275) overviews his theory, and admits that it would be too simplistic just to assume that the role of motivation should be consistent and universal in language learning in different settings. Later, MacIntyre and Gardner (1991: 62) emphasize that the important point is that motivation itself is dynamic. Therefore, the inclusion of contexts as a variable is essential to our understanding of motivation in relation to language learning.

Studies have consistently shown that *intrinsic motivation*, or a genuine interest in the language itself, is more effective over the long-term than *extrinsic motivation*, as in learning a language for a reward such as high grades or praise. *Self-determination Theory* categorizes motivation as intrinsic, deriving from internal satisfaction and enjoyment, or *extrinsic*, deriving from instrumental influences such as earning a reward or avoiding punishment . Noels (2003) examines the relationship between classroom practices and self-determination, and concludes that motivation consists of three chief elements: *intrinsic reasons*, *extrinsic reasons*, and *integrative reasons*. She finds that students' intrinsic motivation is strengthened by perceptions of autonomy support and informative feedback from the teacher. She also hypothesizes that the students who study English because they are forced to (a demographic making up a majority of English students in Saudi Arabia) would generally be less sensitive to the autonomy supporting or controlling distinction than those who do it of their own free will.

Attribution theory becomes the dominant model in research on motivation in psychology after the 1980s. It seems that the subjective reasons to attribute the past successes and failures considerably shape the motivational disposition underlying future action . In school contexts, ability and effort are the most common attributions for success and failure. It has been shown that failure attributed to low ability is more damaging in terms of future progress than failure attributed to low effort.

Study on second/foreign language learning motivation in the 1990s also concentrated on seeking explanations for outcomes of specific language tasks and behaviors rather than pursuing general tendencies in social contexts. In this regard, what Dornyei proposes as the *learning specific level component*, including *course-specific*, *teacher-specific* and *group-specific*

motivational components (Dornyei, 1994: 78), should be a subject for extensive research.

2.8 Motivation Perspective

Gardner's research has been criticized and considered not to apply universally to language learning. Other researchers have found different results from what has found by Gardner. They have supported instrumentality than integrativeness. For example, Lukmani (1972: 261-273) in a study of Indian students learning English in Bombay supports instrumental motivation. Also, Strong (1984) does not find any significant correlation between integrative motivation and high achievement in language learning. Also, other researches point to a lack of direct evidence for integrative motivation, especially in the contexts of English as a foreign language (EFL) (Dornyei, 1990: 1-25; Skehan, 1991: 275-298; Wenden, 1987: 159-168). On the other hand, result neither accepts nor rejects Gardner and his partners' socio-psychological findings. Opposing Gardner and his colleagues' argument, however, does not necessarily mean that their research result is not validated. So, motivational factors may differ according to different age groups and sex, different environments and cultural beliefs where the target language is taught and different expectations and religious thought of the society where learners reside.

Moreover, a similar difference between first and second/foreign languages may affect learners' motivation. Hence, Strong (1984: 175) examines pre-school children learning a foreign language, producing an opposing result to Gardner and Lambert's (1959) study of high school students. These results are comparable because different age groups may show different motivational factors. Comparing the age groups (high school students) examined by Lukmani (1972: 261-273) and Gardner and

Lambert (1959), Lukmani's study was conducted on Bombay students learning English while Gardner and Lambert on English speakers learning French in Montreal, Canada. Accurately, these contexts are similar in that the target language is available in the community where learners exist in. Hence, foreign language learning needs to be more carefully examined.

Previously, Gardner and Lambert (1972) conduct studies of English speakers learning French as a school subject. Their findings emphasized about the importance of integrative motivation. On the other hand, EFL studies by (Dornyei, 1990: 1-25; Skehan, 1991: 275-298; Wenden, 1987: 159-168) present different results. The question is whether French learnt by English speakers is comparable with English taught in foreign Arab or not.

As known, EFL is much more widespread in the world than any other foreign language. English is nowadays an international language, and thus, whether it is a foreign or second language, it already encourages instrumental motivation according to its high social prospects. Thus, learning English may be more directly connected with its utilitarian purpose than with a particular culture (for instance, learning American culture). Meanwhile, learning any other foreign language may intrigue a more integrative motivation. Since its social availability and expectation that is far less than that of English, learners of any foreign language may need to employ other motives whereby they will continue learning the language.

2.9 Motivation and Time

Time can affect motivation positively; meanwhile, it can harm learning in general. Subsequently, Dornyei and Otto (1998: 43-69) drew on the work of Heckhausen and Kuhl's *Action Control Theory* Dornyei, (2001: 19-36) in developing a model of motivation that unites a time-based

dimension reveal that motivation is regarded as consisting of three stages: the *Pre-actional Stage*; the *Actional stage*; and the *Post-actional Stage.* Dornyei (2001: 19-36) argues that

> "*Ignoring time can - and often does - result in a situation when two theories are equally valid and yet contradict - simply because they refer to different phases of the motivation process.*"

Thus, it is possible to view integrative dimensions, motivational force and student attributions, as part of a single motivational process.

In addressing the relationship of motivation with time, Dornyei and Otto's model therefore plays a unifying role. Also, Schumann (2001: 216) addresses five stimulus appraisal dimensions, developed from a novel, neurobiological perspective of language acquisition. They are: *novelty* (degree of unexpectedness/familiarity), *pleasantness* (attractiveness), *goal/need* significance (whether the stimulus is instrumental in satisfying needs or achieving goals), *coping potential* (whether the individual expects to be able to cope with the event), and *self and social image* (whether the event is compatible with social norms or the individual's self-concept) (Dornyei and Otto, 1998: 58).

Also, Dornyei (2001: 19-36) uses the process model as a method for motivating strategies to be used by instructors in the classroom. They are *"Creating the basic motivational conditions*; *Generating initial motivation*; *Maintaining and protecting motivation*; and *Encouraging positive and retrospective self-evaluation.*" He suggests 102 existing motivational strategies. He also promotes the development of group cohesiveness; he offers '*try to prevent the emergence of rigid seating patterns*.' In terms of

implementing the strategies, Dornyei emphasizes quality rather than quantity. He argues that a positive motivational atmosphere in the classroom can be created by a few friendly strategies.

2.10   Motivation and Behaviour

It is well known that students who study EFL only as a college requirement do not value language learning for knowledge. Weak relationships are shown between those same learners and a preference for challenging activities. Hence, challenge is a positive element for those students who place a high value on language learning, but not so for anxious students (Jacques, 2001: 185-211).

Particularly, there has been reasonably little research on how the integrative motivation affects behaviour and preferences in the classroom. In famous studies, Jacques (2001: 185-211) and Schmidt and Watanabe (2001: 313-359), compare the relationship between motivation and preference for learning activities grouped into five sub-scales using factors analysis. They are

1. practical proficiency orientation,

2. challenging approaches,

3. cooperative learning,

4. innovative approaches and

5. traditional approach.

They add that other relevant aspects into language learner psychology include willingness to communicate and strategy use. Experimental investigation by Clement and others has shown that two of the strongest predictors of willingness to communicate are communication and anxiety and perceived communication competence, they are also closely linked to L2

motivation (Dornyei, 2005: 208). Also, O'Malley and Chamot (1995: 160) suggest that there is an edge below which there is no strategy use by students. They note that learning strategy instruction would be most valuable for students who are not successful learners, yet these are the students who may be least motivated to try new strategies, since they may not have confidence, they are able to success anyway. Probably there is a coexistent lack of motivation. Therefore, motivation leads to the use of strategies which in turn sustains motivation.

2.6 Demotivation

Generally, in the field of ESL/EFL setting, there is a feeling that demotivation and demotivated learners are unsuccessful against the well-known rule which states that all human beings born by nature motivated. Dornyei, 2005: 109) argue that

"*It is clearly seen that much of the teacher training I have received, and most of the teaching books I read, assume - with no doubt - that students are in possession of what Edmondson calls the enabling function of motivation is a minimal profile that is a necessary precondition for L2 acquisition.*"

Dornyei adds that it has been clearly seen that compulsory foreign language education and a proportionate amount of attention need to be paid to the problem as he states that

"*In my own experience, demotivation is much more commonplace than regularly admitted, and I think demotivated students would be better served by formal recognition that they are completely natural feature of an arguably unnatural practice.*"

It has been noted that the correlation between negative teacher behaviour and demotivation reported in the instructional communication

field is fully consistent with the results obtained in the L2 field (Dornyei, 2001: 19-36).   Here is a focus on some researches that raise interesting issues missing from most studies that seek to measure motivation as a cumulative force of motives.

Initial, using qualitative research approaches, Chambers (1993: 13) study how British high school language students feel, what they like and dislike, the approaches of which they approve and disapprove then put together a lesson to suit them.   The recommendations include the need to listen to individual students; the need for sympathetic and understanding teachers; the detrimental effect of negative social influences and the importance of goals and orientations in affecting motivation.   In this study the social setting simply excludes effective language learning.   Also, Ushioda (1998: 77-89) studies the demotivating factors in the learning experience of Irish learners of French.   She describes demotives as the *"teaching methods*, *learning tasks*, and *coursework pressures*."

First and foremost, without exception, the factors identify here are related to negative aspects of the institutionalized learning framework, rather than personal factors such as falling grades or negative self-perceptions of ability. Consequently, Nikolov (2001: 149-169) in a study of failed language learners, finds that unsuccessful learners attributed language learning success to controllable, unstable factors such as persistence and hard work, rather than to uncontrollable factors such as aptitude or orientation. Classroom processes were also perceived as important mediators of long-term outcomes. These investigations may resound with teachers in Saudi Arabia. Additionally, Nikolov (2001: 149-169) discourses the relative strength of various demotives, noting that the writings on learned helplessness suggests that one's demolished self-concept is very hard to

rebuild, but other types of demotives (such as boring classes) may lend themselves more easily to adjustment. When teacher-enthusiasm turns out to be faked, the effect is noticeable. Although such teacher behaviour would be considered an external demotive according to Dornyei's (1994: 273-284) model, which modified again by the same writer in (2005), its outcome is clearly internalized.   Ushioda and Nikolov's findings contrast, to some extent, with two other studies (Dornyei, 2001: 19-36), and Williams et al, (2001: 173-186). They note that more than half of the reported demotives directly or indirectly concerned the teacher "*reduced self-confidence* and *negative attitude towards the L2"* also played an influential demotivating role. Similarly, in a study of Bahraini learners of English, because of their similarity with Saudi learners, Williams et al (2001: 182) find a relatively high amount of internal attributions for failure among the students. Their findings appear to be in keeping with an Islamic culture, in which the perceived importance of support from family and friends means failure is more likely to direct toward oneself. This leads to an argument of the Saudi context.

2.11 Function of Motivation

The notion of motivation, Chauhan, (1978) is old in the history of human knowledge. For instant, it was one of the major topics of philosphy since old Greek philopher like Plato and others. They referred to the concept of reason and free will in their writing to explain the human behavior. These concepts were similar in their functions to the concept of motivation in modern science of psychology, in the recent years, the concept of motivation has become one of central construct in psychology because its plays different

function in any learning process. Psychologist and researchers investigated and analyzed the motivated behavior and observed that motivation:

- Energizes behavior for a long time in the learning activity.
- Directs and regulates our behavior in order to be purposeful, persistence and goal oriented.
- Forces behavior to be selective Chauhan,(1978).
- Move more motivation is crucial (Gardner, 1992) factor in predicting and why people differ in their abilities to acquire a given language beside other factors like aptitude intelligence and ways of instruction.

2.8 Theories of Motivation

Like any other construct, motivation has different theories and the researcher will select the following as example:

1. Motivation: it was developed by (Morgan ,1973) in which he assumed that the sources of all our activities and behaviors can be attributed to an explained in terms of what he called as central motive state (CMS) which is hypothetical concept not bodily locus.

2. Maslow Theory of self actualization: these was developed by Abraham Maslow (1980-1970) in which he criticized by old approach of pain avoidance pleasure seek and tension reduction as source of motivate behavior instead he viewed motivation as rooted in the fulfillment of hierarch of needs.

3. Murray's theory of motivation it based on need theory.

4. Theory of achievement motivation it was developed by (David CMC ,1951) and his associates. According to him motivation is an outcome

of two important factors, environmental cue and affective arousal in the individual.

5. Psychoanalytic theory: it was developed by (Freud,1979) who rejected the pure rationalistic explanation of human behavior and proposed unconscious motivation as an explanation of behavior by analyzing the pattern of forces and energies which caused the action.

2.8Types of Motivation

Many psychologists consider that motivation has three dimension, intensity, direction and persistence, intensity is concerned with a mount of activation, potential and arousal, Direction concerned with movement, toward a particular goal and persistence reflect the duration of motivation overtime. (Gardener,2008) In learning foreign language psychologist have made distinguished between two major type of motivation which play a very vital role in determining how willing the learner is to preserve with task, also there are many other types which are also very important one of the main type is integrative motivation and instrumental motivation.

2.8.1 Integrative Motivation

Integrative motivation is assign of many developing language learners, good motivation play a critical role in achieving goals and lead not only hard work but also to increase concentration of Attention, Integrative motivation refer to the desire to learn a language to integrate successfully in to the target language community in later research studies, Crookes et al(1991:65) explored few other motivational orientations:

a. *Reason for learning.*

b. *Desire to attain the learning goal.*

c. *Positive attitude toward the learning situation.*

d. Effortful behavior.

Many theorists and researcher have found that it's important to recognize the construct of motivation. Not as a single entity but as a multi factorial one. Oxford and Shearin(1994:87) analyzed a total of 12 motivation theories or models, including those from socio psychology, cognitive development and socio- cultural psychology, and identified six factors that impact motivation in language learning.

1. *Attitudes (i.e., sentiment toward the learning community and the target language.*

2. *Beliefs about self (i.e, expectancies about ones attitudes to succeed. Self efficacy and anxiety)*

3. *Goals (perceived clarity and relevance of learning goals as reason for learning.*

4. *Involvement (i.e extent to which the learner actively and consciously participate in the language learning process.*

5. *Personal attributes (I,e, aptitude, ages sex, and previous language learning experience).*

6. *Environmental support (i.e. extent of teacher and peer support and the integration of cultural and outside of class support into learning experience).*

2.8.2 Instrumental Motivation

Garner and Lambert (1972) introduced the notions of instrumental and Integrative motivation refers to the learner's desire to learn .a language for utilitarian purposes such as (employment or travel or exam purposes) in the context of language learning.

2.8.3 Competence Motivation

It's drive to be good at something, allowing the individual to perform high quality work competence motivated people seek job mastery, and doing the best to be creative when faced with difficulties. They learn from their experience, (Prophy,1997) this kind of motivation give a pleasure and a chance the learners to prove themselves through the task, also its affect positively also its affect positively in the learning process in the classroom because learner have a desire to succeed.

2.8.4 Extrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic motivation is the factor come from outside an individual. The motivating factors are actions that results in the attainment of extremely administered rewards including pay prestige and positive evaluator from other. Extrinsic motivation unrelated to the task that student are performing. Hadded(2008) mention that when there is a reason for performing an act to gain something outside the activity itself, such as pleasing the teachers, passing the exam, obtaining financial reward or any other action that has very little to do with the task itself, the motivation is likely to be extrinsic.

2.8.5. Intrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic motivation the inner drive for desire to perform a particular task, is a very important part and very effective factor of the learning process. Haddad (2008) intrinsic motivation is natural and internal desire as learner purse personal when students are intrinsically motivated, they do not need incentives or punishment because the activity itself is rewarding.

2.8.6 Biological Motivation

It is a way of considering and regarding the physical need of children like hunger, thirst… ect it affect clear on the learning process and student's attention. This type of motivation makes the relation between the learner and the teacher very close Clifford (1987:2720) states that:

> " Are to large extended, rooted the physiological stated, the body there are very soon motives unclenching hunger, thirst desive for temperature regulation, sleep pain, avoidance and need of oxygen" .

2.8.7 Reflection Motivation

Is a very important motivation it is to free learners from control of reward and punishment? Which play a very effective role to learn foreign language and to be attention in their lessons because it's a critical part of learning process Burner, (1960:31) states that: "*one of the effective ways to help child to think and learn is to free him from control reward and punishment.*"

2.9 Types of Language Learning Motivation

During the last thirty years academics in various fields have attempted to explore the construct of language learning motivation from many different perspectives. Although there have been number of studies, there has been little discussion about what language learning motivation actually *is*. Dornyei (1996: 72) notes that motivation theories in general seek to explain no less than the fundamental question why humans behave as they do, and therefore it would be naive to assume any simple straightforward answer; indeed, every different psychological perspective on human behavior is associated with a different theory of motivation and, thus, in general

psychology it is not the lack but rather the abundance of motivation theories which confuses the scene.

While L2 motivation is a multidimensional construct, it is inappropriate to find one theory to explain all aspects of motivation. The term "motivation" is a broad concept that cannot easily be defined. Moreover researchers often discuss the concept of motivation whether it is affective, cognitive, behavioral or otherwise, without specifying what kind of motivation they are investigating Dornyei, (1998). Hence it is difficult to compare research results across different backgrounds and perspectives.

However it is also true that different theories enable us to look at different aspects of motivation. Therefore when conducting research and analyzing the data, the particular aspect of motivation addressed needs to be clearly specified. Hence, Dornyei (1999: 527) notifies that

> "*In the analysis of motivational research, researchers need to be explicit about which aspects of motivation they are focusing on and how those are related to other uncovered dimensions of the motivational complex.*"

As mentioned in the previous literature that the first academics who have started studying the relationship between language learning and motivation is Gardner and his colleagues. In an early study Gardner and Lambert (1959: 266-272) indicate that second language achievement is related not only to language aptitude but also to motivation. Also, in a subsequent study Gardner and Lambert (1972) suggest that language learning motivation can be divided into two types; *integrative motivation*, defined as the desire to integrate oneself with the target culture, and *instrumental motivation*, defined as the desire to learn a language for a specific purpose, such as employment. The importance of integrative

motivation in second/foreign language learning has received worldwide attention and has become a primary focus of research (Gardner, 1988: 101-126; Giles and Byrne, 1982: 7-40; Schumann, 1978: 27-50). However many researchers have tried to analyze language learning motivation without considering the different social contexts in which it occurs. Some researchers have found instrumental motivation to be a major factor in research conducted in the social contexts of the Philippines, India, and Japan (Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Lukmani, 1972: 261-273; Chihara and Oller, 1978: 55-68).

During the 1980s until the early of 1990s the research focus turned to the differences between ESL learners (those living within the target language culture) and EFL learners (those studying the target language within their own culture) (Au, 1988: 75-100; Crookes and Schmidt, 1991: 469-512; Dornyei, 1990). Also, Dornyei (1990: 1-25) suggests that in EFL contexts, where learners have not had sufficient experience of the target language community, motivational factors such as instrumental motivation should receive special attention. Similarly, Oxford (1996: 1-8) considers that EFL environments differ from the ESL situation and recommends that instrumental motivation is a main focus for research in EFL contexts.

Retrieving Gardner (1985) view, integrative motivation was positively related to achievement in language proficiency. Some researchers, however, have raised questions about Gardner's claims (Svanes, 1987: 341-359). According to Svanes, European and American students were considered integratively motivated at university in Norway, whereas the Middle Eastern, African and Asian students were considered instrumentally motivated. Svanes concludes that the types of motivation were related to the background of the students. Additionally, other researchers like (Dornyei,

1990: 46-78) argue that differences in contexts between second language acquisition (SLA) and foreign language learning (FLL) are significant. Dornyei tries to conceptualize motivation in a typical European FLL context. Because learners of FLL had not had enough contact with the target language group, integrative motivation was determined by more general attitudes and beliefs, that is, an interest in foreign languages and people; the cultural and intellectual values of the target language; and new stimuli through learning and using the target language .

Throughout the 1990s research on language learning motivation incorporated concepts from psychology and organizational research, fields with substantial bodies of motivation research. In a separate research, Deci and Ryan (1985) classify motivation into *intrinsic motivation*, the desire to engage in activities in anticipation of internally rewarding consequences such as feelings of competence and self-determination, and *extrinsic motivation*, the desire to engage in activities in anticipation of a reward from outside of and beyond the self. However, Hayamizu (1997: 98-108) argues that intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are not bipolar and antagonistic, but rather are located on a continuum of motivation types. Williams and Burden (1997: 145) also claim that motivation results from a combination of different influences. Some are internal, coming from the learner, such as an interest in the activity or a wish to succeed, while others are external, such as the influence of other people.

In a supporting perception of motivation as a many-sided complex of factors, Brown (1994: 74) proposes a two-by-two matrix representing the combination of the intrinsic-extrinsic dimension with the conventional integrative-instrumental dimension. It is difficult to divide language learning motivation into two distinct types such as integrative-instrumental

motivation or intrinsic-extrinsic motivation. Certainly there will be some areas where these four types overlap.

In addition to the intrinsic-extrinsic paradigm, other important motivation theories from the field of learner cognition are now being considered; Dornyei has termed the *Learner Level Component* of motivation (Dornyei, 1994: 273-284). Learner Level Component of motivation includes *goal-setting theory, attribution theory,* and *self-efficacy theory*. Oxford and Shearin, (1994: 12-28) argue that *Goal-setting theory performance* is closely related to a person's accepted goals. Weiner, (1985: 57) claims that *Attribution theory* is the way people explain their own past successes and failures will significantly affect their future achievement behavior. Again Dornyei, (1998: 117-135) suggests that *Self-efficacy theory* is people's judgment of their capabilities to carry out specific tasks will affect their choice of the activities attempted.

2.10 Enhancing Motivation

For parent of young children, the goal should be to appropriately support the development of motivation so that there is a proper foundation for optimal educational growth. Parent should be very actions about the use of many extrinsic rewards, as this can severely interfere with child's motivational development. Praise for an accomplishment is appropriate, but be sure that your child doing at asks because she is interested, not because she thinks it will bring praise from you. Bophy, (1997:77) .

Difficulties arise when adults or other within the child environment enforce external students and replace the internal reward system with one that depends upon outside forces to supply all of the rewards (Candy, 1986:44). Children then being to feel successfully only if someone else rewards them for accomplishments. They lose their intrinsic motivation and

may only feel successful. In such situations, children may not develop feelings of self- worth and will judge their own value by someone else's standards- your child should Never need to ask (Did I do well)? She should know and be confident in her own successes there are several strategies parents can use to help children remain more fully intrinsically motivated. Candy(1986:56) point that:

- Provide an environment (through age appropriate to freely explore and to see the effect of their action (i.e toys that have visible or tangible changes when moved.

- Provide many opportunities for children and adult to explore together and interact directly. It's important for both children and adults to be working together on activity. This let us observe, model and encourage your child.

- Provide situation that give children and slight difficult for child will be more motivating and provide for stranger feeling of success when accomplished. This may take some trial and error at first.

- Give children opportunities to evaluate their own accomplishment. Rather than stating that you think they have done a good job, ask them what they think of their work. You will never go wrong by asking the question" what do you think?) .

  Another way to increase motivation is very important to find out how to maintain and increase the learner, self- confidence (Dornyei,2002:22) mentions some approaches that support and help increasing the learners, self confidence:

  a.favourable self conception of l2 can be promoted   by providing regular experience of success.

  b. everyone is more interested in a task if they feel that make contribution.

c. A small personal word of encouragement is sufficient.

d. teacher can reduce classroom anxiety by making the learning context less stressful.

2.11 Material Motivation

Course materials should meet the needs and interest of the learners and contain activities that appeal to them, activities which encourage personal involvement tend to increase motivation cunning worth (1984:40) applies humanistic values to material evaluation in an information way and suggest that " whole- learner material should meet a number of criteria:

a. *There should be something for the emotions as well as for the intellect.*

b. *The materials should provide occasions another?*

c. *The material should allow student to draw on present as on their distant future goal what to teach, people of particular ages have different needs competencies and skill.*

Students' motivation is a desire to participate in the language learning it concern with the reasons or goals that under their involvement in activities. Leper (1988: 229) states that

"*Students who is inrinsic0ally motivated undertakes an activity for its own for the enjoyment. It provides the learning it permit or the feeling of accomplishment it evokes. Students consider of different age as if the numbers each age group are the same, yet each student is an individual with different experiences both in and outside the classroom"*

- Most of student respond positively to a well organize course which taught enthusiastic teachers who has a genuine interest in the students and what they learn.
- Activities undertaking to promote learning will also enhance students' motivation.

2.12 Authentic Material

Authentic material in motivation to consider the visual kinds of authentic material in classroom, these refer to photograph, sides pictures cuts from magazine, diagram and non linguistic elements on films and videos material. All those convey the meaning to the students in a very motivating and attractive way. These material can be used successfully in the class to motivate students and to create effective learning, but it will be missed if the task itself is not authentic Davies and Pears(2000:14) argues that:

> " *opinion it must be a genuine purpose for reading or listening to the material in the first place, they state that topics can be a rich source of motivation in the English language classroom, teacher may use authentic materials of personal interest for example, news paper, magazine article cassette of songs, and videos, and videos of television programs*" .

2.14 Motivation and Autonomy

A clear observation reflects that a strong correlation between autonomy supporting teacher behaviour and a high level of intrinsic motivation in foreign language learners. The same concept of autonomy proves problematic to teachers in Saudi Arabia. Later, Burrows (2008: 369) notes Japanese students' reluctance to initiate discussion, avoid raising new topics, seek clarification and volunteer answers. These are all types of behaviour that one might associate with autonomy in the Western and

Eastern countries classrooms as well as Saudi students. As noted previously, that students may be less sensitive to the autonomy supporting/controlling characteristics of teachers if the decision to study English was not their own. This simple factor could perhaps go some way to explaining the exasperation of teachers desperately attempting to gesticulate their way through brainstorming sessions with classes of confused Saudi teenagers. However, doubtfully that the concept of autonomy needs to be refined for the Saudi situation, and also that perhaps 'Western- and Eastern-style' autonomy needs to be encouraged very gently. As Oxford (1990: 207) in an argument of learning strategies, suggests pre-existing cultural preferences (such as those relating to concepts of autonomy) are an important motivational issue: If learners are brought up all their lives to prefer particular learning strategies, like analyzing grammar or memorizing word lists, they may not be highly motivated to drop these preferences and instantly learn a whole new set of strategies or they might become confused. In her (Oxford) study concludes that new strategies need to be phased in gently and gradually, no matter how dysfunctional the old strategy appears to be. Therefore, if teachers want to promote motivation through autonomy and strategy use, they first have to educate themselves about what autonomy means to the Saudi student, and be aware of student expectations.

2.13 Interaction between Motivation and Anxiety

No doubt, the relationship between motivation and anxiety, somewhat, seems to be complicated. This relation appears contradict. Accordingly, Matsuzaki (2006: 16-28) suggests that only one motivational variable (namely, practical reasons and intellectual satisfaction) was found to be associated with foreign language anxiety, providing weak support to the

hypothesis of a relationship between motivation and foreign language anxiety. Moreover, Matsuzaki emphasizes that

> "*Students who have practical reasons and intellectual satisfaction tend to have lower levels of foreign language anxiety. That is, the findings indicate that practical reasons and intellectual satisfaction are important factors for reducing foreign language anxiety.*"

Matsuzaki (2006: 16-28) finds that students who have practical reasons are likely to have lower foreign language anxiety. Thus, for students who feel very anxious in English lessons, it is effective for instructors to provide practical reasons for learning English. For instance, instructors should show what English that students are learning, such as, structure, vocabulary, etc. are useful for their life.

Matsuzaki (2006: 16-28) adds that students who have intellectual satisfaction tend to have lower foreign language anxiety. Matsuzaki recommends that teacher should therefore give classes and teaching materials in which students can find intellectual satisfaction. So, the results suggest that foreign language anxiety is only related to a small extent to motivation, and then the low level of variance explained suggests that other variables play more important roles. Later, Matsuzaki suggests that

> "*It is necessary to explore other potential factors which would influence foreign language anxiety. Thus, it would be unwise to conclude that motivation and foreign language anxiety do not interact.*"

Considering the two motivational dimensions are different in the extent that they affect anxiety level. Integrative motivation, not instrumental

motivation, seems to be able to predict anxiety level of learners to some extent. Consequently, Noels et al. (1999: 23-34) reveal that

> *"Learning a language for material rewards or because of some pressure does not support sustained effort or eventual competence. Language learners who have valued goals for learning, particularly the goal of self-development and enjoyment in learning, tend to be more involved and successful in that learning experience."*

If students learn English for reasons not of their own choice, these reasons are not very likely to have a positive effect on the learning process. For example, learning a language because of school requirements stood out as a factor negatively related not only to learners' anxiety level but also their proficiency. This motivation might not help alleviate anxiety in foreign language classrooms; the effect is in fact the inverse.

On the other hand, it seems that the more students feel that English learning is a matter of choice (for example, when they want to be admitted to a higher school) or enjoyable for them, the more likely they are to be willing to be actively involved in the learning experience, which will result in less anxiety in the classroom Gardner et al., (1992: 197-214) Noels et al., (1999: 23-34). Mostly, when students have a strong desire to go to English-speaking countries for travel or study, their anxiety levels are relatively low.

In conclusion, as Saudi students are not living in an isolate planet, Gardner's classical emphasis on integrative motivation as a facilitating force for language acquisition, it is conductive foreign language learning settings in Saudi Arabia.

2.14 Developing Motivation

According to Brophy(1979:33) says that: " *Newborn infants are born with a tremendous amount of intrinsic motivation*." This motivation is aimed toward having some visible effect on the environment. When infants can actually see the results of their action as a reward, they are motivated to continue those actions. These attempts toward control are limited within the young child, and include crying, vocalizations, facial expressions and small body movements. Toys that change or make sound as the child moves them are therefore strong motivators.

As infants grow and continue to mature (9-24 months), more voluntary, purposeful movements are possible. This gives them more control of their environment.(Brophy, 1979) This wider range of control allows children to feel that they are successful. Success leads to higher self- esteem and feelings of self- worth, which leads to strengthened motivation. As children continue to develop during this time period, they are better able to make decisions and plan what to do to gain control of things around them. They are beginning to set their own goals for activities. This success is not based upon adult standards, but totally upon the child's ability to accomplish the goals that he has set out himself.

By two years of age, children are developing the ability to execute a sequence of events in order to achieve a goal. They also have an appreciation for standards and begin to evaluate their efforts. By three years of age, children become interested in doing things well, as opposed to judge their success by their own internal standards. Therefore they have much less need for adult feedback about the quality of their efforts.

Preschoolers (age 3-5 year) are beginning to be more involved with verbal problem solving skills. They direct their own learning through speech and use vocal communication on direct their own behavior to solve

problems. Yong children are often heard talking themselves through a series of actions that lead to solution of a problem. AS a children get older, this " talking out loud" will become an internal monologue. Having the self confidence to know that one can solve a problem motivates the learner to accept other new and challenging situations, which in turn lead to greater learning.

2.15 Motivation Factors in Language Learning

Motivation in language- learning plays a vital role. It is motivation that produces effective second – language communicators by planting them the seeds of self- confidence. It also successfully creates learners who continuously engage themselves in learning even after they complete a targeted goal. In order for English instructors to motivate them a number of methods are needed both in and outside of class. According to Hussin, et at(2001:56)argues that:

> " *Positive self- concept, high self- es teem, positive attitude, clear understanding of the goals for language learning, continuous active participation in the language learning process, the relevance of conductive environment that could contribute to the success of language learning".*

Mutual resection between teachers and learners and confidence enhance students abilities to achieve their goals. Hussin, et at(2001:56) They state that six factors , influence motivational in language learning:

> "*attitudes, beliefs about self, goals, involvement, environmental support, and personal attributes. Above all, three specific elements are strongly believed to build motivation towards language – learning : self –confidence, experiencing and satisfaction, and good teacher- learner*

relationships as well as relationships between learners: Al three factors are believed to be correlated to each other in the process of motivation development. "

2.15.1 Investigation of three Factors Self – Confidence

Self – confidence is the most significant in language learning. It provides learners with the motivation and energy to become positive about their own learning. It also creates the drive in them to acquire the targeted language, enjoy the learning process, and experience real communication. "*At the heart of all learning is a person's belief in his or her ability to accomplish the task"* Atust(2003:63). " *In general, successful language learners appear to have higher self- esteem than those who are unsuccessful"* Richard(2003:45) Lack of belief in one's ability hinders him from achieving that task- Pursuing a targeted language accomplishment. Moreover, it is widely believed that once students gain self- confidence, it progressively expands, in conjunction with experiencing success and satisfactions as well as good relationships.

2.15.2 Experience of Success and Satisfaction

Experience of success provides students with more power to pursue a new goal. It allows language learners to understand the purpose of trying and have pleasure in communicating with others. Some people might- feel the sense of success when they complete a challenging task in a targeted language. Lile,(2000) The feeling of success time and again emerges specifically when he realizes the degree of his improvement and achievement. Some people, on the other hand, appreciate compliment from others. Subramanian suggests that external praise for one's improvement is strongly related to fomenting the sense of success. There is a similarity between the experience of success and satisfaction; the experience of success

at all times satisfies people not only in language learning but also in anything. To make it short, it is strongly believed that the experience of success comes hand in the hand with the sense of satisfaction.

According to Lile,(2000:55) " a *student will find it difficult to perform in a stressful environment"* . He also mentions that :" *the lesson must be very simple, yet fun and interesting, with a lot of changes from a writing exercise, to a speaking, listening, back to writing, and so on"* .
Nunan (1989:42) states that

> " *students need to be able to use the skills taught in the classroom to do things other than those that they experience success and become satisfied, that is essential for instructors to create a relaxing learning environment so that students can perform successfully."*

Moreover, a language class needs to contain a variety of materials and activities focusing on   all necessary skills. By encouraging students to practice not only skill but all, the class will become more challenging and effective.

2.15. 3 Good Relationships Among Learners and Between Teacher and Students

According to English , (Maarof, and, Cruz,2001)" teachers need to find creative ways to teach the language and increase the student's motivation to learn the language and to eventually appreciate the language" . There are a number of methods that English instructors can use to motivate students in class, and instructors should flexibly employ the most suitable method for the class. Furthermore, Kabilan(2000:1) indicted that" *Teachers should develop a mutual relationship with their learners"*). In order to develop a mutual different backgrounds, have different interests, future

goals, aims for English learning, and most importantly, different personalities. Hussin, Maarofa(2000) understand them better, teachers are able to apply specific teaching and communicating strategies tailored to teach student, thereby creating a trusting relationship between a teacher and student. Once a relationship develops, the classroom will became comfortable and enjoyable enough for students to learn positively from the teacher without any hesitation.

Hussin, et alCruz(2001:25) mention that

" *what occurs in the language classrooms must be extended beyond the walls of the classroom so that a link is created between what is learned in the classrooms with what occurs outside of the classrooms.*"

Languages cannot be learned merely in classrooms. Learning a language requires communication in real life's situations. Thus, students need to acquire an array of communication skills that they can use with various kinds of people. It is essential that they learn not how to communication in the target language but also the background, history, and culture that defines it. Nunan(1999:)mention that:

" *students who remain silent in groups of ten or more will contribute actively to discussions when the size of the group is reduced to five or three. Type of communicative task can also influence students' willingness to speak.*"

According to Richard- Amato,(2003:22) *" In classrooms in which mutual respect is lacking, differing values can lead to conflicts between student and teacher, and between student and peer"* .The classroom size and the size of group are to be carefully considered. Language learners tend to feel frightened to make a speech in front a big group. Thus, teachers need to aid students who need support and encourage then to understand that no one

can be as perfect as native speakers. In addition, teachers are required to teach all the students the importance of having respect for one another in a classroom so that teach the students can actively participate in lesson.

2.15.4 Students Voices

I did a survey on motivation using the students in my class. College freshmen were interviewed regarding the class contents, materials, and the ideal teacher.(Cakon,1993) Half of them ha already experience studying abroad, the other half had not, but their English abilities were as functional as those of returnees.

More students preferred visual aids for new information and their memorization. This means that when teachers introduce new information, visual aids are necessary for students to grasp main points and details. In addition, the students enjoyed thinking rather than talking and individual studying more than group studying' this proves that even returnees who had more opportunities to participate in group studying abroad feel comfortable with a passive studying style. Furthermore, thinking comes before trial according to the survey. This means that students need to obtain time to use their critical thinking strategy before they actually start trying in language learning. The students answered the question" What kind of teacher do you prefer?" like below.

- A teacher who knows how to deal with students, especially teenagers.
- A teacher who does not force ideas on the students.
- A tolerant and responsible teacher with a sense of humor.
- A funny teacher who can be serious when necessary.
- A caring teacher.
- A friendly teacher.
- An active teacher.

- A teacher who can understand what students" expectations are.
- A trustworthy teacher.

Teachers need to acquire what students pursue in teachers in order for students to be motivated in language learning. They certainly have a strong relation with students' motivation status. It is understood that a teacher's personality and behavior towards students have a strong influence. In order to produce successful language speakers, teachers should devote themselves to teaching.

2.16 The Role of the Teacher as Motivator

There are several factors educator must consider in managing the classroom and motivating one of the factors, the role of the teacher as motivator, when the teacher takes place by itself if student are not enjoying learning, something is wrong with curriculum and teachers instruction and why do students learn move from some others? The true teacher accept, all students not just only good love, some teacher more than others? The true teacher accepts all students not just only good students who behave and a good work and cannot accept those who do not work and have wrong attitude or who cause troubles. Burne(1976:88) mention whatever the teacher does in the classroom his ability you motivate the students to arouse their interests and involve them in what they are doing will be crucial. Some key factors will be his own performance, his mastery of research skill often depend on careful preparation, selection and presentation of topics and activities and of course his own personality which his language teaching must be flexible enough to allow him to both authoritative and friendly and friendly at the same times. The relationship between the teacher and his student is a very major topic developing the learning process.

2.17 Students Motivation

Some student- seem naturally interesting about learning but many need their teachers to encourage and stimulate them, because effective learning in the classroom depend in the first place- on teachers ability to main taint the interest of students. Cours (2006:1) mention that:

> " the age of our students is a major facto in our decision about how and what to teach people of particular ages have different needs competencies and cognitive skills whatever, the level of motivation students brings to the classroom will be trans formed for better or worse, by what happen in the classroom"

Students motivation is a desire to participate in language learning. It concern with reasons goals that under their involvement in activities Lapper(1988:290) states that: Students who are intrinsically motivated under takes an activity for its own sake for enjoyment it provide the learning it permits or the feeling of accomplishment it evokes.

2.17.1 Encourage Student to Personalize the Classroom Environment

Providing students with a learner centered, low- anxiety classroom environment has a great impact on language acquisition. Personalizing the environment can relax the students and enhance the friendly atmosphere, which will increase their desire to learn and develop their language skills. Students when feel safe and comfortable will feel more secure taking chances, they will display greater motivation to read aloud in class or write an essay without the fear of being critized. As English teacher giving us a chance to arrange the classroom in the way that would make us feel most comfort (Einon, 1999:98) the teacher gave us the impression that there was

no limit to what we could do to our learning environment –we cornered the wall with colorful movie posters and the lyrics of famous song and we also personalize our desks- our classroom became a warm, cheerful place when we enjoyed learning and studying.

2.17.2 Create Friendly Atmosphere in the Classroom

Develop a friendly climate in which all students feel more comfortable participating in classroom activities after they know their teachers and peers. Creating a safe and a comfortable environment where every one feels like a part of the whole is the one of the most significant factors in encouraging motivation. Doing so may take time as students adjust themselves to a new setting. Einon, (1999:53) at the beginning of the school year, you can provides students with a bright and colorful classroom with pictures and project completed by the previous year's students the impression that learning the target language will be easy and enjoyable. It also gives students a chance to learn what is present in the environment. Pair and group activities can be used from what the very outset, reducing the pressure of teacher- student interaction and allowing students to feel recognize by their peers. The feeling of becoming a part of the whole is one of the strongest motivational factors at the beginning of a school year.

Students all over the world seem naturally enthusiastic about learning, but many need-or expect-their instructors to inspire, challenge, and stimulate them. Ericksen, (1978: 3) states that, effective learning in the classroom depends on the teacher's ability to maintain the interest that brought students to the course in the first place. Whatever level of motivation your students bring to the classroom will be transformed, for better or worse, by what happens in that classroom. Inappropriately, there is no single magical formula for motivating students. Many factors affect a given student's

motivation to work and to learn interest in the subject matter, perception of its usefulness, general desire to achieve, self-confidence and self-esteem, as well as patience and persistence. Hence, not all students are motivated by the same values, needs, desires, or wants. However, some students will be motivated by the approval of others, some by overcoming challenges (Bligh, 1971: 32; Sass, 1989: 86-88). Academics like (Lowman, 1984 and 1989: 136-39; Lucas, 1990; Weinert and Kluwe, 1987; Bligh, 1971: 32) have begun to identify those aspects of the teaching situation that enhance students' self-motivation to encourage students to become self-motivated independent learners. They propose the following to instructors to do:

1. Give frequent, early, positive feedback that supports students' beliefs that they can do well.
2. Ensure opportunities for students' success by assigning tasks that are neither too easy nor too difficult.
3. Help students find personal meaning and value in the material.
4. Create an atmosphere that is open and positive.
5. Help students feel that they are valued members of a learning community.

Ericksen, (1978) adds that good everyday teaching practices can do more to counter student apathy than special efforts to attack motivation directly. Most students respond positively to a well-organized course taught by an enthusiastic instructor who has a genuine interest in students and what they learn. Thus, activities being undertaken to promote learning will also enhance students' motivation.

2.18 Strategies to Motivate Students

As mentioned before there is no supernatural method to motivate students but, somehow, researchers suggest some tips and strategies to motivate students. For example

i. ***Ask students to analyze what makes their classes more or less motivating.*** Sass (1989: 86-88) asks his classes to recall two recent class periods, one in which they were highly motivated and one in which their motivation was low. Each student makes a list of specific aspects of the two classes that influenced his or her level of motivation, and students then meet in small groups to reach consensus on characteristics that contribute to high and low motivation. After finishing eight courses he reports eight characteristics emerge as major contributors to student motivation:

   a. Instructor's enthusiasm.
   b. Relevance of the material.
   c. Organization of the course.
   d. Appropriate difficulty level of the material.
   e. Active involvement of students.
   f. Variety.
   g. Rapport between teacher and students.
   h. Use of appropriate, concrete, and understandable examples.

Then, Lucas, (1990) adds that

ii. ***Make students active participants in learning.*** Students learn by doing, making, writing, designing, creating, solving. Passivity dampens students' motivation and curiosity. Pose questions. Don't tell students something when you can ask them. Encourage students to suggest approaches to a problem or to guess the results of an experiment. Use small group work. Do "Leading a Discussion," "Supplements and Alternatives to Lecturing," and "Collaborative Learning" for methods that stress active participation.

Forsyth and McMillan (1991: 70) suggest that

iii. ***Capitalize on students' existing needs.*** Students learn best when incentives for learning in a classroom satisfy their own motives for enrolling in the course. Some of the needs your students may bring to the classroom are the needs to learn something in order to complete a particular task or activity, the needs to seek new experiences, the needs to perfect skills, the needs to overcome challenges, the needs to become competent, the needs to succeed and do well, the needs to feel involved and to interact with other people. Satisfying such needs is rewarding in itself, and such rewards sustain learning more effectively than do grades. Design assignments, in-class activities, and discussion questions to address these kinds of needs.

2.18.1 Instructional Behaviors for Motivating Students

American Psychological Association, (1992) held a study to prove and study the best instructional behaviour for motivating students. They suggest some instructions that can be undertaken by teachers to drive student motivates. These are:

1. ***Hold high but realistic expectations for your students.*** No doubt, teacher's expectations have a powerful effect on a student's performance. If teachers act as though they expect their students to be motivated, hardworking, and interested in the course, students are more likely to be so. Set realistic expectations for students when making assignments, giving presentations, conducting discussions, or grading examinations.

   Realistic here means that teachers' standards are high enough to motivate students to do their best work but not so high that students will inevitably be frustrated in trying to meet those expectations.

   In order to develop the student's drive to achieve better in EFL, students need to believe that achievement is possible. Hence, scholars such

as Bligh (1971), Cashin (1979), Lowman (1984), and, Forsyth and McMillan (1991) state that instructors need to provide early opportunities for success. They recommend

2. ***Help students set achievable goals for themselves.*** Failure to attain unrealistic goals can disappoint and frustrate students. Encourage students to focus on their continued improvement, not just on their grade on any one test or assignment. Help students evaluate their progress by encouraging them to critique their own work, analyze their strengths, and work on their weaknesses. For example, consider asking students to submit self-evaluation forms with one or two assignments.

3. ***Tell students what they need to do to succeed in your course.*** Don't let your students struggle to figure out what is expected of them. Reassure students that they can do well in your course, and tell them exactly what they must do to succeed. To freeze students' tension, say something like "*If you can handle the examples on these problem sheets, you can pass the exam. People who have trouble with these examples can ask me for extra help.*" Or instead of saying, "*You're way behind,*" tell the student, "*Here is one way you could go about learning the material. How can I help you?*" (Cashin, 1979; Tiberius, 1990).

4. ***Strengthen students' self-motivation.*** Avoid messages that reinforce your power as an instructor or those emphasize extrinsic rewards. Instead of saying, *"I require," "you must*," or *"you should,"* stress *"I think you will find. . ." or "I will be interested in your reaction."* (Lowman, 1989).

5. ***Avoid creating intense competition among students.*** Competition produces anxiety, which can interfere with learning. Reduce students' tendencies to compare themselves to one another. Bligh (1971) reports

that students are more attentive, display better comprehension, produce more work, and are more favorable to the teaching method when they work cooperatively in groups rather than compete as individuals. Refrain from public criticisms of students' performance and from comments or activities that pit students against each other.

6. ***Be enthusiastic about your subject.*** An instructor's enthusiasm is a crucial factor in student motivation. If you become bored or apathetic, students will too. Typically, an instructor's enthusiasm comes from confidence, excitement about the content and genuine pleasure in teaching. If you find yourself uninterested in the material, think back to what attracted you to the field and bring those aspects of the subject matter to life for your students. Or challenge yourself to devise the most exciting way to present the material, however dull the material itself may seem to you.

Additionally, some academics advice teaching-learning dealers to hold on general structures for structuring the course in order to motivate students like

a. ***Work from students' strengths and interests.*** Find out why students are enrolled in your course, how they feel about the subject matter, and what their expectations are. Then try to devise examples, case studies, or assignments that relate the course content to students' interests and experiences. Explain how the content and objectives of your course will help students achieve their educational, professional, or personal goals (Brock, 1976; Cashin, 1979; Lucas, 1990).

b. ***Let students have some say in choosing what will be studied, if possible.*** Give students options on term papers or other assignments (but not on tests). Let students decide between two locations for the field trip, or

have them select which topics to explore in greater depth. If possible, include optional or alternative units in the course (Ames and Ames, 1990; Cashin, 1979; Forsyth and McMillan, 1991; Lowman, 1984).

c. ***Increase the difficulty of the material as the semester progresses.*** Give students opportunities to succeed at the beginning of the semester. Once students feel they can succeed, you can gradually increase the difficulty level. If assignments and exams include easier and harder questions, every student will have a chance to experience success as well as challenge. (Cashin, 1979).

d. ***Vary your teaching methods.*** Variety reawakens students' involvement in the course and their motivation. Break the routine by incorporating a variety of teaching activities and methods in your course: role playing, debates, brainstorming, discussion, demonstrations, case studies, audiovisual presentations, guest speakers, or small group work. (Forsyth and McMillan, 1991).

Moreover, others ensure de-emphasizing grades as

A) ***Emphasize mastery and learning rather than grades.*** Ames and Ames (1990) report on two secondary teachers. One teacher graded every homework assignment and counted homework as 30 percent of a student's final grade. The second teacher told students to spend a fixed amount of time on their homework (thirty minutes a night) and to bring questions to class about problems they could not complete. This teacher graded homework as satisfactory or unsatisfactory, gave students the opportunity to redo their assignments, and counted homework as 10 percent of the final grade. Although homework was a smaller part of the course grade, this second teacher was more successful in motivating students to turn in their homework. In the first class, some students gave

up rather than risk low evaluations of their abilities. In the second class, students were not risking their self-worth each time they did their homework but rather were attempting to learn. Mistakes were viewed as acceptable and something to learn from. Academics recommend de-emphasizing grading by eliminating complex systems of credit points; they also advise against trying to use grades to control nonacademic behavior (for example, lowering grades for missed classes. Instead, assign ungraded written work, stress the personal satisfaction of doing assignments, and help students measure their progress) (Forsyth and McMillan, 1991; Lowman 1989).

B) *Design tests that encourage the kind of learning you want students to achieve.* Many students will learn whatever is necessary to get the grades they desire. If the tests base on memorizing details, students will focus on memorizing facts. Also, if the tests stress the synthesis and evaluation of information, students will be motivated to practice those skills when they study (McKeachie, 1986).

C) *Avoid using grades as threats.* McKeachie (1986) points out, the threat of low grades may prompt some students to work hard, but other students may resort to academic dishonesty, excuses for late work, and other counterproductive behavior.

Furthermore, for enhancing students' work other academics emphasize to

1- *Give students feedback as quickly as possible.* Return tests and papers promptly, and reward success publicly and immediately. Give students some indication of how well they have done and how to improve. Rewards can be as simple as saying a student's response was good, with an indication of why it was good, or mentioning the names of

contributors: "*Cherry's point about pollution really synthesized the ideas we had been discussing.*" (Cashin, 1979).

2- ***Reward success.*** Cashin (1979) and Lucas (1990) reveal that both positive and negative comments influence motivation, but research consistently indicates that students are more affected by positive feedback and success.   Praise builds students' self-confidence, competence, and self-esteem. Recognize sincere effort even if the product is less than stellar. If a student's performance is weak, let the student know that you believe he or she can improve and succeed over time.

3- ***Introduce students to the good work done by their peers.*** Cashin, (1979) states, share the ideas, knowledge, and accomplishments of individual students with the class as a whole by:

   a. pass out a list of research topics chosen by students so they will know whether others are writing papers of interest to them,

   b. make available copies of the best papers and essay exams,

   c. provide class time for students to read papers or assignments submitted by classmates,

   d. have students write a brief critique of a classmate's paper, and

   e. schedule a brief talk by a student who has experience or who is doing a research paper on a topic relevant to your lecture.

                    In order to motivate students doing reading it is better to

i. ***Be specific when giving negative feedback.*** Negative feedback is very powerful and can lead to a negative class atmosphere. Whenever you identify a student's weakness, make it clear that your comments relate to a particular task or performance, not to the student as a person. Try to

cushion negative comments with a compliment about aspects of the task in which the student succeeded (Cashin, 1979).

ii. **_Avoid demeaning comments._** Many students in your class may be anxious about their performance and abilities. Be sensitive to how you phrase your comments and avoid offhand remarks that might prick their feelings of inadequacy (Fiore, 1985).

iii. **_Avoid giving in to students' pleas for "the answer" to homework problems._** When you simply give struggling students the solution, you rob them of the chance to think for themselves.

For using a more productive approach (Fiore, 1985) suggests that to

a. ask the students for one possible approach to the problem,

b. gently brush aside students' anxiety about not getting the answer by refocusing their attention on the problem at hand,

c. ask the students to build on what they do know about the problem,

d. resist answering the question "*is this right?*" Suggest to the students a way to check the answer for themselves, and

e. praise the students for small, independent steps.

Following these steps, students will learn that it is all right not to have an instant answer. They will also learn to develop greater patience and to work at their own pace. And by working through the problem, students will experience a sense of achievement and confidence that will increase their motivation to learn. So, the following tips should be useful

a- **_Assign the reading at least two sessions before it will be discussed._** Give students ample time to prepare and try to pique their curiosity about the reading such as: "*This article is one of my favorites and I'll be interested to see what you think about it.*" (Lowman, 1984; 1989)

b- *Assign study questions.* Hand out study questions that alert students to the key points of the reading assignment. To provide extra incentive for students, tell them you will base exam questions on the study questions. (Lowman, 1989)

c- *If your class is small, have students turn in brief notes on the day's reading that they can use during exams.* At the start of each class, a professor in the physical sciences asks students to submit a 3" x 5" card with an outline, definitions, key ideas, or other material from the day's assigned reading. After class, he checks the cards and stamps them with his name. He returns the cards to students at a class session prior to the midterm. Students can then add any material they would like to the cards but cannot submit additional cards. The cards are again returned to the faculty member who distributes them to students during the test. This faculty member reports that the number of students completing the reading jumped from 10 percent to 90 percent and that students especially valued these "*survival cards*." (Daniel, 1988: 110)

d- *Ask students to write a one-word journal or one-word sentence.* Angelo, (1991) describes the one-word journal as follows: students are asked to choose a single word that best summarizes the reading and then write a page or less explaining or justifying their word choice. This assignment can then be used as a basis for class discussion. Erickson and Strommer (199 1: 125) report a variation that is to ask students to write one complex sentence in answer to a question you pose about the readings and provide three sources of supporting evidence: "*In one sentence, identify the type of ethical reasoning Singer uses in his article 'Famine, Affluence, and Morality.' Quote three passages that reveal this type of ethical reasoning.*"

e- ***Ask nonthreatening questions about the reading.*** Originally ask general questions that do not create tension or feelings of confrontation: "*Can you give me one or two items from the chapter that seems important?*", "*What section of the reading do you think we should review?*", "*What item in the reading surprised you?*", "*What topics in the chapter can you apply to your own experience?*" (Lowman, 1989)

f. ***Use class time as a reading period.*** When a teacher tries to lead a discussion and finds that few students have completed the reading assignment, considers asking students to read the material for the remainder of class time. It is better that instructor takes them read silently or call on students to read aloud and discuss the key points. Teacher makes it clear to students that are reluctantly taking this unusual step because they have not completed the assignment.

g. ***Prepare an exam question on un-discussed readings.*** One faculty member asks his/her class whether they have done the reading. If he/she finds the answer is no, he/she may say "*You'll have to read the material on your own. Expect a question on the next exam covering the reading.*" The next time he/she assigns reading, he/she reminds the class of what happened the last time, and the students come to class prepared (Lowman, 1989)

h. ***Give a written assignment to those students who have not done the reading.*** Fostering more effective theories for strengthening students' fluency, some faculty members ask at the beginning of the class who has completed the reading. Students who have not read the material are given a written assignment and dismissed. Those who have read the material stay and participate in class discussion. The written

assignment is not graded but merely acknowledged. This technique should not be used more than once a term (Lowman, 1989).

2.19 Strategy for a Motivational Classroom

First: As a new teacher I never paid attention to how students interpreted their learning outcomes. I attached no value to how they felt about their normative evaluations. I never believed that success or failure mattered much to future learning. If students passed it was good; if they failed, they would try harder the next time or I would try to encourage them to review their test for future reference. I did, however, write comments regarding their performance. I never asked the question "What caused this student to do well and that student to do poorly"? After reading Weiner's Theory of Attribution I can now answer such a question with some degree of knowledge and comprehension. Weiner's theory (1984) proposed that students try to understand and uncover why a happening has occurred. For example; "Why did I fail this test"? Students will attribute the cause of failure or success to either effort, ability, others, emotions, task difficulty, or luck. What we as teachers have to do in our classrooms to enhance motivation and continue success is to help the students develop healthy attributions about their successes and failures. We have to help the students interpret the event in a positive way so they can maintain their sense of the value of the learning experience. How do we do this, one might ask. I focus on the positive aspects of the performance. If a student did poorly in a particular test I would find a way to put it in a positive light. For example, I would ask questions to ascertain if the student's knowledge was adequate to complete the assignment successfully or if their study skills were effective. We have to help students develop a sense of control over their successes and failures.

Second: Any motivational classroom must have incorporated a strategy for developing and fostering a sense of self-worth and self-esteem in students. When we discuss a definition of students' self-worth we need to understand that students' perceptions of value and their ability are primary activators of achievement behaviour. Covington's self-worth theory (1984) proposed that there is a direct link between ability and effort, performance and self-worth. Covington and Omelich (1982) asked first year college students to rate their successes and failures to their feelings of self-worth in the courses. A path analysis showed that the grades the students received accounted for one-fourth of the feelings of self-worth and that perceived ability, independent of grades, accounted for one-half of the feelings of self-worth. I believe that high school students are no different from first year college students; therefore, the research carried out by Covington and Omelich would apply to a high school classroom. The first question to be asked is "How do teachers affect students' self-worth?" I believe that teachers have great influence regarding students' self-worth through perceptions of and interactions with students. Teachers therefore need to be cognizant of the fact that what is said and done will greatly affect students. Research (Ames 1977, Kelly 1971, Schnur 1982, Covington 1984) has shown that high school students and young adults perceive that ability is the most important causal factor in their achievement. It behooves us as teachers to make sure that we try to help students develop a sense of value in our classrooms regardless of their academic achievement. We must give students the control they need for their learning but it must not be a conditional control. Like unconditional love, unconditional value is of the utmost importance in developing students' sense of belonging and self-worth.

To develop a self-worth motivational strategy a teacher needs to focus on the individual student. This must be done in the beginning weeks of class. Using ice breaker strategies like "getting to know you bingo" will help all members of the class come to know one other. Having all classroom participants set guidelines for the year also shows the students that they have some control over their learning. Setting up in-class-helpers for various tasks allows all individuals to feel they are part of the development of the classroom activities, be it just as motivators or timekeepers. All of these classroom practices help foster self-worth and well being. If we focus on self-worth based on belonging and value in the class and believe that all students have that value and belonging, regardless of academic achievements, then student's self-worth will grow in a positive direction. Self-worth can be accomplished while maintaining standards and goals. We must remember that all students have various degrees of ability, so we need to set, at the beginning of the year, standards based on the goals the students have set for themselves.

Third: When students make personal judgements regarding their performance capabilities in any subject they are using what Bandura (1977) termed the "**Self Efficacy Theory**". As teachers we need to understand how a student's self-efficacy works in our classrooms and how it affects a student's achievement. According to Schunk (1985), self-efficacy is believed to have very diverse effects on motivation, achievement, performance and the choices of activities for the student. Bandura (1981) also proposed that students gather information about their self-efficacy in any domain from evaluations, experiences, social interactions, and physiological states. It is very important for teachers to know this because if we give students the

wrong information regarding any one of the elements of this theory then we are going to influence a student's sense of self-efficacy.

Self-efficacy can develop in a negative or positive direction. Collins (1982) found that students, regardless of their ability on standardized tests, would try more mathematical problems and solve more problems correctly if they had a high self-efficacy. This finding helps teachers understand that if students' judgements regarding their performance is high then, even if their abilities are not as high as others, they will persist longer and expend greater energy in trying challenging activities. Students with high self-efficacy are not afraid to try new activities. While this is not the solution for all low ability students, if we can help develop a student's self-efficacy then we can give them the foundation to try and perform to their full capability. Schunk's (1985) studies have shown that the effects of any student's performance on self-efficacy can be changed by the cues derived from a teacher's educational practices. If we as teachers do not engage in positive feedback during and after instruction then students may feel their performance is lacking and if their expectations and the teacher's do not match then the chances are that students will develop a low self-efficacy or not maintain the high level of self-efficacy they had before starting the class. If teachers at the beginning of the year asked students how they weigh their learning and performance cues, then the classroom learning goals and activities can be developed to suit the various cues. However, learning goals for students must also be viewed as a very important component in developing a motivational classroom.

Fourth: According to Seifert (1995), recent research has shown that when it comes to achievement motivation goal theory emerges as the predominant explanation of students' motivation and behaviour. Again the first question that teachers need to address concerns what goal theory means.

Dweck (1986) argues that students pursue two very different types of goals. These are performance goals (wanting to gain other people's good judgements about performance) and mastery goals (wanting only to learn to gain competence). In any given classroom students are motivated for various reasons to attain these two very different types of goals. Teachers need to be aware of the goals their student engage in during classroom activities. If teachers know in advance what type of goals their students engage in, they can find ways and means to help students become mastery learners (wanting to learn for competence). This training will be a skill needed for life long learning and the processes that the teacher and students go through will be a valuable experience for both. How does a teacher ever get to know what their students' goals are? According to Dweck (1986) a teacher has only to develop goals that focus on mastery rather than on performance of a task. Students need to internalize that it is more important to focus on if and how they learned and not on whether they did better then their classmates. Consequently, the focus shifts from a performance goal to a mastery goal. Teachers, therefore need to develop goals orientated toward developing students' abilities and not toward adequacy of their abilities. Feedback from teachers during the task is very important in developing a motivational classroom that focuses on goal theory.

Fifth: Regardless of all the principles derived from the last four theories, students who feel in control of their learning and who have choices in their learning do much better in classroom activities (Deci & Ryan 1987). This is the proposition advanced by **Self-Determination Theory**. There are two dimensions in self-determination: they are intention and choice. An intention is generally thought of as a determination to engage in a behaviour (Atkinson,1964). For a teacher, this implies that students have personal

causation and this motivates the student to act. When students engage in a task, their behaviour plays a role in the initiation and regulation of the learning outcome. Students will have a desire to achieve positively valent outcomes or avoid negatively valent ones Deci and Ryan (1987).

According to Deci and Ryan (1987), one way to enhance motivation and learning is to give students the opportunity to choose some of the tasks they want to do. This is not that difficult to accomplish. Teachers and students have to design from the very beginning what activities can be carried out in class, how they can be carried out, and how are they evaluated. When classroom environments' accomplish this task the students are given a choice over three important elements of learning. Several studies (Pintrich, Roeser and De Groot, 1992) reported that high school students were more likely to focus on learning and mastery if they were in a positive focused classroom. Students were found to have high levels of task interest and value for the course material when the classroom environment provided the students with some choice of tasks, the work was interesting, the teacher provided good explanations, and allowed the students to work with each other. This classroom environment also fostered high levels of self-efficacy and low levels of test anxiety. Students also engaged in cognitive and self-regulated strategies.

Sixth: The final element in developing a motivational classroom environment encompasses the emotions of teachers and students. In 1983 Weiner wrote "Affective reactions and affective anticipations, in conjunction with expectancy of success, are assumed to influence a variety of motivational indexes, including persistence of behaviour, choice, and approach or avoidance of tasks and other people" (p. 531). This statement is very significant for teachers, students and the development of classroom

environments. Studies conducted by Dweck (1975), Reimer (1975), Weiner (1971), supported the findings that a theory of motivation must take into account the full range of the self, including the emotions of the self. Atkinson (1983) developed the emotion motivation formulation which states that a student will approach or avoid a goal depending on the affective elements of pride, shame, anger, gratitude, guilt, and pity. Teachers have to take into account all these emotions and feelings that they and their students possess in planning feedback, classroom activities and evaluation. If we do not consider the students' emotions then we are not providing a motivational classroom. Weiner (1985) developed a theory consisting of emotion and motivation. The theory has five elements: causal antecedents, casual ascriptions, causal dimensions, psychological consequences and behaviour consequences. Under the elements of causal dimensions, psychological consequences and behaviourial consequences fall in Weiner's opinion (1985) the four determining motivational factors of controllability, expectancy, affective involvement and persistence.

If teachers would take the time in the beginning of the year to talk to the students about their emotions and feelings that arise in a classroom, the students would be knowledgeable about the emotions that may effect their motivation and achievement. We have to remember that students do not try and fail, that what they do is try to be or look successful by maintaining their self-worth. This is accomplished in ways and means that are either beneficial or not beneficial to their future successes and learning. Some educators may believe that teachers do not need to be concerned with all of these theories and findings, that theory and practice just do not equate to a learning environment. However, research has shown time and time again that a nurturing caring attitude develops and fosters a motivational learning

environment. When a teacher steps into the classroom at the beginning of the year there is always high hopes that all will go well, that students will be motivated to work and achieve success. Students are human beings and because of that fact they have just as much right to dignity and worth as do teachers. If we give them that dignity and worth from the beginning we will be sending a message that they have value in our classroom, that they add another dimension to our teaching. Our motivational classroom would not be the same without them; therefore they belong and have value in the teaching/learning paradigm. If we can realize these beliefs, then we help students maintain their academic success, self-worth, self-efficacy, a set of positive attributional beliefs, self-determination and a set of goals that foster mastery learning. All of these elements need to be individualized and if they are then it is not the teacher who motivates the student but it is the students who motivate one another.

CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

The current chapter focuses on the methods used in the study as well as presenting the subject being studied, the instruments and the procedures involve in eliciting the research data.

3.1 Population of the Study

The population chosen for this study represents Sudanese EFL teachers at University level.

3.2 Sample of the Study

The sample of this study consisted of (286) Sudanese university EFL teachers at the department of English language.

3.4 Tools of Data Collection

It should be recalled that this study seeks answers to research questions relating to the most important and least important motivational strategies (including macrostrategies), the most frequently and least frequently employed strategies, and the relationships, if any, between the importance and frequency of use of the strategies or macrostrategies. Ordinal data in this section is analyzed according to the research questions. To address research questions relating to the importance and frequency of use of the 48 motivational strategies employed in the study, descriptive statistics (i.e., range, mean, and standard deviation) were calculated for each of the two sets of 48 items, according to the EFL practitioners" responses, on a 5-

point Likert-type scale. In tables 1 and 2 below, the data is not rank-ordered (according to mean value) to make it easier to make item-by-item comparisons between the *perceived importance* and the *frequency of use* of each of the strategies. Moreover, it is pertinent to note that the means for the items have different n-sizes, because only the available data for each item was used in the calculations, as some participants did not respond to all of the items. However, the n-size variation is not significant, and the means and correlations calculated would not be mathematically influenced by the n-size variation. It is also relevant to mention that the data from both questionnaires is not normally distributed except for a small number of items. However, this type of data distribution is usually expected for responses on a Likert-type scale.

3.5. Reliability and Validity

Reliability is a term that used when the assessment tool has the ability to perform accurately its intended purpose when it is applied again over time. The basic idea of reliability as stated by Huck and Cornier (1996:76) is summed up by the world consistency. The same thought on reliability has also granted before by Black and Champion (1976: 232) as "ability to measure consistently". The consistency here, is simply used to mean that the same questionnaire gives same outcome when it is repeated again, so it is a consistency of the results. A number of methods have been adopted in measuring the reliability, the researcher uses the "Split-half reliability" method. First, the common measure of correlation "Pearson's Correlation Coefficient" is applied with its following formula:

$$R\,xy\ =\ \frac{N\sum XY\ -\ \sum X\sum Y}{\sqrt{[N\sum X^2-(\sum X)^2]\,[N\sum Y^2-(\sum Y)^2]}}$$

Where

r = correlation

R= Reliability of the test

N: number of all items in the test

X: odd scores

Y: even scores

$\sum$: sum

R = 2*r/1+r

Val $\sqrt{\text{reliability}}$

Correlation = 0.75

$$R=\frac{2{*}r}{1+r}=\frac{2(0.75)}{1+0.75}=\frac{1.5}{1.75}=1.75$$

Reliability = 0.86

Based on this statistical result, it is clear that the questionnaire has adequate reliability.

Validity

While reliability refers to stability of measured results in other repeated application, validity is used to mean the degree to which a questionnaire reflects reality. According to Joppe (2000: 1) validity

determines "whether the research truly measures that which it was intended to measure or how truthful the research results are".

Spearman-Brown" constitute a formula which is applied (based on the calculation of reliability) to calculate the validity (v), it is simply:

$$v = \sqrt{}\ r$$
$$v = \sqrt{0.86} \quad = \ \underline{0.88}$$

This statistical result reflects an ideal questionnaire validity.

CHAPTER FOUR
DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter is intended to present, analyze and discuss the data which has been collected by means of the questionnaire. It also intended to test the research hypotheses against the research findings. It includes the analysis of the teachers' questionnaire, testing the hypotheses of the study and the answer to the research questions. The data was analyzed statistically by SPSS program (statistical Package for social science).

4. 1 Analysis of the Study

The 48 strategies were placed in the same 10 clusters which Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) categorized according to content similarity. For the most part, Cheng and Dörnyeï's (2007) clusters had satisfactory internal consistency, as indicated by Cronbach's reliability coefficient. In the current study, Cronbach's alpha was calculated as well, to enable a comparison between results of the replication and the replicated study itself. In addition to comparisons between the results of this study and those obtained from Cheng and Dörnyeï's (2007) study, some relevant comparisons were made with Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) study as well. The ordinal data obtained yielded some interesting findings

Reliability of the strategy clusters

Cronbach's internal consistency reliability coefficient was calculated in order to find out if the items were related in terms of participants' responses. With regard to importance, only four of the ten categories were above 0.60, while only two were less than 0.50. However, in terms of

frequency, six of the ten clusters yielded an Alpha of 0.60 or above. In Cheng and Dörnyei‟s (2007) study both importance and frequency yielded alpha coefficients of 0.70 for seven out of the ten clusters. What is interesting though is that two of the three clusters with the lowest Cronbach‟s alpha score in the replicated study are the same as the lowest two in the Omani study, these being „create a pleasant classroom climate' (α = 0.41) and „present tasks properly‟ (α = 3.75). Cheng and Dörnyei argued that since the items are behavioural rather than attitudinal, a low coefficient value for some of them is natural since responses are very likely to be heterogeneous. It must be added, however, that it is unlikely that all surveyed teachers would use all the micro-strategies under each cluster with the same nor is it likely that they would attribute to all of them, without exception, the same importance. Capitalizing on what Cheng and Dörnyei noted, more uniformity or homogeneity can be expected with regard to attitudinal items, but heterogeneity is to be expected of behavioural items.

Rank order of the importance items

The more prominent findings about *importance* are those obtained in this section, as the clusters were ranked according to the importance attached to each of their items by the respondents. The mean rating for each strategy was calculated, as was the average of the means for each of the clusters. In Cheng and Dörnyei‟s (2007) study, the researchers had to manipulate the analysis procedure since some items received very low means and the standard deviation was 2.5. These items were excluded from the cluster calculations in theirstudy, because they were considered outliers and if included would disproportionately reduce the mean of the cluster. This was not necessary in the current study since no item under any of the 10 clusters had a standard deviation higher than 1.26. The following is an analysis of

the perceptions of EFL teachers in Oman regarding the importance of the investigated motivational strategies in comparison with Cheng and Dörnyei"s (2007) and Dörnyei and Csizér"s (1998) studies. However, before any attempt to describe the data set for each strategy cluster, it is useful to look at the data holistically

Table(4.1) Descriptive statistics for importance items

No	Strategy	N	Range	Mean	SD
1	Bring in and encourage humour	286	4	3.7	.98
2	Show students you care about them	287	3	4.5	.64
3	Allow students to get to know each other	286	4	3.6	.94
4	Familiarize students with the cultural background of the target language	287	4	3.3	1.01
5	Explain the importance of the class rules	287	4	3.9	1
6	Give clear instructions by modelling	287	4	4.2	.84
7	Invite senior students to share their English learning experiences	284	4	3	1.09
8	Monitor students" progress and celebrate their victory	287	4	4	.89
9	Remind students of the benefits of mastering English	286	4	4	.88
10	Encourage students to set learning goals	287	4	4	.84

11	Design tasks that are within the students" ability	287	4	4.2	.82
12	Introduce various interesting topics	286	3	4.2	.69
13	Make tasks challenging	286	4	3.7	.87
14	Teach self-motivating strategies [e.g., remembering inspiring stories etc]	286	4	3.6	.99
15	Make sure grades reflect students' effort and hard work	285	4	4.1	.88
16	Let students suggest class rules	286	4	2.8	1.09
17	Show your enthusiasm for teaching	287	3	4.4	.75
18	Break the routine by varying the presentation format	287	3	4.2	.77
19	Invite-English speaking foreigners to class	286	4	2.7	1.13
20	Help students develop realistic beliefs about English learning	285	4	3.5	.92
21	Use a short and interesting opening activity to start each class	286	4	3.7	.99
22	Involve students in designing and running the English course	285	4	2.7	1.12
23	Establish good rapport with students	286	4	4.3	.83
24	Encourage peer teaching and group presentation	286	5	3.8	.88
25	Give good reasons to students as to	285	4	3.6	.97

	why a particular task is meaningful				
26	Find out students" needs and build [respond to] them into curriculum	284	4	3.9	.84
27	Encourage students to create products [e.g., posters, magazine]	285	4	3.5	.98

Set a personal example with your own behaviour

The importance of setting an example with one's own behaviour is virtually indisputable. In order to motivate students, teachers have to provide a role model for them. In addition to showing them that they care about their learning and progress, they have to demonstrate enthusiasm for teaching and cultivate rapport with them by being themselves rather than being overly formal. In so doing barriers are broken and an atmosphere of ease permeates the language classroom. Rapport could be established in several ways, including sharing teachers" views about the value of EFL. It has to be noted here that the strategy most highly rated is *show students you care about them* because it summarizes and encapsulates the other microstrategies under this cluster. The microstrategy with the lowest mean (i.e., 3.8) in this cluster is *share with students that you value English as a meaningful experience*. This is not surprising as teachers tend to focus on presenting the materials related to the curriculum, and schools often discourage wasting class time on personal anecdotes. The other four strategies included in this cluster have nothing to do with sharing personal views or anecdotes, and these yielded means of above 4.0.

The most interesting finding regarding this cluster is that it ranked first in this study as it did in the two preceding studies (i.e., Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998), confirming the importance of

teachers as role models across cultures and affirming the vital role of the teacher in language learning classrooms. Recent research, in fact, has demonstrated the important role of the teacher's interpersonal behaviour in motivating students (e.g., den Brok et al., 2005). Taking an authoritarian role was not found to be desirable in the language classroom (Dörnyei & Malderez, 1997A classroom where students feel cared about–where the teacher is enthusiastic about the students" learning and has good relationships with them, and where the teacher is able to be herself or himself in the class–is likely to be with less student anxiety and increased receptiveness to instruction. This reduction of anxiety is a condition necessary for successful language learning (e.g., Krashen"s (1981) *affective filter* hypothesis). When students are themselves in the classroom, their *affective filter* is low and their intake is high. Seeing teachers being themselves in class would put students at ease and enhance their comfort zone, thus, increasing their motivation to learn or to gain proficiency. Research has shown that language learning contexts are the most prone to anxiety arousal, and that anxiety is negatively correlated with performance (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre, 1995; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; Wei, 2007). Good language learners are less anxious and have more positive attitudes about language learning

Promote learners' self confidence

This macrostrategy ranked second in this study, and it ranked third and second in Cheng and Dörnyei"s (2007) and Dörnyei and Csizér's (1998) studies respectively. The similarity of the rank order is indicative of the cross-cultural importance of instilling confidence in the learners about their abilities and their capability of success. While the first strategy focused on the teacher, this second strategy focused on the learner, the two being the

most important constituents in the teaching/learning process. The microstrategy rated the highest is *provide students with positive feedback*. Positive feedback alleviates stress and *encourages students to learn and to try harder*–the third microstrategy in this cluster. In order to help them try harder, teachers have to equip students with the right strategies. Stressing positive feedback could lead to the impression that errors are viewed as a developmental stage in the learning process rather than as failure to learn. Thus, students are *encouraged to communicate .* fourth microstrategy in this cluster) by providing them with positive feedback on their utterances. Confident students are less anxious about their learning (Banya & Cheng, 1997). In their analysis, Cheng and Dörnyei (2007) describe the "can-do-spirit" that teachers can inculcate in their students, further bolstering the importance of teachers" role in language teaching contexts.

Recognize students' effort and celebrate their success

This strategy was ranked second in Cheng and Dörnyei"s (2007) study, which indicates that English teachers in Oman (most of whom are from Asia and the Arab world) and Taiwanese teachers attach similar importance to this macrostrategy, which is linked to the first two. A teacher's recognition of students' effort and celebration of their success shows how much she/he cares about their progress and helps establish good rapport. Furthermore, this microstrategy can promote students' self-confidence and motivate them to try even harder. While the Omani and Taiwanese teachers ranked this macrostrategy second and third in importance respectively, the Hungarian teachers did not consider it important and so it was not among their ten highest rated strategies (i.e., Dörnyei & Csizér"s, 1998). The difference in the findings could be attributable to cultural difference.

Present tasks properly

This cluster also ranked highly in the two earlier studies (fifth in the Taiwanese study and third in the Hungarian study). There was agreement among the teachers in all the three contexts regarding the importance of this strategy, despite the variety of participants, especially in the Omani study. Tasks are crucially important because they are the behavioural blueprints designed to elicit linguistic data (Singh, 2006). Hence, it is clear that presenting tasks in a meaningful and appropriate way plays an important role in how students will tackle them. "The decisive factors determining the quality of learners, task engagement appear to be meaningfulness, personal relevance, a degree of difficulty and structure that allows flexibility in student interaction" Kubanyiova,(2006: 6). Dörnyei (2001) holds that tasks bearing these characteristics are likely to motivate students and encourage their language learning. The importance of these characteristics appears to be endorsed by the participants in the three studies in spite of the cultural divide.

Make the learning task stimulating

This macrostrategy is intimately related to the fourth strategy as it focuses on one of the characteristics that make tasks engaging. Therefore, it is quite natural that it is fifth highest in the rank order of macrostrategies, just one rank below *present tasks properly*. The ranking of this strategy in the Hungarian study was sixth but in the Taiwanese it was seventh. Thus the Hungarian ranking is closer to the Omani one. Stimulating tasks take students" interests into account, and students' interests are closely linked to their lives. Engaging tasks are also adequately but not overly challenging (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1994; Kubanyiova, 2006; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). Other characteristics of effective tasks are that they offer

some challenge but arouse interest and provide opportunities for using learning strategies (e.g., Ames, 1992). While the participants in the Omani and Hungarian studies attach more importance to this strategy, the Taiwanese do not seem to strongly endorse it. However, they do endorse presenting tasks properly to learners.

Create a pleasant and relaxed climate in the classroom

A relaxed atmosphere lowers students, affective filter, which lowers stress and anxiety, which in turn promotes risk-taking. Well-designed tasks can serve this function. According to Nunan ((1989), tasks have to be designed to involve the learner in risk-taking behaviour andshould have a built-in component of evaluation that allows learners to assess their own progress and success without depending on the teacher. Abrar-ul-Hassan (2009) suggests that three mechanisms can ensure students' motivation: ensuring that they are aware of their progress towards their goals; ensuring there is enjoyment in the classroom; and offering lessons that are related to their lives. These three mechanisms are part of this sixth macrostrategy and of the upper five as well. In this study, this macrostrategy is the first of the five lowest-ranked strategies, but the Taiwanese participants ranked it fourth and the Hungarians second. However, taking the mean value of the component microstrategies of this macrostrategy into consideration (i.e., 3.8), we can easily see that the participants in the Omani context do not really regard the strategies as unimportant. In fact, the mean of this cluster is not very dissimilar to the mean of the fifth one (i.e., 3.8). Thus, teachers in the Hungarian, Taiwanese and Omani contexts perceive this macrostrategy as an important mechanism in motivating language learners.

Familiarize learners with L2-related values

This macrostrategy had a relatively low ranking in all three studies. While it ranked seventh in the Omani study, it was eighth and tenth in the Taiwanese and Hungarian studies respectively. Familiarizing learners with L2-related values is suitable in contexts where integrative motivation to language learning is found among students. However, previous research in these contexts has shown an instrumental orientation among the students. It has to be noted, though, that instrumental motivation has been shown to be the dominant type among college students in Oman (Fahmy & Bilton, 1999) and in Taiwan (Benjamin & Chen, 2003). Dörnyei (1990) found two motivational subsystems in the Hungarian context: instrumental and integrative. Still, Hungarian teachers did not feel that this strategic area was very important. The endorsement of this strategy among the three groups was limited. Also, a considerable proportion of teachers in the three groups may have considered this aspect irrelevant to their students" academic objectives, and hence could be less inclined or prepared to emphasize the cultural background of the target language. Any or a combination of the above reasons may explain why this strategy was rated the lowest in this cluster. In fact, at the microstrategic level, it is rated the third lowest of all the 48 strategies.

Increase the learners' goal-orientedness

This strategy ranked sixth and ninth in the Taiwanese and Hungarian studies respectively. Thus, the Taiwanese teachers seem to attach more importance to this strategy, perhaps because it is linked to task presentation, which ranked fifth, and to making tasks stimulating, which ranked seventh. Judging by the mean value of this cluster in the Omani study (i.e., 3.5), the teachers attached similar importance to this strategy and to the strategy:

familiarize learners with L2-related values (M=3.5). As was the case in Taiwanese study, the strategy *display the class goals in a wall chart and review it regularly* was ranked the lowest in this cluster in the Omani study. In fact, this was the second lowest strategy among all of the 48 microstrategies.

Promote group cohesiveness

This cluster ranked ninth in the Taiwanese study and did not make the top ten in the Hungarian study. Research has shown the "importance of the dynamics of the learner group in shaping the L2 learning process" (Dörnyei & Malderez, 1997, p. 65), and that such issues have not been adequately analyzed in L2 research (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003). The findings of the three studies concerning this macrostrategy confirm these claims. According to Dörnyei and Malderez (1997), if utilized effectively in the language class, groups can have many advantages. First, a group is a larger resource pool than any resources possessed by an individual learner and can be used to accomplish tasks more effectively. Second, a group can help learners adjust their behaviour and attitude by serving as a frame of reference and by providing guidelines and standards against which group members may assess their beliefs and actions. Third, a group can motivate students to work harder and can act as a tool for providing stamina and support. Finally, a group can facilitate language learning by inculcating a sense of responsibility in the learners. Thus, teachers who are more conscious of the importance of groups are more likely to produce positive effects in language learning.

Promote learner autonomy

This is a goal that is becoming increasingly recognized in the contemporary EFL classroom. The literature indicates that "the terms

„autonomy' z and „self-direction' are being used more and more frequently in educational discussion". Autonomy can be defined as the student's ability to take charge of his or her own learning. However, Little (1991) holds that self-direction or independence is not really a teaching method, nor is it something that can be done for the learner. Autonomy is related to student-centeredness where the teacher plays the role of facilitator and the learner is responsible for her/his own learning. In the Omani and Taiwanese studies, this macrostrategy is rated the lowest, which means that more teacher-centred approaches are used in both contexts. Perhaps this is the opposite strategy to the one that ranked first, wherein the caring and action come from the teacher, and to the second wherein the teacher is responsible for inspiring and instilling confidence in the learner. According to Benson (2000), learner autonomy is a well-recognized and valued educational objective, but it is not commonly employed in actual teaching practice.

Frequency versus importance ratings

The frequency of use of each of the clusters was calculated to determine whether it reflected or correlated with the importance attached to the component strategies. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient (i.e., Spearman's rho) was calculated to find the correlation between the *importance* and *frequency* clusters.

Table(4. 2) below shows the clusters rank-ordered in terms of frequency and compared to the importance ranking.

Table 2. A comparison of macrostrategies Macrostrategies	Rank order by importance	Rank order by frequency
Set a personal example with	1	1

your own behaviour		
Promote learners' self-confidence	2	2
Recognize students' effort and celebrate their success	3	4
Present tasks properly	4	3
Make the learning tasks stimulating	5	6
Create a pleasant and relaxed atmosphere in the classroom	6	5
Familiarize learners with L2-related values	7	8
Increase learners' goal-orientedness	8	10
Promote group cohesiveness and set group norms	9	7
Promote learner autonomy	10	9

are more teacher-centred than student-centred, and language learners are more dependent on the teacher in this culture than in some other cultures. The methodology of the current study–separate questionnaires for importance and frequency were assigned and administered in pairs bearing the same serial number for each participant in sequence–also increases the reliability of the data. This was not the case in Cheng and Dörnyei‟s (2007) procedure. Unsurprisingly, their method yielded more marked differences in the rank order of the macrostrategies in terms of importance and frequency

The ten most important microstrategies

It is equally insightful to examine the ten highest-ranking microstrategies. According to their means, the following are the ten most important:

Table(4. 3) Strategies reported as most important

No.	Microstrategy	Place in clusters	N	Mean	SD
2	Show students you care about them	1	287	4.5	.64
34	Provide students with positive feedback	2	286	4.4	.68
17	Show your enthusiasm	1	287	4.4	.75
46	Recognize students" effort and achievement	3	286	4.3	.72

cluster in importance, which is the seventh lowest on the frequency scale. The relative positions of the highest and lowest microstrategies within the macrostrategies give a clear picture of the consistency of ranking in terms of both importance and frequency.

Limitations

All findings and inferences are based on self-reporting by the participants, and thus, are subject to the inherent limitations of self-reporting. A combination of questionnaires and observations of actual classroom practice could provide more reliable measurements of the frequency with which teachers employ each strategy. Furthermore, it may never be known whether any of the participants could have been influenced by a desire to jump on the bandwagon, so to speak, and give high ratings to many of the strategies simply because the researchers might expect all EFL teachers to routinely employ them.

Implications for classroom practice

Some EFL teachers, especially novices, may be unaware of the wide range of potential motivational strategies at their disposal. Even those who are aware of these strategies are sometimes unsure which ones to choose. The present study has the potential to stimulate or increase the sensitivity of novice EFL teachers, student-teachers, and teacher trainers, particularly in Oman, to these strategies, highlighting those considered most important and used most frequently by a representative sample of EFL teachers. In the present study, the strategy cluster found to be most important and most frequently used was *showing studstudents that you care about them*, which underscores the importance of attending to the psychological aspects of the teacher-learner relationship. The implication of this understanding is that teachers should demonstrate to learners that they care about their learning. Also, teacher-training programs need to emphasize this aspect and offer appropriate guidance to trainees.

CHAPTER FIVE
FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS
AND CONCLUSION

5.0 Introduction

This chapter is a conclusion in which the researcher presents the main findings recommendation and suggestions. The researcher hopes that, these findings, recommendations and suggestion will be of great help for both learners and teachers.

5.2 Conclusion

This study has attempted to shed some light on the extent to which motivational strategies that have been tried and tested in other countries are valued and employed by EFL teachers in sudan. It has also attempted to find a correlation between the perceptions of the teachers about the importance of specific motivational strategies and the frequency with which they employ them in the classroom. They also find that using most of the strategies that they endorse. All in all, EFL practitioners in Sudan university did not find any motivational strategy less than important. The most prominent of the strategies endorsed by EFL teachers in Sudan university are recreated to the teacher's personal performance in the classroom. The macrostrategy *set a personal example with your own behaviour* was consistently the most highly ranked of all ten macrostrategies in the Sudan study, Furthermore, the strategy that encourages teachers to *promote learners' self-confidence* ranked second or third in each of the three studies conducted in Oman, Taiwan and Hungary. Such unanimity could be indicative of cross-cultural common standards, at least on some pedagogical issues. This implies that there is a strong indication that

5.3 Findings of the Study

According to the statistical treatment in chapter four the researcher finds out the following findings:

1. The most prominent of the strategies endorsed by EFL teachers in Sudan are recreated to the teacher's personal performance in the classroom There are not enough trained instructors to teach ICT courses in schools.

2. The Teacher is considered as backbone in classroom.

3. Through motivation strategies a teacher is easily know the psychological students of his learning.

4. The relationship between teacher and learner play a great role in teaching and the learning process.

5. To increase motivation among the learners' this needs excellent designers of curriculum.

6. To motivate students during the classroom, a teacher should provide his learners with a tape to appeal them for lessons.

7. Using motivation strategies make the teaching process essay.

8. EFL students practitioners in Sudan university did not find any motivational strategy less than important

9. EFL teachers in sundaes university duly employ the motivational strategies they believe in.

5.4 Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study the researcher suggests the following recommendations:

1- Using motivation strategy in ELT increases EFL learners motivation for more and better learning because they will be more attentive for

the usage of sounds, pictures and movements. Thus their participation and interaction will increase.

2- EFL Teachers should undertake advanced motivation courses since they are not professional in the field.

3- All teaches should undertake advanced motivation strategies courses so that they can deal with it easily.

4- Mutual respecting is a very important between teachers and learners inside the classroom because it enhance treatment between them.

5- Teachers should use the simplified word when they want to discuss a paragraph or story.

6- Visual aids should be consider by teachers when they teach young learners.

5.5 Suggestion Farther Studies

According to the findings and recommendation the researcher suggested the following:

The findings of this study raise a number of pedagogical issues that could be addressed in future research. It would be important, for example, to determine why most teachers in Sudan, as represented by the survey participants, appear unenthusiastic about motivational strategies that are dependent on the promotion of student autonomy. Further study may also be required to determine whether it is the attitude of the students themselves to learner autonomy that has shaped the relatively low value that teachers attach to this. Finally, since the EFL teachers in Sudan who participated in the current study widely recognize the importance of motivational strategies and actually report using them in their classrooms, what is the impact of these strategies on classroom dynamics?

REFERENCES

Adjusting the Course Part II, (1995). Queen's Printer, Confederation Building, St. John's, NF.

Amabile, T. (1979). Effects of external evaluations on artistic creativity. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, **37**, 221-233.

Ames, C. (1992). Classrooms: Goals, structures, and student motivation. Journal of Educational Psychology, **84**, 261-271.

Ames, C. & Ames, R. (1984). Systems of student and teacher motivation: Toward a Qualitative definition. Journal of Educational Psychology, **76**, 535-556.

Anderson, C.A. (1983). The causal structure of situations: The generation of plausible causal attributions as a function of type of event situation. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, **19**, 185-203.

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unified theory of behavioral change. Psychological Review, **84**, 191-215.

Bandura, A. (1981). Self-referent though: A developmental analysis of self-efficacy. In J.H. Flavell & L. Ross (Eds), Social cognitive development: Frontiers and possible futures (pp. 200-239). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Bandura, A. (1982b). Self-efficacy mechanism in human agency. American Psychologist, **18**, 122-147.

Benware, C., & Deci, E. (1984). The quality of learning with an active versus passive motivational set. American Educational Research Journal, **21**, 755-765.

Boggiano, A. & Barrett, M.(1985). Performance and motivational deficits of helplessness: The role of motivational orientations. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, **49**, 1753-1761.

Brophy, J. (1983). Conceptualizing student motivation. Educational Psychologist, **18**, 200-215.

Butler, R. & Nisan, M. (1986). Effects of no feedback, task-related comments, and grades on intrinsic motivation and performance. Journal of Educational Psychology, **78**, 210-216.

Collins, J. (1982). Self-efficacy and ability in achievement behaviour. Paper presented in March, The American Educational Research Association, New York, New York.

Conroy, J. (1977). Enemies of exploration. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology. **35**, 459-477.

Covington, M. (1984). The motive for self-worth. Research on Motivation in Education, **1**, 77-113, Orlando, Florida, Academic Press.

Covington, M., & Omelich, C. (1979). It's best to be able and virtuous too: Student and teachers evaluative responses to successful effort. Journal of Educational Psychology, **71**, 688-700. (b)

Covington, M. & Beery, R. (1976). Self-worth and school learning. New York: Rienhart, & Winston.

DeCharms, R. (1968). Personal Causation: The internal affective determinants of behaviour, New York: Academic Press.

Deci, E. & Ryan, R. (1987). The support of autonomy and control of behaviour. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, **53**, 1024-1037.

Diener, C., & Dweck, C. (1980). An analysis of learned helplessness: II. The processing of success. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, **39**, 940-952.

Dweck, C., & Elliott, E. (1988). Goals: An approach to motivation and achievement. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, **54**, 5-12.

Dweck, C. & Leggett, E. (1988). A social-cognitive approach to motivation and personality. Psychology Review **95**, 256-273.

Dweck, C. (1986). Motivation processes affecting learning. American Psychologist, **41**, 1040-1048.

Farrell, E., & Dweck, C. (1985). The role of motivational processes in transfer of learning. Manuscript submitted for publication.

Feather, N. & Simon, J. (1971). Attribution of responsibility and valence of outcome in relation to initial confidence and success and failure of self and other. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, **18**, 173-188.

Fisher, C. (1978). The effects of personal control, competence and extrinsic reward systems on intrinsic motivation. Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance, **21**, 273-288.

Harackiewicz, J., Abrahams, S. & Wageman, R. (1987). Performance evaluation and intrinsic motivation: The effects of evaluative focus, rewards, and achievement orientation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, **53**, 1015-1023.

Holt, J. (1964). How children fail. New York: Dell.

Kast, A. (1983). Sex differences in intrinsic motivation: A developmental analysis of the effects of social rewards. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Fordham University, New York.

Kelly, H. (1971). The process of causal attribution. American Psychology, **28**, 107-128.

Koestner, R., Ryan, R., Bernieri, F., & Holt, (1984). Setting limits in children's behaviour: The differential effects of controlling versus informational styles on intrinsic motivation and creativity. Journal of Personality, **52**, 233-248.

Law, G. (1970). Co-operative Education: Handbook for Teachers-Coordinators. New York: American Technical Society.

Licht, B., & Dweck, C. (1984). Determinants of academic achievement: The interactions of children's achievement orientations with skill area. Developmental Psychology, **20**, 628-636.

Littlefield, A. (1985). The power of Co-operation. Ontario Secondary School Teacher's Foundation Letter, **Sept/Oct.**

Locke, E., Shaw, K., Saari, L., & Latham, G. (1981). Goal setting and task performance: 1969-1980, Psychology Bulletin, **90**, 125-152.

Maehr, M., & Stallings, W. (1972). Freedom from external evaluation. Child Development, **43**, 177-185.

Mason, R., & Haines, P. (1972). Co-operative Occupation Education and Work Experience the Curriculum. San Diego: Interstate Printers and Publishers

Meichenbaum, D. (1971). Examination of model characteristics in reducing avoidance behaviour. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, **17**, 298-307.

McGraw, K. & McCullers, J. (1979). Evidence of a detrimental effect of extrinsic incentives on breaking a mental set. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, **15**, 285-295.

McGraw, K. (1978). The detrimental effects of reward on performance: A literature review and a prediction model. In M. Lepper & D. Greene (Eds.), The hidden costs of rewards (pp. 33-60). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Pintrich, P. & De Groot, E. (1990). Motivational and self-regulated learning components of classroom academic performance. Journal of Educational Psychology, **82**, 33-40.

Pintrich, P., Roesser, R. & De Groot, E. (1992). Classroom influences on student and self-regulated learning. Paper presented in April. The American Educational Research Association Convention, San Francisco, California.

Roeser, R., Aberton, A. & Anderman, E. (1993). The relations among teacher beliefs and practices and students motivation across the school year. Paper presented in April, The American Educational Research Association Convention, Atlantic Georgia.

Ryan, R. & Grolnick, W. (1986). Origins and pawns in the classroom: Self-report and projective assessments of individual differences in children's perceptions. Journal of personality and Social Psychology, **50**, 550-558.

Schunk, D. (1985). Self-efficacy and classroom learning. Psychology in the Schools. **22**, 208-223.

Schunk, D. (1983). Reward contingencies and the development of children's skills and self-efficacy. Journal of Educational Psychology, **75**, 511-518.

Schunk, D. (1984). Self-efficacy perspective on achievement behaviour. Educational Psychologist, **19**, 48-58.

Silberman, C. (1970). Crisis in the classroom. New York: Random House.

Seifert, T. (1996). The stability of goal orientations in garde five students: comparison of two methodologies. British Journal of Educational Psychology, **66**, 73-82.

Seifert, T. (1996). Characteristics of ego- and task-orientated students: a comparison of two methodologies. British Journal of Educational Psychology, **65**, 125-138.

Seifert, T. (in press). Academic goals and emotions: results of a structural equation model and a cluster analysis.

Stipek, D. (1988). <u>Motivation to Learn from Theory to Practice</u>. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Swann, W., & Pitmann, T. (1977). Initiating play activity of children: The moderating influences of verbal cues on intrinsic motivation. <u>Child Development</u>, **48**, 1128-1132.

Weiner, B. (1990). History of Motivational research in education. <u>Journal of Educational Psychology</u>, **82**, 616-622.

Weiner, B. (1985). An attributional theory of achievement motivation and emotion. <u>Psychology Review</u>, **92**, 548-573.

White, R. (1959). Motivation reconsidered: the concept of competence. <u>Psychological Review</u>, **66**, 297-333.

Winne, P., & Marx, R. (1982). Students' and teachers' views of thinking processes for classroom learning. <u>Elementary School Journal</u>, **82**, 459-518.

Zimmerman, B., & Martinez-Pons, M. (1986). Development of a structured interview for assessing student use of self-regulated learning strategies. <u>American Educational Research Journal</u>, **23**, 614-628.

Zuckerman, M., Porac, J., Lathin, D., Smith, R., & Deci, E. (1978). On the importance of self-determination for intrinsically motivated behaviour. <u>Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin</u>, **4**, 443-446.