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NEAR EAST UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

DOMINANCE OF IDENTIFIED REGULATION
AS A REFLECTION OF MOTIVATION
AT ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

MASTER THESIS

SUBMITTED BY: TERIM ERDEMLIER

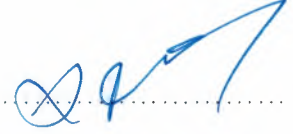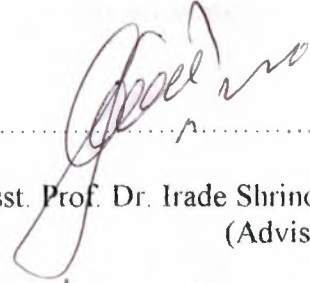## ADVISOR: Asst. Prof. Dr. IRADE SHIRINOVA

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We certify that we have read this thesis and that in our combined opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and in quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts.

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ÖZET

Eğitimde öğrenmeyi etkileyen en önemli faktörlerden biri olan motivasyon konusunda pek çok araştırma yapılmış olmasına karşın, ilk öğrenimdeki etkisinin incelenmesi henüz ilk evresindedir. Motivasyonun okul davranışlarıyla ilgili doğasının anlaşılması için, motivasyon üzerindeki araştırmaların daha da derinleştirilmesi gerekmektedir. Bu araştırmanın amacı eğitimle ilgili yapılan çalışmaların tekrarını getirerek ilk öğrenimdeki ikinci devrede hangi motivasyon tipinin, otonom veya kontrollü, daha baskın olduğunun belirlemektir. Bunun yanı sıra, otonom ve kontrollü motivasyonların arasındaki ilişkileri araştırmaktır. Bu analitik çalışmada ilk öğrenimdeki ikinci devre için özel olarak geliştirilen SRQ-Akademik (Self-Determinasyon Teoremi çerçevesinde hazırlanan) anketi kullanılarak motivasyon tipolojilerinde kişisel farklılıklar ölçülmüştür. Araştırma için gerekli veriler Yakın Doğu İlkokulunda okuyan 53 öğrenciden SRQ-Akademik kapsamında toplanmıştır. Toplanan bu veriler aşağıdaki araştırma soruları doğrultusunda değerlendirilmiştir:

1. İlk öğrenimdeki ikinci devre (10-11 yaş gurubu) içinde olan öğrencilerin öğrenme sebepleri nereden kaynaklanmaktadır?

2. İlk öğrenimdeki ikinci devrede otonom mu kotrollü motivasyon mu daha baskındır?

3. Otonom ve kotrollü motivasyonlar arasında korelasyon var mıdır ?

4. Otonom ve kotrollü motivasyonlar arasında statistiki farklılık var mıdır ?

SRQ-Akademik motivasyon tipolojilerinde kişisel farklılıkları dört regulasyon çerçevesinde ölçmekteydi. Bunlardan 'external' ve 'introjected' kontrollü motivasyonu, 'identified' ve 'intrinsic' otonom motivasyonu oluşturmaktaydı. Çalışma sonuçlarına göre, 'identified' regulasyonu diğer üç regulasyona statistiki farklılık göstermiştir ($p < 0.05$). Bu bulguya ilaveten, 'external' ve 'intrinsic' regulasyonlar arasında da statistiki farklılık bulunmuştur. Otonom ve kontrollü motivasyonları oluşturan regulasyonların ortalamaları alınmış ve otonom motivasyonunun daha baskın olduğu saptanmıştır. Buna göre ilk öğrenimdeki ikinci devrede (10-11 yaş gurubu) öğrencilerin öğrenme sebepleri kendi içlerinden (içsel) olduğu anlaşılmıştır. Ayrıca yapılan hesaplamalar sonucunda otonom ve kontrollü motivasyonlar arasında korelasyon oluduğuna dair bulgu bulunamamıştır.

ABSTRACT

Although a lot of work have been devoted to the investigation of motivation, as one of the most powerful factors influencing learning, the study of its effect at elementary level is still in the stage of infancy. A deep investigation of the topic in question requires pinpointing the nature of motivation to reveal its affect on school related behaviors. Accordingly, this paper aims to replicate studies in the field of education to identify which type of motivation, autonomous or controlled, is more dominant in children at late elementary level, while considering the interrelations between the constituents of controlled and autonomous motivations. In this analytical study SRQ-Academic (specially developed for late-elementary schools), based on the Self-Determination Theory, was employed to assess domain-individual differences in the types of motivation. A total of 53 students studying at late-elementary level of Near East Junior College have been asked to provide information required by SRQ questionnaire to study the following research questions:

1. Do the pupils, at the age of 10-11, have internalized reasons for learning?
2. What type of behavior, controlled or autonomous, is dominant at late elementary education?
3. Is there any correlation between the constituents of controlled and autonomous motivations at late elementary education?
4. Is there any statistical difference between the constituents of controlled and autonomous motivations?

The SRQ-Academic assessed four regulatory styles, i.e. the constituents of controlled motivation: external, introjected, and constituents of autonomous motivation: intrinsic and identified regulations. Due to findings of this study, identified regulation has shown statistical significant difference from the other three regulatory styles. In addition, statistical significant difference between intrinsic and external regulations has also been found. From the point of view, the obtained mean scores of autonomous and controlled motivations clearly indicate that autonomous motivation is dominant in pupils at the age of 10-11. Considering the interrelations of the regulatory styles, the calculations did not reveal any correlation between the constituents of controlled and autonomous motivations.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

There are a complex web of factors that influence all forms of learning. Considering all these factors, most educators would agree that motivation is one of the most powerful influences on learning. This is due to the fact that learning is most likely to occur when we want to learn.

As theories of psychology have changed, the concept of motivation has passed through a number of different interpretations thus, leading this term to be used in different ways by different people. The word motivation is sometimes used to indicate that someone has a desire to learn, for instance when we say 'she is motivated' or 'she has a lot of motivation.' From the point of view, it only really makes sense to use the word 'motivation' in relation to a particular action, i.e. motivated to do something. In addition to this, the concept of motivation is composed of many different and overlapping factors such as interest, curiosity, or a desire to achieve. These factors are subject to various external influences such as parents, teachers, and exams and may differ in different situations and circumstances. Thus, any discussion of motivation is inevitably complicated. This is the reason why certain key questions should be considered to have a clear view of the identity of motivation:

- What does the term motivation mean?
- What changes have happened to the concept of motivation throughout its history?
- What factors influence an individual's motivation and do these factors have an effect on each other?

The above questions will be dealt with in the following sections to bring some clarity to an area, which is both confused and confusing. So much has been written on motivation that it is impossible to do justice to all of the ideas that pervade the current psychological and educational literature. Thus, I will focus upon ideas and approaches which I find most enlightening and which I consider to have the most helpful implications for education.

1.1 Background of Problem

Before going any further, I would like to touch upon motivation of young learners, which is the concern of this study.

Children's home environment shapes the initial constellation of attitudes they develop toward learning. Infants and young children appear to be propelled by curiosity, driven by an intense need to explore, interact with, and make sense of their environment. "Rarely does one hear parents complain that their preschooler is 'unmotivated' " (James Raffini [1993], cited in Peck, 2000).

Children start their first experiences on learning at home thus, the environment that parents provide to them have a profound influence on their learning. Their natural curiosity about the world, the urge to explore can be streamed to the path of learning by welcoming their questions, encouraging exploration and familiarizing them with resources that can enlarge their world. In other words, the way parents raise their children shapes their feelings of self-worth, competence, autonomy and their readiness to take the risks inherent in learning.

Later school experiences enhance children's beliefs about their successes and failures. "The sources to which children attribute their successes (commonly effort, ability, luck or level of task difficulty) and failures (often lack of ability or lack of effort) have important implications for how they approach and cope with learning situations." (Peck, 2000.) Older students feel more negative about failures, especially if they have put a great deal of effort to achieve success, whereas younger children are not easily discouraged by failures. Younger children are more likely to insist in their effort even in the face of repeated failures. As Lumsden (Lumsden, 1994) puts it "Older students seem to loose their expectations to success and they view effort as a double-edged sword. To them, failure following high effort appears to carry more negative implications, especially for their self-concept of ability, than failure that results from minimal or no effort."

Generally speaking, student motivation can be defined as the desire to participate in the learning process. In addition, it can be further explained as the reasons or goals that underlie student's involvement or noninvolvement in academic activities. Awareness of how students' attitudes and beliefs about learning develop and what facilitates learning for its own sake can assist educators in reducing student apathy.

1.2 Scope of Study

It is undoubtedly true that learners bring many individual characteristics to the learning process which affect both the way in which they learn and the outcomes of that process. A moment's thought on these individual characteristics will probably bring into mind such factors as age, gender, personality, level of anxiety and motivation. Although the factors regarded as a gestalt of individual characteristics are internal by their very nature, i.e. brought by the learners, there exist factors that oscillate between being internal and external. Motivation, which is the main concern of psychology, can serve as a bright example bearing this duality. The fact that this work studies the different regulatory styles of motivation concerning school related behaviors enable us to come to the conclusion that the scope of this study is psychology in education.

1.3 Purpose of Study

In order to create a learning environment in which students' needs are addressed, teachers must really understand their students' interests, beliefs, and concerns: in short, their motivations. When one speaks of motivation, one is discussing the factors that drive and orient behavior toward a particular goal, in this case the goal of academic success and achievement. These factors are due to different types of motivation, which vary according to how much a learner engages in an activity for reasons of personal choice. Therefore, we can easily say that students can either have autonomous reasons for learning, i.e. one has an internal desire to learn, or controlled reasons for learning, i.e. one is learning because of external pressures. It has been argued that to achieve

success, students need to develop the sense that they are in control of their own learning processes- developing a sense of learner autonomy.

To date, relatively little attention has been directed towards understanding issues of learner autonomy. Therefore, the present study aims at replicating studies in the field of education to identify which type of motivation, autonomous or controlled, is more dominant in children at late elementary level, while considering the interrelations between the constituents of controlled and autonomous motivations.

1.4 Research Questions

In this study I will try to find answers to the following questions:

1. Do the pupils, at the age of 10-11, have internalized reasons for learning?
2. What type of behavior, controlled or autonomous, is dominant at late elementary education?
3. Is there any correlation between the constituents of controlled and autonomous motivations at late elementary education?
4. Is there any statistical difference between the constituents of controlled and autonomous motivations?

1.5 Limitations and Delimitations

Although this paper explores which type of motivation, whether controlled or autonomous, is dominant among the chosen study group, the study of factors such as gender, age, personality affecting motivation remain beyond the scope of this work. The main limitation of this study is that it represents motivation only at the late elementary level. It does not cover early elementary, secondary and tertiary levels. I also confined this study by considering motivation in education not withstanding the fact that motivation finds its broad reflection in all branches of science; motivation in sports, motivation in health, motivation in medicine, etc.

The delimitation of the study is that it involved data collection in terms of a questionnaire (SRQ-Academic) with a validity, which was analyzed in terms of paired T-Test (two tailed) and p-value (alpha=0.05) for analytic statistics. Thus, deficiencies that would occur from the results were minimized.

1.6 Conceptual Definitions of the Study

This study involves educational motivation where I will consider behaviors related to learning. The main terms comprised by the study are as the following:

1. Intrinsic motivation represents the most self-determined (autonomous) type of motivation where learning is voluntary. In other words, students want to learn for the sense of achievement and pleasure.

   Before I go any further, I would like to consider the following quotes, which bring clarity to the identity of intrinsic motivation.

   "Intrinsic motivation refers to motivation to engage in an activity for its own sake. People who are intrinsically motivated work on tasks because they find them enjoyable." (Paul R. Pintrich & Dale H. Schunk, Motivation in Education, cited in Davis, 2003).

   "Intrinsic motivation is the innate propensity to engage one's interests and exercise one's capacities, and, in doing so, to seek out and master optimal challenges." (Johnmarshall Reeve, Motivating Others, cited in Davis, 2003).

   "Intrinsic motivation is choosing to do an activity for no compelling reason, beyond the satisfaction derived from the activity itself--it's what motivates us to do something when we don't have to do anything." (James P Raffini, 150 Ways to Increase Intrinsic Motivation in the Classroom, cited in Davis, 2003).

"Intrinsically motivated action is that which occurs for its own sake, action for which the only rewards are the spontaneous affects and cognitions that accompany it. Intrinsically motivated behaviors require no external supports or reinforcements for their sustenance." (Raymond J. Wlodkowski, Enhancing Adult Motivation to Learn, cited in Davis 2003).

2. Extrinsic motivation involves behaviors related to external sources-they are controlled by external pressures. Consider the following quote to have a deeper understanding of extrinsic motivation:

"Extrinsic motivation is motivation to engage in an activity as a means to an end. Individuals who are extrinsically motivated work on tasks because they believe that participation will result in desirable outcomes such as a reward, teacher praise, or avoidance of punishment." (Paul R. Pintrich & Dale H. Schunk, Motivation in Education, cited in Davis, 2003).

Within extrinsic motivation, external regulations, introjected regulations and identified regulations will be considered. Very brief definitions of each are:

a) External regulation; behaving under the control of external sources and learning to receive external rewards,

b) Introjected regulation; behaviors are still influenced by external forces but there a relatively (relative to external regulation) internalized reasons to avoid negative outcomes such as guilt or shame, and

c) Identified regulation; behaviors are personally important; they are adopted into one's values and needs but also contingent upon rewards.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 History of Problem

Academic achievement is influenced by many factors. These can be grouped together under four main titles, which are:

1. Cognitive and Metacognitive factors
2. Developmental and Social factors
3. Individual differences in learning
4. Motivation as a contributing factor to learning

Very brief information will be given about the first three factors, which will be followed by the detailed exploration of motivation, related to the study.

2.1.1 Cognitive and Metacognitive Factors in Learning

Considering the literature on learning strategies, the distinction between cognitive and metacognitive strategies are roughly as the following: Cognitive strategies are the mental processes used to make sense of learning, whereas metacognitive strategies help learners to regulate their learning. This is further explained in the following paragraphs.

Mental processes of information (such as obtaining, storage, retrieval or use of information) are strategies that are considered to be cognitive. Besides these cognitive strategies, there are metacognitive ones that operate at a different level where learners step outside their learning and look at it from outside. That is to say, metacognitive strategies include an ability to manage and regulate consciously the use of appropriate learning strategies for different situations. These strategies require an awareness of what one is doing and which strategies one is employing, as well as knowledge about the actual process of learning. The term 'metacognition' was first introduced by John Flavell and it can be simply identified as "knowing about one's knowing." It should be

noted that metacognitive awareness is important for effective learning since it involves an awareness of one's own mental processes and an ability to reflect on how one learns. (Williams, 1997).

One could try to differentiate sharply between a cognitive and a metacognitive strategy. Flavell himself acknowledges that metacognitive knowledge may not be different from cognitive knowledge (Flavell, [1979] cited in Livingston, 1997). Cognitive strategies are used to help an individual achieve a particular goal (e.g., understanding a vocabulary item), while metacognitive strategies are used to ensure that the goal has been reached (e.g., quizzing oneself to evaluate one's understanding of that vocabulary). Metacognitive experiences usually precede or follow a cognitive activity. For instance, the realization that one did not understand what one just read (the failure of cognition) leads to the use of metacognitive strategies.

A strategy may overlap, depending on the purpose for using that strategy, such that it can be considered as either a cognitive or a metacognitive strategy. For example, you may use a self-questioning strategy while reading as a means of obtaining knowledge, cognitive, or as a way of monitoring what you have read, metacognitive. (Livingston, 1997). Thus, it is clearly seen that cognitive and metacognitive strategies are closely intertwined and dependent upon each other. Both should be acknowledged hand in hand to provide an adequate picture. Therefore, the following subtitles should be viewed in this respect.

a) Nature of the learning process: The intentional process of constructing meaning from information and experience leads to learning. (Eggers, 2000) Learning in schools emphasizes the use of intentional processes that students can use to construct meaning from information, experiences, and their own thoughts and beliefs. Successful learners are active, goal-directed, self-regulating, and assume personal responsibility for contributing to their own learning.

b) Goals of the learning process: As Eggers (Eggers, 2000) puts it: "The strategic nature of learning requires students to be goal directed." To construct useful representations of

knowledge and to acquire the thinking and learning strategies necessary for continued learning success across the life span, students must generate and pursue personally relevant goals. Educators can assist learners in creating meaningful learning goals that are consistent with both personal and educational aspirations and interests.

c) Construction of knowledge: Knowledge widens and deepens as students continue to build links between new information and experiences and their existing knowledge base. The nature of these links can take a variety of forms, such as adding to, modifying, or reorganizing existing knowledge or skills. How these links are made or develop may vary in different subject areas, and among students with varying talents, interests, and abilities. New knowledge should integrate with the learner's prior knowledge and understanding. If it does not, this new knowledge remains isolated and it cannot be used most effectively in new tasks. Educators can assist learners in acquiring and integrating knowledge by a number of strategies that have been shown to be effective with learners of varying abilities, such as concept mapping and thematic organization or categorizing. In short, the successful learner is able to link new information with existing knowledge in meaningful ways.

d) Learner strategies: Successful learners use strategic thinking in their approach to learning, reasoning, problem solving, and concept learning. They understand and can use a variety of strategies to help them reach learning and performance goals, and to apply their knowledge in novel situations. They also continue to expand their repertoire of strategies by reflecting on the methods they use to see which work well for them, by receiving guided instruction and feedback, and by observing or interacting with appropriate models. Learning outcomes can be enhanced if educators assist learners in developing, applying, and assessing their strategic learning skills. Learner strategies are henceforth "Thinking about thinking". Successful learners can reflect on how they think and learn, set reasonable learning or performance goals, select potentially appropriate learning strategies or methods, and monitor their progress toward these goals. In addition, successful learners know what to do if a problem occurs or if they are not making sufficient or timely progress toward a goal. They can generate alternative methods to reach their goal (or reassess the appropriateness and utility of the goal). Instructional methods that focus on helping learners develop these (metacognitive)

strategies can enhance student learning and personal responsibility for learning. (Eggeres, 2000).

e) Context of learning: Learning does not occur in a vacuum. Culture, technology, and instructional practices are environmental factors that influence learning. Teachers play a major interactive role with both the learner and the learning environment. Cultural or group influences on students can impact many educationally relevant variables, such as motivation, orientation toward learning, and ways of thinking. Technologies and instructional practices must be appropriate for learners' level of prior knowledge, cognitive abilities, and their learning and thinking strategies. The classroom environment, particularly the degree to which it is nurturing or not, can also have significant impacts on student learning.

2.1.2 Developmental and Social Factors in Learning

Individuals learn best when material is appropriate to their developmental level and is presented in an enjoyable and interesting way. In other words, learning will be most effective when the development within and across intellectual, physical, emotional, and social domains are taken into account. (Eggers, 2000). Overemphasis on one type of developmental readiness, such as reading readiness, may preclude learners from demonstrating that they are more capable in other areas of performance. The cognitive, emotional, and social development of individual learners and how they interpret life experiences are affected by prior schooling, home, culture, and community factors. Early and continuing parental involvement in schooling, and the quality of language interactions and two-way communications between adults and children can influence these developmental areas. Awareness and understanding of developmental differences among children with and without emotional, physical, or intellectual disabilities can facilitate the creation of optimal learning contexts.

Social interactions, interpersonal relations, and communication with others are the social factors influencing learning. Learning can be enhanced when the learner has an opportunity to interact and to collaborate with others on instructional tasks. Learning

settings that allow for social interactions, and that respect diversity, encourage flexible thinking and social competence. In interactive and collaborative instructional contexts, individuals have an opportunity for perspective taking and reflective thinking that may lead to higher levels of cognitive, social, and moral development, as well as self-esteem. Quality personal relationships that provide stability, trust, and caring can increase learners' sense of belonging, self-respect and self-acceptance, and provide a positive climate for learning. Family influences, positive interpersonal support and instruction in self-motivation strategies can offset factors that interfere with optimal learning, such as negative beliefs about competence in a particular subject, high levels of anxiety, and undue pressure to perform well. Positive learning climates can also help to establish the context for healthier levels of thinking, feeling, and behaving. Such contexts help learners feel safe to share ideas, actively participate in the learning process, and create a learning community. (Eggers, 2000).

2.1.3 Individual Differences in Learning

Individuals are born with and develop many characteristics that influence their learning. These characteristics involve factors such as age, gender, personality, intelligence and motivation. In addition, having different goals, different cognitive styles and strategies, different levels of anxiety, which hinder or cause learning, can be listed. In time, learners also acquire their own preferences for how they like to learn and the pace at which they learn. However, these preferences are not always useful in helping learners reach their learning goals. Educators need to help students examine their learning preferences and expand or modify them, if necessary.

Having individual differences is not the only matter influencing learning. There are a web of interwoven factors that affect learning outcomes. The interaction between individual differences and curricular and environmental conditions can be given as an example. Educators need to be sensitive to individual differences, in general. They also need to attend to learner perceptions of the degree to which these differences are accepted and adapted to by varying instructional methods and materials.

Acknowledging differences in learners' linguistic, cultural, and social backgrounds leads to effective learning. The same basic principles of learning, motivation, and effective instruction apply to all learners. However, language, ethnicity, race, beliefs, and socioeconomic status all can influence learning. Careful attention to these factors in the instructional setting enhances the possibilities for designing and implementing appropriate learning environments. When learners perceive that their individual differences in abilities, backgrounds, cultures, and experiences are valued, respected, and accommodated in learning tasks and contexts, levels of motivation and achievement are enhanced.

Here, we also need to mention about integral parts of the learning process, which are involved in setting appropriately high and challenging standards and assessing the learners' progress. (Eggers, 2000). Assessment provides important information to both the learner and teacher at all stages of the learning process. Effective learning takes place when learners feel challenged to work towards appropriately high goals; therefore, appraisal of the learner's cognitive strengths and weaknesses, as well as current knowledge and skills, is important for the selection of instructional materials of an optimal degree of difficulty. Ongoing assessment of the learner's understanding of the curricular material can provide valuable feedback to both learners and teachers about progress toward the learning goals. Standardized assessment of learner progress and outcomes assessment provides one type of information about achievement levels both within and across individuals. Self-assessments of learning progress can also improve students' self-appraisal skills and enhance motivation and self-directed learning.

2.1.4 Motivation in Learning

The specific topic of the study lies on the matter of motivation; therefore, it is reasonable to start by having a deeper understanding of what motivation is.

An increasing number of researchers have been investigating motivation for the past twenty years. Using either 'Self-Determination Theory' (refer to 2.5.8) or closely related theoretical perspectives, these researchers have performed laboratory

experiments, as well as field studies in a variety of real-world settings, including education, work, parenting, health care, sport, and protection of the environment. Motivation is probably the most frequently used catchall term for explaining the success or failure of virtually any complex task. Countless studies and experiments in human learning have shown that motivation is a key to learning. However, these claims gloss over a detailed understanding of exactly what motivation is and what the subcomponents of motivation are. However simple and easy the word "motivation" might appear, the exact definition of motivation is not so clear, and it is in fact very difficult to define. It seems to have been impossible for theorists to reach consensus on a single definition. Therefore, it is reasonable to have a look at different definitions of motivation.

Gardner, at the University of Western Ontario--Canada, has become a primary figure in the field of motivation. Gardner, 1985 defines motivation as: "Motivation involves four aspects, a goal, effortful behavior, a desire to attain the goal and favorable attitudes toward the activity in question". According to Gardner (1985), we can say that motivation is a desire to achieve a goal, combined with the energy to work towards that goal. That is, motivation involves 4 aspects, which are:

1. A Goal
2. An Effort
3. A Desire to attain the goal
4. Favorable Attitude toward the activity in question.

MOTIVATION	
1. Goal	4. Energy, active
2. Effort	involvement,
3. Desire	persistence.
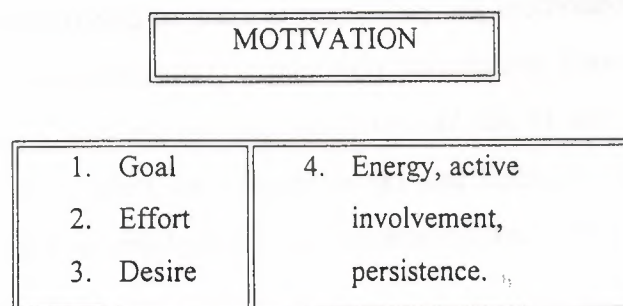
Fig. 2.1. Four Aspects of Motivation

Sometimes a distinction is made between positive and negative motivation:

a) Positive motivation; is a response, which includes enjoyment and optimism about the tasks that you are involved in.

b) Negative motivation: the fear that there could be undesirable outcomes, such as failing a subject, leads the learner to complete the educational task.

> According to Gardner (1985), motivation is concerned with the question, "Why does an organism behave as it does?"

> Motivation is defined as the impetus to create and sustain intentions and goal seeking acts (Ames & Ames, 1989).

Motivation is clearly a highly complex phenomenon. It involves the arousal and maintenance of curiosity and can ebb and flow as a result of such factors as learners' particular interests and extent to which they feel personally involved in learning activities. It can result from learning as well as cause it. Furthermore, motivation is dynamic in nature; it is not something that a learner has or does not have but rather something that varies from one moment to the next depending on the learning context or task. Motivation is commonly thought of as an inner active drive, impulse, emotion, or desire that moves one to a particular action. In more technical terms, motivation refers to "the choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid, and the degree of effort they will exert in that respect." (Keller, [1983:389] cited in Taylor, 1997).

Examples abound to illustrate the "needs" concept of motivation. Consider children who are motivated to learn to read. They are motivated because certain needs are important to them, particularly exploration, stimulation, knowledge, self-esteem and autonomy. Children who are not motivated to read fail to see how reading meets the needs they have. The adult who learns to ski and learns to do so well no doubt is motivated by a need for exploration and stimulation and activity and maybe even ego enhancement.

Motivation is also typically examined in terms of the intrinsic and extrinsic orientation of the learner. Those who learn for their own self-perceived needs and goals are intrinsically oriented and those who pursue a goal only to receive an external reward from someone else are extrinsically motivated.

"Intrinsic means innate or within; hence intrinsic motivation is the stimulation or drive stemming from within oneself. In relation to learning, one is compelled to learn by a motive to understand, originating from their own curiosity. Intrinsic motivation is often associated with intrinsic rewards because the natural rewards of a task are the motivating forces that encourage an individual in the first place." (Ribary, 2003).

Extrinsically motivated behaviors, on the other hand, are carried out in anticipation of a reward from outside and beyond the self. Typical extrinsic rewards are money, prizes, grades, and even certain types of positive feedback. Behaviors initiated solely to avoid punishment are also extrinsically motivated, even though numerous intrinsic benefits can ultimately accrue to those who, instead, view punishment avoidance as a challenge that can build their sense of competence and self-determination.

Which form of motivation is more powerful? According to many studies in this field, intrinsic orientations are considered to be more powerful, especially for long-term retention. That is to say, if the source of motivation is coming from within one's self, this is considered to be intrinsic motivation. An internal desire is more likely to last longer than an orientation of behavior that is regulated externally, extrinsic motivation. Behaviors that are initiated by external sources seem more temporary, in relation to behaviors that are directed by one's own will.

Maslow (Maslow, [1970], cited in Williams, 1997) claimed that intrinsic motivation is clearly superior to extrinsic. According to his hierarchy of needs, we are ultimately motivated to achieve "self-actualization" once the basic physical, safety, and community needs are met. No matter what extrinsic rewards are present or absent, we will strive for self-esteem and fulfillment.

Psychologist Edward Deci did research with two groups of subjects, to see the effect of extrinsic rewards on learning. Group one received an extrinsic reward (money) for solving a puzzle called 'SOMA'; the second group received no rewards. Afterwards, both groups were left alone and secretly watched. The group that was paid stopped playing; the group not paid kept playing. Deci summarized his findings thusly: "Stop the pay, stop the play." He concludes, "Monetary rewards undermined people's intrinsic motivation.... Rewards seemed to turn the act of playing into something that was controlled from the outside: It turned play into work, and the player into a pawn.... Rewards and recognition are important, but as the research has so clearly shown and I have reiterated many times, when rewards or awards are used as a means of motivating people, they are likely to backfire." (Deci, cited in Davis, 2003).

"One of the most effective ways to help both children and adults to think and learn is to free the from the control of rewards and punishments. The principal of weaknesses of extrinsically driven behavior is its addictive nature. Once captivated, as it were, by the lure of an immediate prize or praise, our dependency on those tangible rewards increases, even to the point that their withdrawal can then extinguish the desire to learn." (Jerome Bruner, [1962], cited in Papadopoulos, 2001).

It should be noted that, it is not our intention to say that one of these conceptions is right and the other wrong. Rather, the important point is that there are different views of motivation. When there is a dispute about the effect of motivation, one should weigh the possibility that the disputants disagree about the sense of motivation.

2.2 Factors Influencing Motivation

What and how much is learned is influenced by the learner's motivation. Motivation to learn, in turn, is influenced by the individual's emotional states, beliefs, interests and goals, and habits of thinking. The rich internal world of thoughts, beliefs, goals, and expectations for success or failure can enhance or interfere with the learner's quality of thinking and information processing.

Students' beliefs about themselves as learners and the nature of learning have a marked influence on motivation. Emotional factors influence both the quality of thinking and information processing as well as an individual's motivation to learn. Positive emotions, such as curiosity, generally enhance motivation and facilitate learning and performance. Mild anxiety can also enhance learning and performance by focusing the learner's attention on a particular task. However, intense negative emotions (e.g., anxiety, panic, rage, insecurity) and related thoughts (e.g., worrying about competence, ruminating about failure, fearing punishment, ridicule, or stigmatizing labels) generally detract from motivation, interfere with learning, and contribute to low performance. (Eggers, 2000).

The learner's creativity and natural curiosity all contribute to motivation to learn. Intrinsic motivation is stimulated by tasks of optimal novelty and difficulty, relevant to personal interests, and providing for personal choice and control. Curiosity, flexible and insightful thinking, and creativity are major indicators of the learners' intrinsic motivation to learn, which is in large part a function of meeting basic needs to be competent and to exercise personal control. Intrinsic motivation is facilitated on tasks that learners perceive as interesting and personally relevant and meaningful, appropriate in complexity and difficulty to the learners' abilities, and on which they believe they can succeed. Intrinsic motivation is also facilitated on tasks that are comparable to real-world situations and meet needs for choice and control. Educators can encourage and support learners' natural curiosity and motivation to learn by attending to individual differences in learners' perceptions of optimal novelty and difficulty, relevance, and personal choice and control.

Effort has a major impinge on motivation. The acquisition of complex knowledge and skills demands the investment of considerable learner energy and strategic effort, along with persistence over time. Educators need to be concerned with facilitating motivation by strategies that enhance learner effort and commitment to learning and to achieving high standards of comprehension and understanding. Effective strategies include purposeful learning activities, guided by practices that enhance positive emotions and intrinsic motivation to learn, and methods that increase learners' perceptions that a task is interesting and personally relevant. Acquisition of complex knowledge and skills

requires extended learner effort and guided practice. Without learners' motivation to learn, the willingness to exert this effort is unlikely without coercion. (Eggers, 2000).

The environment is another factor, which could trigger or impede motivation. This study concerns children therefore; it is reasonable to consider the effect of environment particularly on children:

In order for the students to be motivated, the learning environment needs to be free from anxiety. In other words, learners should not feel threatened or intimidated from the environment. The cognitive psychologist, Robert Sternberg has argued convincingly that we cannot judge the intellectual quality of any behavioral act outside of the context in which it occurs. (Robert Sternberg, cited in Williams, 1997).

There are many factors affecting motivation, however, reviewing all lies beyond the scope of this study.

2.3 Early Psychological Views on Motivation

Psychological approaches to motivation have changed so markedly in recent years, therefore, I shall begin by providing an overview of early psychological views on motivation. This will enable us to construct a definition of motivation, which helps us to pull together and provide a framework for explaining much of the recent research in this field.

Most of the early work in this area was based upon the observation of animal behaviors in laboratories. Psychologists observed animal behaviors, behaviors related to meet basic biological needs, and tried to explain human motivation on the basis of their observations. An example of one of these observations is as the following: a hungry dog that hears the sound of a bell whilst salivating at the sight and sound of food would be motivated to seek food when hearing a bell on subsequent occasions. Thus, human motivation to learn any particular thing was accounted for in terms of what biological

needs were being met during the early learning years and what kind of reward or reinforcement was provided for early attempts to learn. (Williams, 1997).

Early views of behaviorists tend to consider motivation largely in terms of external forces. In this respect, they tried to find answers to situations similar to the one as the following: if a student gets a reward, such as a sticker, for learning a list of verbs, will that student be more or less likely to approach positively to a similar task, or are there other kinds of reinforcement that might be more successful in inducing the desired behavior? That is, behaviorists tried to identify what specific conditions gave rise to what kind of behavior and how the consequences of that behavior affect whether it was more or less likely to happen again.

These early views are later extended by the identification of a whole range of basic human needs. Besides our biological needs, Murray identified our other needs, such as, our need to dominate others, our need to understand/make sense of our worlds, and our need to become part of a society. Murray believed that these needs caused inner tensions (drives), which had to be released. He defined motivation in terms of "the urge to release the tensions to satisfy the needs." (Murray, [1938], cited in Williams, 1997).

For many years, psychologists developed many theories that provided helpful insights to understand why humans behave, or refuse to behave as they do. For more information on these theories refer to 2.5 Theories of Motivation.

2. 4 Sources of Motivation

Educational psychologists point to three major sources of motivation in learning (Fisher, [1990], cited in Littlejohn, 2001):

1. The learner's natural interest, (intrinsic satisfaction): Even though the effect is usually temporary, songs, games and puzzles have a positive impact in raising the motivation of pupils. Learner's natural interest is not, therefore, something which we can rely on to generate sustained motivation.

2. The teacher/institution/employment (extrinsic reward): Extrinsic reward, and its opposite, extrinsic punishment can be used as a means of motivating students. For instance, teachers may increase their student's sense of self-worth by rewarding them. This could be done by giving good grades, by giving them more advanced work to do or by placing them in a higher-level group. However, the students' motivation is sustained only if they get rewards. The rewards system may, most likely, de-motivate weaker students since it does not take long for the failing students to realize that no matter how hard they try, it is always someone else who will get the reward. The increase in the motivation of the better students is more or less proportional to the decrease in motivation of the weaker students.

3. Success in the task (combining satisfaction and reward): It is the human nature to avoid circumstances in which we anticipate failure. We prefer to put in effort to things that is likely to bring success. If we put in more effort, we generally get better, and so this sustains our motivation. When our motivation is sustained and we feel competent to do something, we are in an upward spiral, which causes us to commit ourselves to what we are doing and to improve. In contrast, feelings of failure leads to a downward spiral, which makes us to have low motivation, that leads to low effort, and low achievement, and it recurs. "It is the existence of these upward and downward spirals in the motivation-ability relationship that explain a situation commonly found by teachers. In many classes where there are differing levels of student ability, the gap between the 'weaker' students and the 'stronger' students appears to get wider and wider over time, as some students thrive in an upward spiral, whilst other students actually deteriorate in a downward spiral." (Littlejohn, 2001). The relationship of ability and motivation is represented in the following figure:

If an individual feel that he is able to do something, he will be motivated to perform the activity, or vice versa. The following figure shows the recurring of motivation with the effect of ability.

Motivation　　　　　　　　　　**Ability**
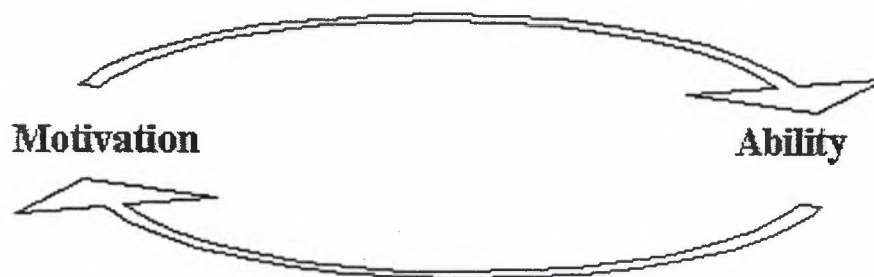
Fig. 2.2. The Flow of Motivation

<http://www3.telus.net/linguisticsissues/motivation.html>

In general, the sources of motivation can be categorized as:

1. Extrinsic (outside the person) or

2. Intrinsic (internal to the person). Intrinsic sources and corresponding theories can be further subcategorized as either body/physical, mind/mental (i.e., cognitive, affective, conative) or transpersonal/spiritual. (Huitt, 2001).

The following table provides a brief overview of the different sources of motivation:

Table 2.1

Sources of Motivational Needs

<http://chiron.valdosta.edu/whuitt/col/motivation/motivate.html>

Sources of Motivational Needs	
behavioral/external	elicited by stimulus associated/connected to innately connected stimulus obtain desired, pleasant consequences (rewards) or escape/avoid undesired, unpleasant consequences
social	imitate positive models be a part of a group or a valued member
biological	increase/decrease stimulation (arousal) activate senses (taste, touch, smell, etc. decrease hunger, thirst, discomfort, etc. maintain homeostasis, balance
cognitive	maintain attention to something interesting or threatening

	develop meaning or understanding
	increase/decrease cognitive disequilibrium; uncertainty
	solve a problem or make a decision
	figure something out
	eliminate threat or risk
affective	increase/decrease affective dissonance
	increase feeling good
	decrease feeling bad
	increase security of or decrease threats to self-esteem
	maintain levels of optimism and enthusiasm
conative	meet individually developed/selected goal
	obtain personal dream
	develop or maintain self-efficacy
	take control of one's life
	eliminate threats to meeting goal, obtaining dream
	reduce others' control of one's life
spiritual	understand purpose of one's life
	connect self to ultimate unknowns

2.5 Theories of Motivation

The theories of motivation are classified under eight major categories. They will be considered very briefly as in the following:

2.5.1 Behavioral Theories

1) Drive (Hull): urgent, basic, or instinctual need: motivating physiological condition of an organism.

2) Learned motives:

   a) Classical conditioning: (Pavlov, cited in Huitt, 2001). It states that biological responses to associated stimuli energize and direct behavior.

b) Instrumental/operant learning: (Skinner, cited in Huitt, 2001). It states that the primary factor is consequences: reinforces are incentives to increase behavior and punishers are disincentives that result in a decrease in behavior. (Stimulus => response => reward)

c) Observational/social learning: (Bandura, cited in Huitt, 2001). It suggests that modeling (imitating others) and vicarious learning (watching others have consequences applied to their behavior) are important motivators of behavior.

3) Incentive motivation: it refers to goal-directed behavior (behavior that is "pulled" more than "pushed"). Seeking of rewards; avoidance of punishers. Unlike drives, which were thought to be innate, incentives are usually considered to be learned. Here, behaviorists explain motivation in terms of external stimuli and reinforcement. The physical environment and actions of the teacher are of prime importance.

2.5.2 Cognitive Theories

1) Expectancy-value/VIE theory: (Vroom, [1964], cited in Huitt, 2001).

This theory proposes the following equation:

Motivation = Perceived Probability of Success (Expectancy)*
Connection of Success and Reward-- material benefit (Instrumentality) *
Value of Obtaining Goal (Valence, Value) *
In other words, VIE = Valence* Instrumentality* Expectancy.

Three factors are multiplied to get motivation, thus, if one factor is zero, this will mean no motivation. According to this formula, a learner can have motivation only if all three factors, valence-instrumentality-expectancy, are present. Therefore, if an individual doesn't believe he or she can be successful at a task or the individual does not see a connection between his or her activity and success or the individual does not value the results of success, then the probability is lowered that the individual will engage in

the required learning activity. From the perspective of this theory, all three variables must be high in order for motivation and the resulting behavior to be high.

An individual will act in a certain way based on the expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome and on the attractiveness of that outcome to the individual.

2) Attribution Theory: (Heider, [1958]; Weiner, [1974], cited in Huitt, 2001). According to this theory, success or failure of self and others are explained on the basis of certain "attributions", which can be either internal or external and are either under control or not under control.

Table 2.2

The Four Attributions that Result From the Combination of Internal or External locus of Control with No Control

<http://chiron.valdosta.edu/whuitt/col/motivation/motivate.html>

	Internal	External
No Control	Ability	Luck
Control	Effort	Task Difficulty

When learners with internal (no control) attribution experience difficulties in the learning process, their appropriate learning behavior will decrease. However, when learners with external attribution experience difficulty learners do not do anything to solve the problem. Considering the above, teachers should assist learners to develop a self-attribution of internal, control, so that their success depends on effort, not just ability.

3) Cognitive dissonance theory: (Leon Festinger [1957], cited in Huitt, 2001) Festinger states that when there is a difference between two beliefs, two actions, or between a belief and an action, we will act to resolve conflict and discrepancies. The implication is

that, if we can create the appropriate amount of disequilibrium this will in turn lead to the individual changing his behavior, which in turn will lead to a change in thought patterns, which in turn leads to more change in behavior. Consider the following example:

"A habitual smoker who learns that smoking is bad for health will experience dissonance, because the knowledge that smoking is bad for health is dissonant with the cognition that he continues to smoke. He can reduce the dissonance by changing his behavior, that is, he could stop smoking, which would be consonant with the cognition that smoking is bad for health. Alternatively, the smoker could reduce dissonance by changing his cognition about the effect of smoking on health and believe that smoking does not have a harmful effect on health (eliminating the dissonant cognition). He might look for positive effects of smoking and believe that smoking reduces tension and keeps him from gaining weight (adding consonant cognitions). Or he might believe that the risk to health from smoking is negligible compared with the danger of automobile accidents (reducing the importance of the dissonant cognition). In addition, he might consider the enjoyment he gets from smoking to be a very important part of his life (increasing the importance of consonant cognitions)." (Huitt, 2001).

2.5.3 Cognitive Developmental Theories

1) <u>Stages of Cognitive Development</u>: (Piaget, [1972, 1990], cited in Huitt, 2001). According to Piaget, children are motivated to develop their cognitive or mental abilities in a predictable set of stages:

> 1. Sensorimotor stage (Infancy, 0 to 2 years). In this period (which has 6 stages), intelligence is demonstrated through motor activity without the use of symbols. Knowledge of the world is limited (but developing) because it is based on physical interactions / experiences. Children acquire object permanence at about 7 months of age (memory). Physical development (mobility) allows the child to begin developing new intellectual abilities. Some

symbolic (language) abilities are developed at the end of this stage.

2. Pre-operational stage (Toddler and Early Childhood, 2-7 years). In this period (which has two sub stages), intelligence is demonstrated through the use of symbols, language use matures, and memory and imagination are developed, but thinking is done in a non-logical, non-reversible manner. Egocentric thinking predominates

3. Concrete operational stage (Elementary and early adolescence, 7-12 years). In this stage (characterized by 7 types of conservation: number, length, liquid, mass, weight, area, volume), intelligence is demonstrated through logical and systematic manipulation of symbols related to concrete objects. Operational thinking develops (mental actions that are reversible). Egocentric thought diminishes.

4. Formal operational stage (Adolescence and adulthood, 12 years – adult). In this stage, intelligence is demonstrated through the logical use of symbols related to abstract concepts. Early in the period there is a return to egocentric thought. Only 35% of high school graduates in industrialized countries obtain formal operations; many people do not think formally during adulthood.

According to this model, fulfillment of the previous stage is necessary for advancement to the next stage. In order for the child to be motivated, parents and teachers need to challenge his/her abilities, but not present material or information that is too far beyond the child's level. It is also recommended that teachers use a wide variety of concrete experiences to motivate the child (e.g., use of manipulatives, working in groups to get experience seeing from another's perspective, field trips, etc).

2) Zone of Proximal development: (Lev Vygotsky, cited in Huitt, 2001). The distance between the learner's actual developmental level and the level of potential development is the basis for this theory. It is the gap between what we are trying to teach and the

current state of development in that area. If the gap is too large, instruction won't be effective; too small and the learner won't be extended, therefore teachers must have background knowledge of those they teach. The development of a child is at the same time the mental development, where certain functions develop while others mature. The zone of proximal development of a child enables us to outline the child's immediate future and his overall dynamic state of development.

2.5.4 Achievement Theories

1) Achievement motivation theories: (Atkinson, [1964], cited in Williams, 1997).

1. Need for achievement: individuals with a high need for achievement are interested in excellence for its own sake (rather for extrinsic rewards), tend to initiate achievement activities, work with heightened intensity on these tasks, and persist in the face of failure.
2. Fear of failure: The main drive to do well comes from avoiding a negative outcome rather than approaching a positive one.
3. Fear of success: Fear of losing social support (affiliation).

2) Goal-theory: it has differentiated three separate types of goals:

1. Mastery goals (also called learning goals): Individuals who possess these goals want to master a new set of knowledge/skills or aim to focus on gaining competence.
2. Performance/normative goals (also called ego-involvement goals): Individuals who possess these goals; want to do better than others or focus on achieving normative-based standards, or want to do well without a lot of effort.
3. Social goals: These goals focus on relationships among people, interpersonal skills- cooperative learning.

In the context of school learning, mastery goals, alone, is enough for an individual to be successful. However, individuals must possess all three types of goals to be successful in life.

According to this theory, individuals have two types of motivation:

1. Achieve success (more often associated with mastery goals): Here, individuals are likely to select moderately difficult tasks, which will provide an interesting challenge, but still keep the high expectations for success.

2. Avoid failure (more often associated with performance goals): Here, individuals are likely to select easy or·difficult tasks; thereby they either achieve success or have a good excuse for failure (due to task difficulty).

2.5.5 Psychoanalytic Theories

The psychoanalytic theories of motivation propose a variety of fundamental influences:
1. Freud suggested that all action or behavior is a result of internal, biological instincts that are classified into two categories: life and death (aggression). (Freud, [1990], cited in Huitt, 2001)

2. Erikson and Sullivan proposed that interpersonal and social relationships are fundamental. (Erikson, [1993] and Sullivan, [1968], cited in Huitt, 2001).

Table 2.3

Erikson's Theory of Socio-emotional Development
<http://chiron.valdosta.edu/whuitt/col/motivation/motivate.html>

Stage	Age	Expected Resolution
Trust vs. Mistrust	Infancy	Child develops a belief that the environment can be counted on to meet his or her basic physiological and social needs

Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt	Toddler hood	Child learns what he/she can control and develops a sense of free will and corresponding sense of regret and sorrow for inappropriate use of self-control.
Initiative vs. Guilt	Early Childhood	Child learns to begin action, to explore, to imagine as well as feeling remorse for actions
Accomplishment/Industry vs. Inferiority	Middle Childhood/ Elementary	Child learns to do things well or correctly in comparison to a standard or to others
Identity vs. Role Confusion	Adolescence	Develops a sense of self in relationship to others and to own internal thoughts and desires (Later work has shown two substages: a social identity focusing on which group a person will identify with and a personal identity focusing on abilities, goals, possibilities, etc.)
Intimacy vs. Isolation	Young Adult	Develops ability to give and receive love; begins to make long-term commitment to relationships
Generativity vs. Stagnation	Middle Adulthood	Develops interest in guiding the deyelopment of the next generation
Ego Integrity vs. Despair	Older Adulthood	Develops a sense of acceptance of life as it was lived and the importance of the people and relationships that individual developed over the lifespan

2.5.6 Social Cognition Theories

According to Social cognition theory, an individual's behavior, the environment and individual characteristics (cognitive development, emotions, knowledge) are factors, which influence each other. Bandura (Bandura, [1986], [1997], cited in Huitt, 2001) highlights the following two concepts:

1. Self-efficacy: our beliefs about our capabilities in certain areas/ certain tasks. An individual feels that he is competent enough to accomplish tasks.

2. Self-regulation: Individuals establish goals, develop a plan to attain those goals, and then decide to implement that plan, then implement it. The result of this is followed by actions of reflection and modification or redirection.

2.5.7 Transpersonal/Spiritual Theories

Briefly speaking, the meaningfulness of our lives or ultimate meanings is the main concern of transpersonal or spiritual theories. Abraham Maslow (Maslow [1954], cited in Huitt, 2001) has been influential in this approach to motivation. Reviewing his theory and the other related theories lie beyond the scope of this study.

2.5.8 Humanistic Theories

Humanistic theories of learning tend to be highly value-driven and hence more like prescriptions rather than descriptions. They emphasize the "natural desire" of everyone to learn. In this perspective, teachers should be less authoritarian and more learners centered, i.e. learners should have a control over their learning.

a) Hierarchy of Human Needs: (Abraham Maslow, [1954], cited in Huitt, 2001). He posited a list of human needs based on two groupings: deficiency needs and growth needs. When an individual feels a deficiency in his needs, the individual will act to remove this deficiency. These needs are leveled and each must be met before moving to the next higher level. In other words, the essence of the hierarchy is the notion of "pre-potency", which means that you are not going to be motivated by any higher-levels needs until your lower-level ones have been satisfied.

The first four levels (Deficiency Needs) are:

        1) Physiological: hunger, thirst, bodily comforts, etc.;

        2) Safety/security: out of danger;

3) Belongingness and Love: affiliate with others, be accepted; and

4) Esteem: to achieve, be competent, gain approval and recognition.

In this view, an individual deficiency needs should be met before he can feel the need to have growth needs. The remaining four levels of 'Growth Needs' are:

5) Cognitive: to know, to understand, and explore;

6) Aesthetic: symmetry, order, and beauty;

7) Self-actualization: to find self-fulfillment and realize one's potential; Self-actualized people are characterized by: Being problem-focused, appreciating life, showing concern about personal growth, and Showing ability to have peak experiences.

8) Transcendence: to help others find self-fulfillment and realize their potential.
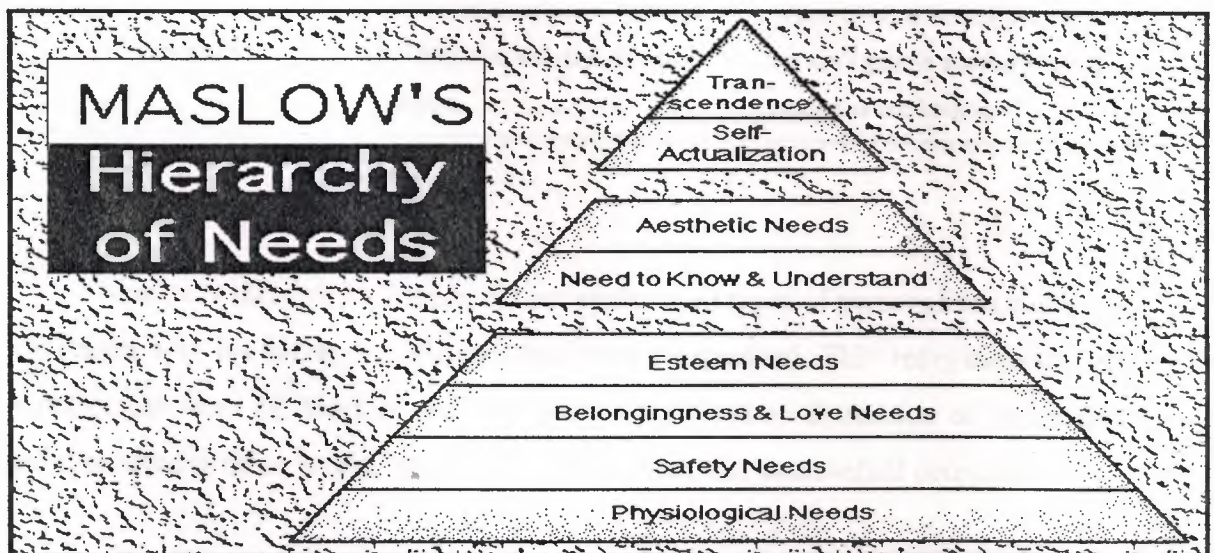
Fig. 2. 3. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

<http://chiron.valdosta.edu/whuitt/col/regsys/maslow.html.>

b) Hierarchy of Human Needs: (Alderfer, [1972], cited in Huitt, 2001). His human needs are briefly viewed in the following table.

Table 2.4

Alderfer's Hierarchy of human needs

<http://chiron.valdosta.edu/whuitt/col/motivation/motivate.html>

Level of Need	Definition	Properties
Growth	Impels a person to make creative or productive effects on himself and his environment	Satisfied through using capabilities in engaging problems; creates a greater sense of wholeness and fullness as a human being
Relatedness	Involves relationships with significant others	Satisfied by mutually sharing thoughts and feelings; acceptance, confirmation, understanding, and influence are elements
Existence	Includes all of the various forms of material and psychological desires	When divided among people one person's gain is another's loss if resources are limited

Maslow's hierarchy of needs did not apply to all types of personalities and this is the reason why his hierarchy of needs has been reorganized. This reorganization was based on the work of Alderfer and introversion/extroversion dimension of personality, and it resulted in three levels, each with an introverted and extroverted component.

This reorganization suggests there may be two aspects of each level that differentiate how people relate to each set of needs. Different personalities might relate more to one dimension than the other. For example, an introvert at the level of Other/Relatedness might be more concerned with his or her own perceptions of being included in a group, whereas an extrovert at that same level would pay more attention to how others value that membership.

The reorganization is represented in the following table:

Table 2.5

A Reorganization of Maslow's and Alderfer's Hierarchies

<http://chiron.valdosta.edu/whuitt/col/motivation/motivate.html>

Level	Introversion	Extroversion
Growth	Self-Actualization (development of competencies [knowledge, attitudes, and skills] and character)	Transcendence (assisting in the development of others' competencies and character; relationships to the unknown, unknowable)
Other (Relatedness)	Personal identification with group, significant others (Belongingness)	Value of person by group (Esteem)
Self (Existence)	Physiological, biological (including basic emotional needs)	Connectedness, security

c) <u>Self Determination Theory (SDT)</u>: This theory was proposed by Deci & Ryan, 1985. It provides the base for this study and therefore, should be expounded.

SDT highlights the importance of humans' evolved inner resources for personality development and behavioral self-regulation. It is an approach to human motivation and personality, which investigates people's inherent growth tendencies and innate psychological needs that are the basis for their self-motivation and personality integration. (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Like many motivational perspectives, motivation is considered on the basis of two main branches, which are intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Learners are extrinsically motivated when they complete educational tasks due to external pressures or rewards. In contrast, intrinsically motivated learners complete tasks for the sake of

interest, challenge, regardless of any external rewards. Intrinsically motivated activities present the best possible opportunities for learning.

Even though humans possess innate intrinsic motivational tendencies, supportive conditions are required to maintain and enhance this inherent propensity. In this respect, SDT examines the conditions that elicit and sustain, versus subdue and diminish, this innate propensity. (Deci & Ryan, 2000). This theory suggests that social environments can facilitate or forestall intrinsic motivation by supporting versus thwarting people's innate psychological needs. Strong links between intrinsic motivation and satisfaction of the needs for autonomy and competence have been clearly demonstrated, and some work suggests that satisfaction of the need for relatedness, at least in a distal sense, may also be important for intrinsic motivation. It is critical to remember, however, that people will be intrinsically motivated only for activities that hold intrinsic interest for them, activities that have the appeal of novelty, challenge, or aesthetic value.

As mentioned before, people can also be extrinsically motivated. The source of motivation, in this case, is external, such as a teacher, parent or a coach. These external prods cause different degrees of external motivations due to differing levels of internalization and integration. As Deci and Ryan (Deci & Ryan, 2000) puts it: "Internalization refers to people's 'taking in' a value or regulation, and integration refers to the further transformation of that regulation into their own so that, subsequently, it will emanate from their sense of self."

Henceforth, SDT is based on the relationship between extrinsic and intrinsic motivations and the basic human need for autonomy. The distinction between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation is defined as in the following: Intrinsic motivation is the performance of an activity for the inherent satisfaction of the activity itself whereas, extrinsic motivation is doing an activity in order to achieve a desired outcome. Unlike some perspectives that view extrinsically motivated behavior as invariantly non-autonomous, SDT proposes that extrinsic motivation can vary greatly in its relative autonomy (Ryan & Connell, [1989]; Vallerand, [1997], cited in Deci & Ryan, 2000). Consider the following examples:

1. Learners may complete an educational task to please their parents.
2. Learners may complete an educational task to get good grades to go to university.

Both examples involve instrumentalities rather than enjoyment of the work itself, however, example 1 is a form of extrinsic motivation that involves compliance with an external regulation, whereas example 2 is a form of extrinsic motivation that entails personal endorsement and a feeling of choice.

Thus, Deci and Ryan introduced a second sub-theory within SDT, called 'organismic integration theory' (OIT), to detail the different forms of extrinsic motivation and the contextual factors that either promote or hinder internalization and integration of the regulation for these behaviors. (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

The following figure illustrates the OIT taxonomy of motivational types, arranged from left to right in terms of the degree to which the motivations emanate from the self, i.e., are self-determined:

Behavior	Nonself-Determined					Self-Determined
Motivation	Amotivation		Extrinsic Motivation			Intrinsic Motivation
Regulatory Styles	Non-Regulation	External Regulation	Introjected Regulation	Identified Regulation	Integrated Regulation	Intrinsic Regulation
Perceived Locus of Causality	Impersonal	External	Somewhat External	Somewhat Internal	Internal	Internal
Relevant Regulatory Processes	Nonintentional, Nonvaluing, Incompetence, Lack of Control	Compliance, External Rewards and Punishments	Self-control, Ego-Involvement, Internal Rewards and Punishments	Personal Importance, Conscious Valuing	Congruence, Awareness, Synthesis With Self	Interest, Enjoyment, Inherent Satisfaction

Fig. 2.4. The Self-Determination Continuum
<http://www.cast.ilstu.edu/amorose/readings/ryan_deci_2000.pdf>

- **Intrinsic Motivation:** Intrinsically motivated people are highly autonomous and they represent the prototypic instance of self-determination.

- **Amotivation**: Amotivated people do not feel competent enough to complete the activity. (Bandura, [1986], cited in Deci & Ryan, 2000). An amotivated individual does not act or act without intention.

- **Extrinsic Motivation**: Extrinsic motivation has four different forms according to the level of internalization:

  a) External Regulation: Externally regulated behaviors are performed to satisfy an external demand or reward contingency. In this case, individuals typically experience externally regulated behavior as controlled. Therefore, this form of regulation is least autonomous.

  b) Introjected Regulation: Introjection involves taking in a regulation but not fully accepting it as one's own. Behaviors regulated by introjetion are performed to avoid guilt or anxiety or to attain ego enhancements such as pride. In other words, introjected behaviors have an external perceived locus of causality and are not really experienced as part of the self. Thus, in some studies, external regulation (being interpersonally controlled) and introjected regulation (being intrapersonally controlled) have been combined to form a controlled motivation composite (Williams, Grow, Freedman. Ryan, & Deci, [1996], cited in Deci & Ryan, 2000).

  c) Identified Regulation: This form of extrinsic motivation is more autonomous, i.e. self-determined. Here, the action is accepted or owned as personally important.

  d) Integrated Regulation: This regulation is the most autonomous form of extrinsic motivation. Integration occurs when identified regulations which means they have been evaluated and brought into congruence with one's other

values and needs. In some studies, identified, integrated and intrinsic forms of regulation have been combined to form an autonomous motivation composite.

In summary, SDT adds to the discussion of motivation the distinction between self-determined (autonomous) and controlled types of motivation, and the impact that distinction has on the quality of learning experiences. This theory argues that the ways individuals understand and describe their own purposes for engaging in a behavior is important. According to this view, people vary in the extent to which they engage in behaviors for autonomous or for controlled reasons. The distinction between autonomous forms of motivation and controlled forms of motivation is critical as they result in differential affective and behavioral outcomes. Specifically, when an individuals' motivation is autonomous, the activity is freely chosen; autonomous motivation is predicted to result in more adaptive behavior and positive affect. On the other hand, when an individuals' motivation is controlled, individuals engage in behaviors because of external or intrapsychic prods and social pressures. From the point of view of self-determination theory, autonomy-supportive environments become, therefore, a key element to promoting motivation in students.

Numerous studies in the educational literature have supported Deci and Ryan's (1987) contention, indicating that autonomous regulatory styles are associated with more positive experiential and performance outcomes. Specifically, these studies show that when students are autonomous, they display greater creativity, more cognitive flexibility and depth of processing, higher levels of well being, increased school attendance, and retention.

Self-determination theory supports the idea that people can learn optimally not just when motivated intrinsically, but also when motivated extrinsically. (Deci, E., Vallerand, R., Pelletier, L., & Ryan, [1991], cited in Muir, 2001). This theory accepts underachieving students as students who are capable of learning, and that they need to achieve their potentials.

CHAPTER 3
METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

In recent years, there has been considerable discussion about the importance of motivation in learning. As a result of these discussions, scholars reached a consensus that motivation is a highly complex phenomenon. This being the case, it has been impossible for theorists to identify a single definition of what motivation is. In this respect, many theories have emerged to bring a clarity to the filed of motivation. Roughly speaking, these theories identify motivation as the arousal and maintenance of curiosity and that it can ebb and flow as a result of such factors as learners' particular interests and extent to which they feel personally involved in learning activities. These theories also conform that motivation can be explored under two branches as 'intrinsic' and 'extrinsic' motivation.

The Self-Determination Theory (SDT) is one of the most influential theories in the filed of motivation and it is based on the relationship between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. According to this theory, there are different types of motivations, which vary according to how much a learner engages in an activity for reasons of personal choice. These types can be defined as in the following:

Intrinsic motivation is the most self-determined form of motivation. A person who is motivated intrinsically learns because of the inherent pleasure in doing so. These feelings of enjoyment are hypothesized to stem from the fact that the engagement is voluntary (i.e., not imposed on the learner by some outside/external source) and because the activity challenges the learner's abilities, fostering a sense of competence. Due to these feelings of autonomy and competence, intrinsically motivated students are expected to maintain their effort and engagement in the learning process, even when no external rewards are provided.

There are differing forms of extrinsic motivation, which are classified as in the following:

1. The first is external regulation, where a student learns because of some pressure or reward that comes from the environment. In other words, student behaviors are controlled through external actions or rewards. Once that pressure or reward is removed, the learner might be expected to stop putting effort into learning. Externally regulated behaviors are least self-determined (autonomous).

2. Introjected regulation concerns behavior, which has been partially internalized, but not accepted by pupils as coming from within themselves. These reasons for learning are reasons such as guilt or shame. As with external regulation, once the pressure is lifted, engagement in the activity is likely to fall off.

3. Identified regulation is the most self-determined type of extrinsic motivation. In this case, students learn because they personally decided to do so, and also because the activity has value for their chosen goals. As long as that goal is important, learners can be expected to persist in learning. Identified regulation leads to behaviors, which are performed for instrumental reasons but these reasons are internally regulated and self-determined (autonomous).

SDT adds to the discussion of extrinsic motivation the distinction between self-determined (autonomous) and controlled types of motivation, and the impact that distinction has on the quality of learning experiences. Identified and intrinsic motivations are categorized as "autonomous" motivations, whereas external and introjected regulations are categorized as "controlled".

This theory argues that the ways individuals understand and describe their own purposes for engaging in a behavior is important. According to this view, people vary in the extent to which they engage in behaviors for autonomous or for controlled reasons. The distinction between autonomous forms of motivation and controlled forms of motivation is critical as they result in differential affective and behavioral outcomes. Specifically, when an individuals' motivation is autonomous, the activity is freely chosen; autonomous motivation is predicted to result in more adaptive behavior and positive affect. On the other hand, when an individuals' motivation is controlled, individuals engage in behaviors because of external prods and social pressures. From

the point of view of self-determination theory, autonomy-supportive environments become, therefore, a key element to promoting motivation in students.

Despite the fact that the importance of learner autonomy have been realized, there has been less research on Self-Determination per se. To date, relatively little attention has been directed towards understanding issues of learner autonomy. Thus, this has been the starting point of this study, aiming to further explore the Self-Determination theory, to confirm the generalizability of its framework at an elementary level.

The Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) supports the idea that people can learn optimally not just when motivated intrinsically, but also when motivated extrinsically. This fact again distinguishes this from other theories in this field, since it brings about opposition to many theories, which emphasize the importance of intrinsic motivation for optimal learning. However, there is a lack of investigation on this perspective, and the purpose of this study is to consider the relations between the constituents of controlled and autonomous motivations and to determine which type of regulation is dominant over pupils at elementary level.

In summary, the present study aims at replicating studies· in the field of education to identify which type of motivation, autonomous or controlled, is more dominant in children at late elementary level, while considering the interrelations between the constituents of controlled and autonomous motivations.

For this reason, I chose analytic statistics as the most appropriate design to initiate research questions and to reach conclusions on the path of evaluating the purpose mentioned. The data necessary for the study have been elicited by asking the subjects to answer a written questionnaire, SRQ-Academic, which was developed for students in late elementary. (SRQ-Academic concerns the reasons why children do their schoolwork.)

3.2 Respondents

The respondents were a total of 53 students, representing 63 % of the population, studying at late elementary level of 'Near East Junior College'. They were randomly chosen at an age varying between 10-11. Their gender was not taken into consideration since there would not be a behavioral difference at this age range. The students participating in the research study were asked to sign a written consent form allowing me to use the data they would provide, while keeping their identity confidential.

3.3 Taxonomy

The significance of motivation in learning is widely accepted and most researchers agree that motivation plays a vital role in the learner's achievement. Even though its importance is widely recognized, its meaning is elusive. Generally speaking, motivation can be defined as the reasons why humans behave as they do. Motivational psychology is influenced by the Self-Determination theory introduced by Deci & Ryan (1985). This theory is an elaboration on the traditional paradigm, which distinguishes between intrinsic vs. extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is the performance of a task for its own sake. It values rewards gained through the process of task completion, regardless of any external rewards. In contrast, when the task is performed as simply a means to an end, the person is extrinsically motivated: Extrinsic motivation involves the pursuit of some reward external to the completion of the task, such as a pay raise or good grades. Extrinsic motivation is believed to be something that can undermine intrinsic motivation; individuals will often lose their intrinsic interest in a task if the task is seen as a means to an end.

In this study, the Academic Self-Regulation Questionnaire (SRQ-Academic) has been used, which is based upon the Self-Determination theory. The taxonomy involved is as the following:

a) **External regulation** refers to the least internalized form of extrinsic motivation. The task is regulated and initiated by entirely external sources. Here, someone

else provides the motivating reward/punishment. e.g. "My parents would be upset if I didn't get good grades."

b) **Introjected regulation** refers to rules or norms that a person accepts and follows in order to avoid negative consequences, such as feelings of guilt. e.g. "That's what I'm supposed to do."

c) **Identified regulation** involves the engagement in a behavior because the person values or identifies with it and sees its usefulness. Pupils accept the behavior as personally important or valuable. e.g. "I feel good about myself when I get good grades."

d) **Intrinsic Motivation** involves performing the task for the sake of enjoyment and pleasure in learning. e.g. "I learn because I enjoy learning."

Self-determination theory makes another distinction to the behaviors of individuals, according to how much a learner engages in an activity for reasons of personal choice. Intrinsic and identified regulations are the constituents of 'autonomous' motivation, whereas external and identified regulations are the constituents of 'controlled' motivation.

Intrinsic motivation is the prototype of autonomous activity; when people are intrinsically motivated, they are by definition self-determined. Extrinsically motivated activity, in contrast, is often more controlled (i.e., less autonomous).

In short, individuals driven by intrinsic rewards (e.g., personal satisfaction) will act more autonomously, whereas individuals driven by extrinsic rewards (e.g., others approval, guilt) will act in a way that is more controlled by outside forces (rules, regulations, obligations).

The SDT places external motivations on a continuum based on the degree to which the person has internalized the motive and this is represented in the following figure:

	Extrinsic Motivation		
Intrinsic Motivation	Identified Regulation	Introjected Regulation	External Regulation

High   ↓   ↓   ↓   ↓   Low

←——————————————————————→

Level of Internalization

(Identified and Intrinsic regulations are Autonomous behaviors, whereas Introjected and External regulations are controlled.)

Fig. 3.1. Model of the Relationships Between the Subcomponents of Motivational Orientation

3.4 Questionnaire

In this study, SRQ-Academic was used to assess domain-specific individual differences in the types of motivation. SRQ-Academic was developed for late-elementary children, and concern schoolwork. The questionnaire asks four questions about why students do various school related behaviors. Each item is followed by several responses that represent the 4 regulatory styles used in this scale. (The four regulatory styles, which are also referred as the four sub-scales are: External regulation, Introjected regulation, Identified regulation, and Intrinsic motivation.) The responses to each item are on a 4-point scale, which are a) very true, b) sort of true, c) not very true, and d) not at all true.

The format for this questionnaire was introduced by Ryan and Connell and the validation of it is described in the Ryan and Connell (1989) article. (Ryan and Connell, [1989], cited in SDT, 2001).

3.5 Procedure

The respondents were given an equivalent translation of the questionnaire in their native language. The validity of the translation of SRQ-Academic has been approved by the group of specialists in this field, conducted by Asst. Prof. Dr. Cem Birol, senior lecturer at the Psychology Department in Near East University.

The study was conducted during regular class hours of the 'Near East Junior College'. The students were informed of the voluntary and the confidential nature of the study, and thus they were asked to complete a consent form. Then, they were asked to answer the questionnaire at their own pace. The children rated the extent to which the proposed reason applied to them right on the questionnaire by circling the correct response.

The responses they gave have been scored as in the following:

First, the four subscales were calculated, for each student, by averaging the items (questions) associated with the four sub-scales:

External Regulation: 2, 6, 9, 14, 20, 24, 25, 28, 32

Introjected Regulation: 1, 4, 10, 12, 17, 18, 26, 29, 31

Identified Regulation: 5, 8, 11, 16, 21, 23, 30

Intrinsic Motivation: 3, 7, 13, 15, 19, 22, 27

Very True is scored 4; Sort of True is scored 3; Not Very True is scored 2; and Not at All True is scored 1.

Second, the two 'super' categories of the behavioral regulations, which were 'Controlled and 'Autonomous' regulations were averaged: Controlled regulation was calculated by averaging the External and Introjected subscales, and Autonomous regulation was calculated by averaging Identified and Intrinsic subscales.

Then I evaluated the data collected in the Microsoft Excel program, through paired (two-tailed) T-Test.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Results

The SRQ-Academic included 32 items, which assessed four sub-scales: three types of extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation. These were as following:

1. 9 items assessed external regulation
2. 9 items assessed introjected regulation
3. 7 items assessed identified regulation and
4. 7 items assessed intrinsic motivation.

The respondents rated the extent to which the proposed reason applied to them by using a four-point scale varying from "very true" to "not at all true". Thus, a high mean score, which would be a maximum score of 4, indicated a high degree of correspondence between the proposed reason and the student's reason for learning.

The collected data was analyzed, by examining the variations in the means for the different types of regulations, which resulted as in the following:

1. Perceptions of External Regulation:
A high mean score in this regulation indicated the highest level of extrinsic motivation-- participating in educational tasks due to an external origin, such as the teacher. External regulation is the least beneficial for students and results in the lowest level of learning.

In this study, the obtained mean score for External Regulation in all 53 respondents was 2.6±0.5.

2. Perceptions of Introjected Regulation:
A high mean score in this regulation indicated the second highest level of extrinsic motivation. In contrast to external regulation, the external sources of motivation have become more internalized. That is, students are involved in introjected regulation when

they follow teachers' rules or do their homework in order to avoid negative consequences, such as guilt and embarrassment.

As a result of the calculations, the mean score for Introjected Regulation in all 53 respondents was 2.6±0.6.

3. Perceptions of Identified Regulation:

A high mean score in this regulation represented the most self-determined type of extrinsic motivation. In this case, students learn because they personally decided to do so, and also because the activity has value for their chosen goals. As long as that goal is important, learners can be expected to persist in learning. It is still performed for instrumental reasons (e.g. to achieve personal goals) but is internally regulated and self-determined. In other words, regulation is personally important but contingent upon reward.

In this study, the obtained mean score for Identified Regulation in all 53 respondents was 3.4±0.4.

4. Perceptions of Intrinsic Motivation:

A high mean score in this regulation represented the most self-determined form of motivation. Intrinsically motivated activities are ones for which there is no apparent reward except the activity itself, and the activity challenges the learner's abilities, fostering a sense of competence. Due to these feelings of autonomy and competence, intrinsically motivated students are expected to maintain their effort and engagement in the learning process, even when no external rewards are provided.

As a result of the calculations, the mean score for Intrinsic Motivation for 53 respondents was 2.8±0.6.

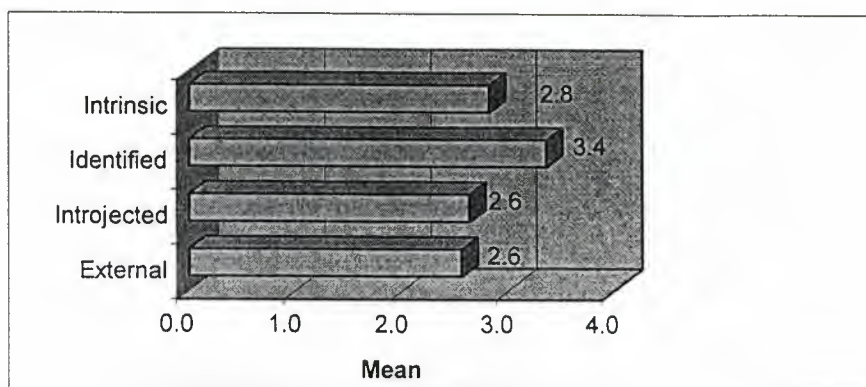The results of all four scales are represented in the following figure:

Fig. 4.1. The variations in the mean scores of the Four Regulatory Styles

The above results indicate that, at the age range 10-11, external and introjected regulations are endorsed equally strong, whereas intrinsic motivation is slightly stronger than external and introjected regulations. It is clearly seen that identified regulation is the strongest regulation in all four. Thus, it is easy to conclude that, of all the regulatory styles, identified regulation is endorsed significantly stronger.

Variations in the means for the different types of regulations were examined, using repeated measures through paired (two-tailed) T-Test. The obtained results are represented in the following table:

Table 4.1

Statistical Evaluation of the T-Test results of the Constituents of Controlled and Autonomous Motivations

	External	Introjected	Identified	Intrinsic
External	2.6 ± 0.5	$p > 0.05$	$p < 0.05$	$p < 0.05$
Introjected	$p > 0.05$	2.6 ± 0.6	$p < 0.05$	$p > 0.05$
Identified	$p < 0.05$	$p < 0.05$	3.4 ± 0.4	$p < 0.05$
Intrinsic	$p < 0.05$	$p > 0.05$	$p < 0.05$	2.8 ± 0.6

As can be seen from the above table, statistically different results are represented as $p < 0.05$. The results indicate that identified regulation shows statistically significant

differences from external, introjected and intrinsic motivations. The findings implicate that children at the age of 10-11 learn because they have internalized the importance of learning, because they choose to learn, and they have particular goals. (Refer to Appendix F, for the original p values calculated as a result of T-Test.)

According to the table, there is also a statistically significant difference between external and intrinsic motivation. This is expected since the Self-Determination theory places these on a continuum, where external regulation is at one end; as the least internalized reasons for learning, and intrinsic motivation at the other end; as the most internalized reasons for learning. (Fig.3.1.)

As stated before, self-determination theory adds to the discussion the distinction between self-determined (autonomous) and controlled types of motivation, and the impact that distinction has on the quality of learning experiences. This theory argues that the ways individuals understand and describe their own purposes for engaging in a behavior is important. According to this view, people vary in the extent to which they engage in behaviors for autonomous or for controlled reasons. The distinction between autonomous forms of motivation and controlled forms of motivation is critical as they result in differential affective and behavioral outcomes. Specifically, when an individuals' motivation is autonomous, the activity is freely chosen; autonomous motivation is predicted to result in more positive affect. On the other hand, when an individuals' motivation is controlled, individuals engage in behaviors because of external pressures.

From this point of view, controlled and autonomous motivations of the respondents were calculated: the averages of external and introjected regulations represented the 'Controlled', and the averages of identified and intrinsic represented 'Autonomous' types of motivations. These are represented in the following figure.
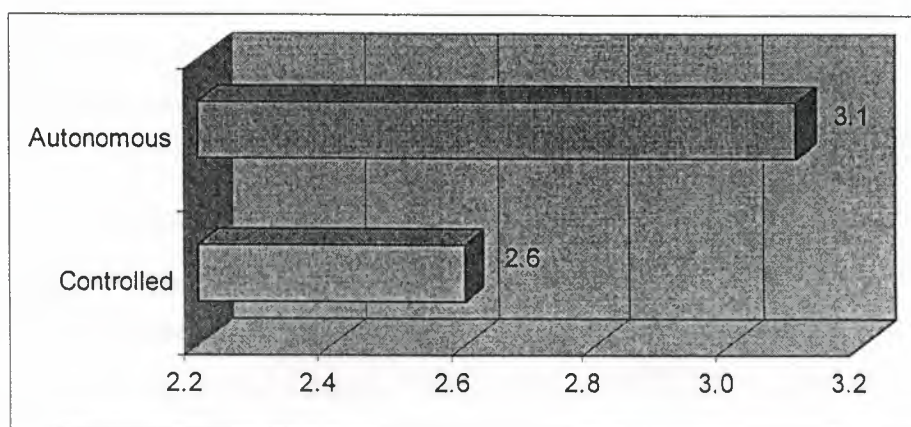
Fig. 4.2. Mean Scores of Autonomous and Controlled Motivations

The above results shed light that autonomous reasons for learning are dominant over controlled reasons for learning in pupils at late elementary. Considering the constituents of autonomous motivation, the findings of the study indicate that there is a noteworthy difference between identified and intrinsic regulations: identified regulation dominates over intrinsic motivation, meaning pupils are learning because they have internalized the importance of learning to reach the goals they desire.

Finally, the interrelations of autonomous and controlled motivations were considered and these calculations did not reveal any correlation among the four regulatory styles. ($r < 0.5$).

4.2 Discussion

Extrinsic motivation refers to the performance of an activity in order to attain some separable outcome and it contrasts with intrinsic motivation, which refers to doing an activity for the inherent satisfaction of the activity itself.

Despite the fact that many motivational perspectives favor intrinsic motivation for learning, Self-Determination Theory (SDT) supports the idea that people can learn optimally not just when motivated intrinsically, but also when motivated extrinsically. This is important to recognize because often any motivation that emanates from within the individual is labeled as intrinsic, and is therefore considered to be motivationally a

good thing. From the SDT perspective, this is not the case. An internalized extrinsic motivation is considered to be as efficient as intrinsic motivation. Thus, the boundary between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is not so sharp.
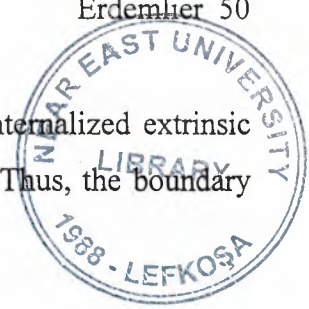
Besides intrinsic regulation, SDT puts forward external, introjected, and identified regulations, which are all differing forms of extrinsic motivation, in the sense that they are concerned with the outcomes or consequences of engaging in a behavior. Ryan and Connell (Ryan and Connell, [1989], cited in SDT, 2001) tested these different types of motivation and placed them along a continuum. (fig. 2.4) Furthermore, differences in the type of extrinsic motivation were associated with different experiences and outcomes. For example, the more students were externally regulated the less they showed interest, value, and effort toward achievement and the more they tended to disown responsibility for negative outcomes, blaming others such as the teacher. Introjected regulation was positively related to expending more effort, but it was also related to feeling more anxiety and coping more poorly with failures. In contrast, identified regulation was associated with more interest and enjoyment of school and with more positive coping styles, as well as with expending more effort.

Ryan and Connell (Ryan and Connell, [1989], cited in SDT, 2001) brought another new distinction to the field of motivation by proposing 'controlled' and 'autonomous' behaviors due to individuals' internalization of the behavior: According to this view, people vary in the extent to which they engage in behaviors for autonomous or for controlled reasons. As people internalize regulations, they experience greater autonomy, leading to better outcomes. Therefore, the distinction between autonomous forms of motivation and controlled forms of motivation is critical as they result in differential affective and behavioral outcomes. Specifically, when an individuals' motivation is autonomous, the activity is freely chosen; autonomous motivation is predicted to result in more positive affect. On the other hand, when an individuals' motivation is controlled, individuals engage in behaviors because of external pressures.

Other studies in education extended the above, showing that more autonomous extrinsic motivation, such as identified regulation, was associated with more

engagement, better performance, lower dropout, higher quality learning, and better teacher ratings, among other outcomes. The studies on motivation in the educational literature indicate that autonomous regulatory styles are associated with more positive performance outcomes, and they show that when students are autonomous, they display greater creativity, more cognitive flexibility, higher levels of well-being and increased school attendance. (It is beyond the scope of this study to give examples to the mentioned studies above.)

The findings of this particular study contribute to the field of motivation, indicating that identified regulation shows statistical significant difference from the other regulatory styles, i.e. external, introjected and intrinsic motivations, used within the SRQ that is prepared specially for the pupils at late elementary level. From the SDT perspective we can interpret this result as following: Pupils with identified regulation reflect a conscious valuing of a behavioral goal or regulation, such that the action is accepted or owned as personally important. In other words, pupils at late elementary level have internalized the importance of learning and they desire to reach their goals.

The purpose of this study was to identify which type of motivation, autonomous or controlled, is dominant at late elementary. From the point of view, the obtained mean scores of autonomous and controlled motivations clearly indicate that autonomous motivation is dominant in pupils at the age of 10-11. Within the constituents of autonomous motivation there is a noteworthy difference between identified and intrinsic regulations: identified regulation dominates over intrinsic motivation. Thus, we can easily say that, identified regulation is dominant in the chosen study group.

In the realm of education, previous SDT research confirm that the dominance of identified regulation reflects higher levels of autonomous behavior, which is associated with more interest and enjoyment of school, leading students to expend more effort in the desired activities. A further point should be made that the results of this study avow statistical significant difference between intrinsic and external regulation, which support the studies carried out by Ryan and Connell (1989), placing external and intrinsic regulations on a continuum at opposite poles to one another.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions can be drawn on the data reported in this research work:

1) The findings of this study indicate that pupils at the ages 10-11 have internalized reasons for learning since identified regulation turned out to be the strongest regulation within the four regulations used by the SRQ.

2) Autonomous school behaviors are dominant over controlled behaviors since the calculations of this study show a mean score of 3.1 for autonomous behavior and 2.6 for controlled.

3) The calculations did not reveal any correlation between the constituents of controlled and autonomous motivations.

4) Due to findings of this study, identified regulation has shown statistical significant difference from external, introjected and intrinsic regulations. In addition, statistical significant difference between intrinsic and external regulation has been found.

5.1 Summary

Self-Determination Theory (SDT) is a theory of human motivation that focuses on the degree to which human behaviors are volitional/self-determined. That is, the degree to which people endorse their actions at the highest level of reflection and engage in the actions with a full sense of choice. SDT places different types of motivations on a continuum according to the degree behaviors are internalized.

As Deci and Ryan (1985) put it:

"Internalization is the process by which people take on board the regulation of their behavior so that it emanates from the self rather than from external forces. The theory proposes that the various forms of regulation lie along a continuum ranging

from completely non-self-determined to completely self-determined regulation. Thus self-determination is not seen as an all-or-nothing phenomenon; it is more a question of how self-determined a person is. These varying levels of self-determination correspond to qualitatively different forms of behavioral regulation, which are labeled as: external regulation, introjection, identification, and finally intrinsic regulation.

1. Intrinsic Regulation (intrinsic motivation)- "The inherent tendency to seek out novelty and challenges, to extend and exercise one's capacities, top explore, and to learn"

2. External Regulation- "Such behaviors are performed to satisfy an external demand or reward contingency." (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

3. Introjected Regulation- "Introjection involves taking in a regulation but not fully accepting it as one's own. It is a relatively controlled form of regulation in which behaviors are performed to avoid guilt or anxiety or attain ego enhancement such as pride." (Deci & Ryan, 2000). (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

4. Identified Regulation- "Identification reflects a conscious valuing of a behavioral goal or regulation, such that the action is accepted or owned as personally important. Identification involves a conscious acceptance of the behavior as being important in order to achieve personally valued outcomes. The importance of the outcome provides a strong incentive that overrides any difficulties or obstacles to the behavior." (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

According to SDT, people can be motivated because they value an activity or because there is strong external coercion. They can be urged into action by an abiding interest or by a bribe. In other words, people can behave from a sense of personal commitment to excel or behave due to the feeling of surveillance. These contrasts between cases of having internal motivations versus being externally pressured are categorized under two headings as 'Autonomous' and 'Controlled' motivations. The constituents of autonomous motivation are identified and intrinsic regulations, whereas the constituents of controlled motivation are external and introjected regulations.

The present study contributes to a growing body of research on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in learning by considering the self-determination theory through self-regulation questionnaire--academic (SRQ-Academic). The SRQ was developed to assess the different types of regulations, regarding school related behavior. These regulations are the regulations mentioned above: external, introjected, identified and intrinsic regulations.

The purpose of this study aimed at replicating studies in the field of education to identify which type of motivation, autonomous or controlled, is more dominant in children at late elementary level, while considering the relations between the constituents of controlled and autonomous motivations. In this respect, the different regulations of the study group were calculated with the SRQ scale, and the data was further investigated through paired (two-tailed) T-Test.

The findings of these calculations indicated that autonomous motivations dominate over controlled motivations. In other words, students at the age of 10-11 are autonomous, and are self-determinedly motivated to learn. Considering the relations between the regulatory styles, the study provides further information that among the four regulations, identified regulation showed statistical significant difference. The data clearly shows that, within the constituents of autonomous motivation, identified regulation is more powerful. In addition to these, a statistical significant difference between external and intrinsic motivation has also been found. This confirms the studies carried out by Deci and Ryan (1985), where external regulation and intrinsic regulation are placed at opposite ends of the continuum of behavioral internalization.

5.2 Pedagogical and Theoretical Implications for Further Research

The present study contributes to the field of education, identifying which type of motivation is common with children at late elementary. The results of the study shed light that students at the age of 10 and 11 have autonomous motivations for learning. Specifically, when an individuals' motivation is autonomous, the activity is freely chosen; autonomous motivation is predicted to result in more adaptive behavior and

positive affect. On the other hand, when an individuals' motivation is controlled, individuals engage in behaviors because of external pressures. Therefore, identifying autonomy-supportive environments can expand the findings of this research.

The study took into consideration age groups of 10 and 11. Further research could be carried out to identify motivations of students at a wider age group. This would mean, taking into account the gender differences since there is behavioral difference after a certain age range-girls are considered to show behavioral difference at a younger age than boys (approximately 12-13), since they start to mature before boys do.

Most researchers and educators would agree that motivation "is a very important, if not *the* most important factor in language learning". In other words, motivation has been widely accepted, by teachers and researchers, as one of the key factors influencing the rate and success of second/foreign language (L2) learning. This study assessed the motivational behaviors related to general learning. Further research could be carried out to relate the findings of the study to the students' success in language learning.

The results of the present study triggers new questions, which need to be clarified providing implications for further research:

1. Why are the constituents of controlled motivations endorsed equally strong?
2. What is the reason(s) that identified regulation is stronger than intrinsic regulation?
3. What can teachers do to promote or keep the students' autonomous regulation persist?

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Appendix A

<u>Informed Consent Form</u>

I agree to participate in a research study about the specific individual differences in the types of motivation of students. I am aware of the purpose of this study and there is no risk involved in my participation. I understand that I may withdraw from the study at any time.

I give my consent to be interviewed and to be given tests as a part of this study. I give permission for all my information to be used in a research report. It has also been made clear by the researcher that my name will not be used in the reports and my identity will not be disclosed in any way.

Name: (print)……………………………….

Signature:………………………………..

Date:……………………………………

Appendix B

The SRQ-Academic Questionnaire (standard version)

WHY I DO THINGS

Name: ……………………………………… Age: ………………………….

Grade:………………………………………. Teacher: ………………………

A. Why do I do my homework?

1. Because I want the teacher to think I'm a good student.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

2. Because I'll get in trouble if I don't.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

3. Because it's fun.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

4. Because I will feel bad about myself if I don't do it.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

5. Because I want to understand the subject.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

6. Because that's what I'm supposed to do.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

7. Because I enjoy doing my homework.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

8. Because it's important to me to do my homework.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

B. Why do I work on my class-work?

9. So that the teacher won't yell at me.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

10.   Because I want the teacher to think I'm a good student.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

11.   Because I want to learn new things.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

12.   Because I'll be ashamed of myself if it didn't get done.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

13.   Because it's fun.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

14.   Because that's the rule.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

15.   Because I enjoy doing my class-work.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

16.   Because it's important to me to work on my class-work.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

C. Why do I try to answer hard questions in class?

17.   Because I want the other students to think I'm smart.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

18.   Because I feel ashamed of myself when I don't try.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

19.   Because I enjoy answering hard questions.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

20.   Because that's what I'm supposed to do.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

21. To find out if I'm right or wrong.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

22. Because it's fun to answer hard questions.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

23. Because it's important to me to try to answer hard questions in class.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

24. Because I want the teacher to say nice things about me.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

D. Why do I try to do well in school?

25. Because that's what I'm supposed to do.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

26. So my teachers will think I'm a good student

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

27. Because I enjoy doing my school work well.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

28. Because I will get in trouble if I don't do well.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

29. Because I'll feel really bad about myself if I don't do well.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

30. Because it's important to me to try to do well in school.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

31. Because I will feel really proud of myself if I do well.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

32. Because I might get a reward if I do well.

Very true   Sort of true   Not very true   Not at all true

Appendix C

Turkish Validation

This study used the Turkish translation of Academic Self-Regulation Questionnaire (SRQ-Academic), which assessed specific individual differences in the types of motivation of students at late elementary. The SRQ-Academic was developed to assess the reasons why children do their schoolwork. The validation of the original SRQ-Academic is presented in Ryan and Connell (1989). The validation of the Turkish translation of the questionnaire has been studied and approved by Asst. Prof. Dr. Cem Birol, senior lecturer at the Psychology Department in Near East University.

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Asst. Prof. Dr. Cem Birol

Appendix D

İzin Bildiri Formu

'Motivasyon Tipolojilerinde Kişisel Farklılıklar' konusunda yapılan araştırmaya bizzat katılmayı kabul ediyorum. Bu araştırmanın amacını biliyor, araştırmaya katılmamın herhangi bir risk taşımadığının bilincinde olduğumu beyan ediyorum. Bununla beraber bu araştırmadan istediğim takdirde geri çekilme hakkına sahip olduğum bana açıkça belirtilmiştir.

Araştırma doğrultusunda bana sözlü veya yazılı sorular yönlendirilmesine ve sonuç raporunda benimle ilgili bilgilerin kullanılmasına izin veriyorum. Araştırma sonucunda kimliğimle ilgili bilgilerin saklı kalacağı araştırmacı tarafından teyid edilmiştir.

İsim:...

İmza:...

Tarih:...

Appendix E

SRQ Anketi

İsim:...............................   Yaş:....................

Sınıf:...............................   Öğretmen:...............

A. Ödevlerimi neden yapıyorum?

1. Öğretmenim benim iyi bir öğrenci olduğumu düşünsün diye.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

2. Yapmadığım zaman başım derde girdiği için.   :

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

3. Eğlenceli olduğu için.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

4. Yapmadığım zaman kendimi kötü hissettiğim için.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

5. Dersimi anlamak istediğim için.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

6. Yapmam gerektiği için.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

7. Ödev yapmayı sevdiğim için.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

8. Ödev yapmayı önemsediğim için.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

B. Neden sınıftaki dersi dinleyip, derse katılıyorum?

9. Öğretmenim bana kızmasın diye.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

10. Öğretmenim benim iyi bir öğrenci olduğumu düşünsün diye.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

11. Yeni şeyler öğrenmek için.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

12. Derse katılmadığım zaman kendimden utanacağım için.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

13. Eğlenceli olduğu için.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

14. Sınıf kurallarına uymak için.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

15. Derse katılmayı sevdiğim için.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

16. Derse katılmanın önemli olduğunu düşündüğüm için.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

C. Sınıfta zor soruları neden cevaplamaya çalışıyorum?

17. Sınıf arkadaşlarım benim zeki olduğumu düşünmeleri için.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

18. Yeterince denemediğim zaman bundan rahatsız olduğum için.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

19. Zor soruları cevaplamaktan hoşlandığım için.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

20. Zor soruları cevaplamam gerektiği için.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

21. Bulduğum cevabın doğru veya yanlış olduğunu öğrenebilmek için.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

22. Zor soruları cevaplamak eğlenceli olduğu için.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

23. Zor soruları cevaplamak önemli olduğu için.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

24. Öğretmenimin benim hakkımda güzel şeyler söylemesini istediğim için.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

D. Neden okulda başarılı olmaya çalışıyorum?

25. Yapmam gereken bu olduğu için.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

26. Tüm öğretmenlerimin benim iyi bir öğrenci olduğumu düşünmeleri için.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

27. Derslerimde başarılı olmayı sevdiğim için.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

28. Başarısız olduğum zaman başım derde girdiği için.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

29. Başarısız olduğum zaman kendimi çok kötü hissettiğim için.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

30. Çaba gösterip, başarılı olmak önemli olduğu için.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

31. Başarılı olduğumda kendimle gurur duyacağım için.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

32. Başarılı olduğumda ödül alabileceğim için.

Çok doğru   Doğru sayılır   Pek doğru değil   Hiç doğru değil

Appendix F

The Calculations Related to the Study

The following table shows the results of the SRQ-Academic questionnaire.

No. of Sts	External	Introjected	Identified	Intrinsic	Controlled	Autonomous
1	3.3	3.7	3.7	3.3	3.5	3.5
2	1.8	1.7	2	1.6	1.8	1.8
3	2.7	2.7	3.9	2.7	2.7	3.3
4	2.1	2.3	3.1	2.9	2.2	3
5	2.4	2.7	3.6	2.3	2.6	3
6	2	2.1	3.1	2.7	2	2.9
7	2.6	3.1	3.4	3.3	2.9	3.4
8	2.8	2.6	3.7	2.7	2.7	3.2
9	1.7	2.2	3.3	3	2	3.2
10	2.6	2.3	3.4	3.4	2.5	3.4
11	3.1	3.3	3.1	2.6	3.2	2.9
12	2.2	1.9	3	2	2	2.5
13	2.6	3.4	3.7	3.3	3	3.5
14	2.2	2.2	2.4	2.1	2.2	2.3
15	2.1	2.4	3.3	2.3	2.3	2.8
16	2.3	3	3.7	3.3	2.7	3.5
17	3	3.1	4	3.7	3	3.9
18	2.3	2.2	3.6	2.6	2.3	3.1
19	2.6	2.6	3.6	3.3	2.6	3.5
20	2.1	3.3	3.7	2.9	2.7	3.3
21	2.2	2.4	3.6	3.6	2.3	3.6
22	2.9	2.9	3.6	2.9	2.9	3.3
23	2.1	2.7	3.6	3.3	2.4	3.5
24	2.3	2.6	3.4	3.1	2.5	3.3
25	2.6	2.6	3.4	3.6	2.6	3.5
26	3.1	1.9	3.6	3.1	2.5	3.4
27	2	1.4	3.4	2.4	1.7	2.9
28	2.7	2.9	3.3	3.1	2.8	3.2
29	1.8	2.7	2.9	3.6	2.3	3.3
30	2.3	2.3	2.4	1.4	2.3	1.9
31	2.6	2	3.4	3	2.3	3.2
32	3.6	3.3	3.9	3.4	3.5	3.7
33	3.1	2.7	3.4	3.6	2.9	3.5
34	1.9	1.4	3	1.1	1.7	2.1
35	1.7	2.1	2.7	2.1	1.9	2.4
36	2.6	2.9	3.6	3.3	2.8	3.5
37	3.4	3.3	3.6	2.3	3.4	3.0
38	3.2	3	3.7	3.4	3.1	3.6
39	3.2	3.3	3	2.1	3.3	2.6
40	2.7	2.3	4	3.6	2.5	3.8
41	3.1	2.6	3.1	2.3	2.9	2.7
42	2.7	3.2	3.6	3	3.0	3.3
43	3.1	2.8	3.7	2.9	3.0	3.3
44	1.9	2.1	3.7	3.1	2.0	3.4

45	3.4	3.2	3.1	3.1	3.3	3.1
46	2.7	3.9	3.9	3.1	3.3	3.5
47	2.6	2.8	2.7	1.6	2.7	2.2
48	2	1.7	2.4	2.4	1.9	2.4
49	2.4	2.1	3.7	2.3	2.3	3.0
50	2.2	2.4	3.3	2.4	2.3	2.9
51	2.8	2.8	3.4	2.1	2.8	2.8
52	3.1	3	3.7	3.4	3.1	3.6
53	2.9	3.3	3.1	3.6	3.1	3.4
Mean	2.6	2.6	3.4	2.8	2.6	3.1
STDV	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.5

The following table provides the real p values of the paired T-Test results.

External vs Introjted	0.4617		Introjected vs External	0.5		Identified vs External	0.0000
External vs Identified	0.0000		Introjected vs Identified	0.0000		Identified vs Introjected	0.0000
External vs Intrinsic	0.0186		Introjected vs Intrinsic	0.1103		Identified vs Intrinsic	0.0000

Appendix G

Suggestions

Our challenge in academia is to create educational conditions, which promote motivation and thus, students consistently choose and expend great energy on behaviors that leads to academic success. This paper focused on the motivation of young learners, therefore, in this part of the study, I have provided practical ideas, which suggest what to do to motivate young learners. These ideas are cited in CUP, 2002 and they are as the following:
<http://www.uk.cambridge.org/elt/primarycolours/resources/az/motivation.html>

1. Try to ensure that the children have a clear idea of how much they have learned and provide a feeling that they are making progress. For example, look back on things you have done with them, not to revise them, but to show how much they have learnt.

2. Choose tasks that give the children more 'psychological space' to plan their own work, set their own pace and make their own decisions about what they do. For example, craft activities, group-work, pair-work and time to write, design and draw can all create a feeling of more personal control.

3. Include tasks that involve a personal response (personalization), value and appreciate that personal response. Give feedback by displaying the children's work, telling them how you have told someone else about their work, etc. Making posters or art designs, writing simple poems, making models, etc. can create feelings of pride in their work.

4. Involve the children in classroom decision-making. Many of the decisions that the teachers make can be shared with the children, without any risks to the

course as a whole: You might be able to share decisions about when homework is set, how long they will spend on a particular task, what they will do next lesson, who will do what and when, whether they are going to act out something, whether they are going to sing a song again, how you can decorate the classroom, and so on.

5. Find out what the children think. Find out if they think they need more practice, if they have suggestions of their own, if they find things easy or difficult, boring or interesting, and if they would like to do something again.

6. Think about how you give feedback. Even very young children quickly develop an image of themselves in the classroom and can usually identify who is the 'best' in the class, who is the 'weakest', etc. They do this by monitoring and comparing the feedback that the teacher gives to each child. This, of course, affects their view of themselves (self-esteem) and how capable they think they are. Make sure you give positive, encouraging feedback. It is very important, therefore, that we try to help the children develop a positive image of themselves as learners and create feelings of success, not failure.

7. Classroom climate is important. If students experience the classroom as a caring, supportive place where there is a sense of belonging and everyone is valued and respected, they will tend to participate more fully in the process of learning.

8. We usually try to help unmotivated students by giving rewards. However, extrinsic rewards should be used with caution, for they have the potential for decreasing existing intrinsic motivation. Research in this area, Deci and Ryan: 1985, shows that this can have the effect of devaluing the work that leads to the reward by making the child focus on external rewards rather than their own

feelings of success and satisfaction, thus decreasing intrinsic motivation. Also, rewards are only motivating if you sometimes get them. For those who don't get them, or who have very little prospect of getting one, a rewards system is anything but motivating. In games, for example, it is probably best to avoid giving points for correct answers. At such an early stage in learning, being 'punished' for not knowing something is not very encouraging. A points system can be used, however, when it is obvious that points are earned because of 'luck' such as spinning a spinner.

Young learners are easily distracted from what they are doing and they can't concentrate on a single task for as long as adults can. Children need to be challenged, need to feel that they are in control over what they are doing, and need to have fun at the same time so that they can develop motivation to participate in activities. Therefore, teachers should carefully plan their lessons, taking their learners into account. Whatever the age of learners, the secret of triggering motivation is planning lessons. Here we need to remember the old saying: 'If you fail to plan, you should plan for failure.'

The following are useful tips to assists teachers for planning lessons. These suggestions are cited in Longman, 2003.
<http://www.longman.com/pingu/teachers/resources_tipsfromthetop9.html>

- Share your plans with the children, tell them what they are going to do during each lesson

- Plan for the learners' activities, not for the teacher's activities: Activities should be student centered, thus promoting autonomous behaviors.

- Remember that children can't sit still being passive for more than two or three minutes, therefore keep your activities fairly short- for an average of 5 minutes for each activity. (Activities where children are actively involved can be longer than five minutes.)

- Be careful to sequence the activities so children do not become over-excited or excessively bored.

- Stirrers are activities that excite children: Any activities that involve singing or moving around the classroom will be stirrers.

- Settlers are activities that calm children down: Most 'paper and pencil' activities - writing, copying, coloring, and drawing - will be settlers.

- Don't imagine you can have a quiet classroom by using only settlers. The children will quickly become frustrated and de-motivated.

- Remember to balance head-up activities and head-down activities: Head-up activities are when children are looking at the teacher, the board or at other children. Head-down activities are when children have their eyes on a book or a piece of paper.

- Remember to balance individual, pair/small group and whole class activities. Children need to learn to operate in many different social situations.

- Finally, plan for time. Remember that in a large class, distributing papers, cards, colored pencils or books takes time. Think carefully about how you will organize these administrative things because they can turn a good plan into an unsuccessful lesson.