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Motivation in ELT Classrooms

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Zásady pro vypracování:

Diplomová práce bude věnována problematice motivace v procesech učení/ / vyučování anglického jazyka.

V teoretické části práce budou fenomén motivace vymezen a diskutován v rovině obecné (s přihlédnutím k různým teoretickým školám myšlení), dále pak specificky z pohledu procesů učení / vyučování anglického jazyka na 2. stupni základní školy.

Vlastní šetření bude zaměřeno na zjištění, jaké motivační strategie a techniky učitelé anglického jazyka v hodinách angličtiny využívají a s jakým úspěchem. Šetření bude realizováno pomocí kombinace výzkumných technik.

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Abstract

Since there are growing concerns regarding the lack of motivation in our schools, this diploma paper deals with the topic of motivation and motivational strategies. The first, theoretical part describes motivation from the theoretical level and thus creates a framework for designing the practical inquiry. It discusses various theoretical schools of thinking, introduces the term motivation and its types. Apart from this, the factors affecting the learners' motivation are included. The final chapter examines motivational strategies.

The second part investigates motivation from the practical viewpoint. It presents the findings of the research. The practical part is closely focused on which motivational strategies English language teachers employ in their lessons and with what success. The investigation combines three research instruments - observation, interview and questionnaire.

Key words: motivation, motivational strategies, English language, English language teaching

Souhrn

Vzhledem k tomu, že se v poslední době stále častěji objevují obavy z nedostatečné motivace žáků, zabývá se předložená práce tématem motivace a motivační strategie. Teoretická část práce obsahuje shrnutí některých teorií motivace, představuje definici motivace a její rozdělení. Následuje kapitola zabývající se faktory ovlivňujících žákovu motivaci. V závěru teoretické části jsou představeny motivační strategie.

Praktická část prezentuje výsledky výzkumu zaměřeného na zjištění, které motivační strategie používají učitelé druhého stupně základní školy ve svých hodinách a s jakým úspěchem. Formou výzkumu bylo zvoleno pozorování, rozhovor a dotazník pro učitele.

Klíčová slova: motivace, motivační strategie, anglický jazyk, vyučování anglického jazy

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INTRODUCTION

One of the most difficult problems teachers face today is the lack of interest and motivation of their pupils. Research has shown that schoolwork is considered to be the least rewarding activity among children. Motivation is one of the key factors influencing learner's success in foreign language learning. Therefore teachers need to try and motivate their pupils in order to turn them into successful language learners.

The aim of the presented thesis is to examine the topic of motivation and motivational strategies. I decided to explore this particular topic because I personally found pupils' motivation to be the biggest challenge during my clinical year experience. I realized that motivation is one of the main factors supporting effective learning and teaching. For that reason, I believe that exploring this topic more closely will improve upon my abilities as a teacher.

As far as the structure of this thesis is concerned, it is presented in two main parts: theoretical and practical. The first part explores motivation on the theoretical level and thus creates a framework for designing the practical inquiry. The initial chapter introduces various theories of motivation. The second chapter defines the term motivation from the point of view of different scholars. The following chapters are focused on the types of motivation and the factors affecting learners' motivation and the final chapter of theoretical part concentrates on the motivational strategies. The theoretical section serves as a background to the research.

The practical part is aimed at exploring motivational strategies employed by teachers of English with the focus on how frequently they actually make use of these strategies in their teaching practice. Additionally, an effort has been made to investigate the effectivness of the strategies. The investigation combines three research instruments - observation, interview and questionnaire.

I am aware of the fact that the data from small-scale research can hardly be generalized. However, I believe that the study might provide the reader with an insight into motivation and motivational strategies used in the language classrooms.

THEORETICAL PART

1 THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

My intention in the first chapter was to define the term motivation as the topic of this thesis is motivation in ELT. However it is not that easy to define it however simple and easy the word might appear. This term belongs to a group that theorists denote as hypothetical constructs. It is a very complex phenomenon and a broad concept. As Chambers (2001:2) points out, there is the multiplicity of interlinking factors which may contribute to the driving force of motivation. According to Chambers, we may be conscious of some of these factors but there may be others about which we are blissfully unaware. He adds that motivation is so multifaceted that it is almost impossible to articulate a definition which covers all facets satisfactorily and with any conciseness.

This multiplicity appears in different theories and so this chapter presents some of them in order to understand motivation better.

1.1 Instinct theory

"Freud maintained that human behaviour was motivated by a) instinct (Eros), the basis for sexual motivation, and b) the death instinct (Thanatos), which underlay aggression. Freud regarded these instincts as part of the individual's unconscious. William James took the functionalist view: an individual's instincts, such as fear, sociability, cleanliness and love, focused on the central instinct to survive."

(Chambers 2001: 2)

Instinct theory asserted that humans are motivated to engage in certain behaviors because of genetic programming. In the 1920s, it became apparent that instinct theory was inadequate in explaining all behaviors and situations and its popularity faded. The concept of instincts was replaced by that of drives.

1.2 Drive theory

According to drive theory, biological needs result from states of physical deprivation. Deprivation, in turn, produces a physiological drive, a state of tension that motivates a person to satisfy the need. Drive theory depends on the concept of

homeostasis, the tendency of the body to maintain itself in a steady, stable condition (Magoon and Garrison: 273).

Drive theory, in the same way as instinct theory, is not able to explain a number of behaviors. On the other hand, both of these theories are useful for understanding many types of behavior and motivation. Dörnyei (2001: 7) sees the potential of these unconscious motives although they do not feature strongly in current motivational thinking. As he states: "they play a significant role in our lives and therefore they are likely to be 'rediscovered' before long."

1.3 Behaviourism

"This focuses on stimulus-response associations and cause rather than need and reason for action. Skinner's experiments on rats led to the development of definitions for reinforcement (any operation that increases the rate of response), punishment (any operation which decreases the rate of response), shaping (the step by step procedure in training an animal by positive reinforcement of each phase of the desired behaviour) and schedules of reinforcement (i.e. only certain responses are reinforced)."

(Chambers 2001: 2)

Behavioral approach sees the motivation in terms of schedules of positive and negative reinforcement. Pupils make the desired connections between specific stimuli and the appropriate responses. For example, when a pupil is praised or receives good grades for correct answers, he/she is more likely to learn those answers effectively than one who receives little or no positive feedback for the same answers. Behaviorists see the source of motivation in the learners effort to reach the pleasant experience and consequently in their effort to avoid negative reinforcements such as poor grades or negative feedback.

1.4 Humanistic theory

This theory claims that people are driven to reach their maximum potential and will always tend to do so unless serious obstacles appear in their way. These barriers include hunger, thirst, financial problems or safety issues.

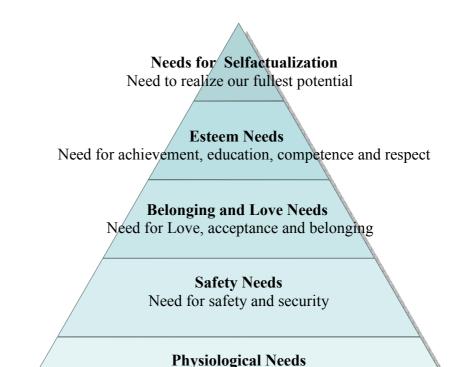
Abraham Maslow developed the famous pyramid called the *Hierarchy of Needs* (see figure 1). The pyramid shows that the lower level needs must be fulfilled before we

can strive to achieve the higher level needs. In our lives we aim to achieve the top of the pyramid, realization of our fullest potential.

"Human life will never be understood unless its highest aspirations are taken into account. Growth, self-actualization, the quest for identity and autonomy, the yearning for excellence must now be accepted beyond question as a widespread and perhaps universal human tendency. And yet there are also other regressive, fearful, self-diminishing tendencies as well."

(Abraham Maslow)

Figure 1: Hierarchy of Needs



Only when the lower-level, more basic needs are fulfilled the individual can strive to achieve the higher level needs. All five needs in Maslow's hierarchy play a considerable role in education and are described below.

Need for food, water, shelter, oxygen and sleep

"*Physiological Needs* These are primarily biological needs. They include such things as the need for adequate nutrition, shelter, warmth and medical care. They are the strongest needs individuals have and until they are fulfilled, individuals are motivated principally to fulfill them.

Safety Needs After physiological needs, the second most compelling needs that individuals face are safety and security. These include a sense of safety from physical harm at home, at school and in the community, and a sense of economic security. If students do not have their safety needs met, these will be primary concerns for them.

Belonging and Love Needs When physiological and safety needs have been addressed, the next set of needs those related to belongingness, affection and love can emerge. Without social relationships, individuals feel a sense of loneliness and alienation. They have a need to feel accepted within their social environment and to both give and receive love and affection in their personal lives.

Esteem Needs If the first three needs are fulfilled, the need for esteem may become dominant. This refers both to self-esteem and to the esteem a person gets from others. Humans have a need for self-respect and a need for respect from others. Esteem results in a sense of self-confidence and of being a valued individual.

Self-actualization Needs The highest level of needs, those that individuals are able to satisfy when all other more basic needs have been met, is the need for self-actualization" (http://pact.gse.uci.edu/ed173online/notes/173unit6.html)

Abraham Maslow has had a significant influence on psychology in general and on the psychology of motivation in particular. However his theory has been also criticized for the fact that people do not always appear to behave as the theory would predict. This is illustrated by Woolfolk and McCune-Nicolich (1984:277). They state, when the teacher's task conflicts with the group rules, pupils may choose to ignore the teacher's wishes or even defy him as belonging to a social group and maintaining self-esteem within that group are also important to the pupil. On the other hand, the theory does have a number of important implications for teachers.

To conclude, pupils' desires to fulfill their lower lever needs may sometimes interfere with their ability to fulfill their potential. Maslow's hierarchy implies that pupils who come to school hungry, sick or hurt are unlikely to become interested in learning. Maslow's hierarchy is a useful reminder that teachers need to pay attention to pupils' lower needs first before addressing the higher ones. To put it simply if the classroom is a fearful, unpredictable place, the pupils are likely to be more concerned with security and less with learning.

1.5 Cognitive approach

"Unlike behaviourism, which focuses on the observable, this approach focuses on that which cannot be observed; it postulates that action can only be understood in relation to cognitive factors, e.g. thought processes, intentions, expectations, interpretations of given situations."

(Chambers 2001:3)

The cognitive approach includes a number of alternative or competing subtheories. As Dörnyei (2001:9) suggests, in order to understand the reason for this diversity we need to realize that the variety of motives that can potentially influence human behaviour is staggering. The table below, adapted from Dörnyei (2001:10-11), presents a selection of the most influential contemporary cognitive theories of human motivation illustrating the various motives.

	GOOD SUMMARIES	MAIN MOTIVATIONAL	MAIN MOTIVATIONAL TENETS AND PRINCIPLES
Expectancy-	Brophy (1999),	COMPONENTS Expectancy of	Motivation to perform various
value theories	Eccles and Wigfield (1995)	success	tasks is the product of two key factors the individual's expectancy of success in a given task and the value the individual attaches to success on that task. The greater the perceived likelihood of success and the greater the incentive value of the goal, the higher the degree of the individual's positive motivation.
Achievement motivation theory	Atkinson and Raynor (1974)	Expectancy of success; incentive values; need for achievement; fear of failure	Achievement motivation is determined by conflicting approach and avoidance tendencies. The positive influences are the <i>expectancy</i> (or perceived probability) of success, the incentive <i>value</i> of successful task fulfilment and <i>need for achievement</i> . The negative influences involve <i>fear of failure</i> , the incentive to avoid failure, the incentive to avoid failure and the <i>probability</i> of failure.

Self-efficacy	Bandura	Perceived self-	Self-efficacy refers to people's
theory	(1997)	efficacy	judgement of their capabilities
			to carry out certain specific
			tasks, and, accordingly, their
			sense of efficacy will
			determine their choice of the
			activities attempted, the
			amount of effort exerted and
			the persistence displayed.
Attribution	Weiner (1992)	Attributions about	The individual's explanations
theory	(1332)	past successes and	(or 'causal attributions') of
liteory		failures	why past successes and failures
			have occured have
			consequences on the person's
			motivation to initiate future
			action. In school contexts
			ability and effort have been
			identified as the most dominant
			peceived causes, and it has
			been shown that past failure
			that is ascribed by the learner
			to low ability hinders future
			achivement behaviour more
			than failure that is ascribed to
			insufficient effort.
Calfananth	Covington	Perceived self-	1
Self-worth	Covington (1998)	worth	People are higly motivated to behave in ways that enhance
theory	(1990)	Worth	their sense of personal value
			and worth. When these
			perceptions are threatened,
			1
			they struggle desperately to
			protect them, which results in a
			number of unique patterns of
			face-saving behaviours in
Coalactica	Locke and	Cool proportion	school setting.
Goal setting		Goal properties:	Human action is caused by
theory	Latham (1990)	specificity,	purpose, and for action to take
		difficulty and	place, goals have to be set and
		commitment	pursued by choice. Goals that
			are both specific and difficult
			(within reason) lead to the
			highest performance provided
			the individual shows goal
Cant	A (1002)	M4 1 1	commitment.
Goal	Ames (1992)	Mastery goals and	Mastery goals (focusing on
orientation		performance goals	learning the content) are
theory			superior to performance goals
			(focusing on demonstrating

			ability and getting good grades) in that they are associated with a preference for challenging work, an intrinsic interest in learning activities, and positive attitudes towards learning.
Self- determination theory	Deci and Ryan (1985), Vallerand (1997)	Intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation	Intrinsic motivation concerns behaviour performed for its own sake in order to experience pleasure and satisfaction such as the joy of doing a particular activity or satisfying one's curiosity. Extrinsic motivation involves performing a behaviour as a means to an end, that is, to receive some extrinsic reward (e.g. good grades) or to avoid punishment. Human motives can be placed on a continuum between self-determined (intrinsic) and controlled (extrinsic) forms or motivation.
Social motivation theory	Weiner (1994) Wentzel (1999)	Environmental influences	A great deal of human motivation stems from the sociocultural context rather than from the individual.
Theory of planned behaviour	Ajzen (1998), Eagly and Chaiken (1993)	Attitudes; subjective norms; perceived behavioural control	Attitudes exert a directive influence on behaviour, because someone's attitude towards a target influences the overall pattern of the person's responses to the target. Their impact is modified by the person's subjective norms (perceived social preassures) and perceived behavioural control (perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behaviour).

Motivation is a very complex subject and many theories have been developed with respect to its use in education. I have presented only some of them. Each of these theories are of a greater importance to the attempt to denote the nature of motivation but, taken separately, they are not sufficient. Dörnyei (2001:12) states that all various

theories make a lot of sense but the problem with them is that they largely ignore each other. To put it simply, no theory solves every problem one might encounter in motivating pupils. Chambers (2001:3) suggests, and I fully identify with his attitude, that an eclectic approach may get closer to the ideal. This approach is likely to be much more powerful than a more limited one.

2 THE DEFINITION OF MOTIVATION

In the previous chapter, we have looked at some theories which all view motivation from their own perspective but what is this motivation on which we are reflecting? As has been stated before it is far from easy to come up with a satisfactory definition. In general, motivation can be simply described as the driving force that makes us do the things we do. According to Harmer (1991:51), at its most basic level, motivation is some kind of internal drive which pushes someone to do things in order to achieve something. Dörnyei and Ottó (1998, in Brophy 1998:9) perhaps best described the multiplicity and a variable nature of motivation:

"In a general sense, motivation can be defined as the dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritised, operationalised and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out."

Motivation is very important in education and for successful language learning. Sprinthall and Sprinthall (1990:519) mention the first psychologist Thorndike who proved the link between learning and motivation. He called this link the *law of effect*. According to him, learning is strengthened when it is followed by a satisfying state of affairs.

The following is the definition of motivation related to education:

"Motivation in relation to education refers to a student's willingness, need, desire and compulsion to participate in, and be successful in, the learning process, it seeks to increase the factors that move a student toward becoming more involved in the class and the subject matter."

(Bomia et al. 1997: 4)

According to Ormrod (2003:45), motivation in education can have several effects on how pupils learn and their behaviour towards subject matter. It can:

- 1 "Direct behaviour toward particular goals
- 2 Lead to increased effort and energy
- 3 Increase initiation of, and persistence in, activities
- 4 Enhance cognitive processing
- 5 Determine what consequences are reinforcing
- 6 Lead to improved performance"

In language learning, motivation refers to the effort which learners put into it as a result of their need or desire to learn it. Brophy (1987, in Lumsden) states that motivation to learn is a competence acquired through general experience but stimulated most directly through modeling, communication of expectations, and direct instruction or socialization by significant others (especially parents and teachers). Lumsden (http://chiron.valdosta.edu/whuitt/files/stdtmotv.html) adds that pupils' motivation is closely connected to their desire to participate in learning, but it also concerns the reasons or goals that underlie their involvement or noninvolvement in academic activities.

••

3 THE TYPES OF MOTIVATION

Although students may be equally motivated to perform a task, the sources of their motivation may differ. Motivation is often divided into two categories, extrinsic and intrinsic.

3.1 Extrinsic motivation

"Extrinsic motivation refers to outside sources or values that influence a person to act or learn. Examples of these outside sources are rewards; positive or negative outcomes; and comfort or discomfort. As long as this external source provides the sufficient incentives or conditions, learning can take place. However, once the external input stops or no longer provides sufficient value to the student, then the willingness and effort to learn will also stop." (Bomia et al. 1997: 4)

As Brophy (1998:175) suggests, extrinsic motivational strategies can be effective in certain circumstances, but according to him we should not rely on them too heavily. If the pupils will concentrate more on rewards or competition, they may not pay enough attention to learning or develop much appreciation for the value.

3.2 Intrinsic motivation

"It is also known as self-motivation, refers to influences that originate from within a person which cause a person to act or learn. Examples of these influences are one's self-concept, self-esteem, self-satisfaction, personal values, and personal/emotional needs and drives. Self-motivation can lead the student to go beyond the scope and requirements of an educational course because they are seeking to learn about the subject, not just fulfill a limited set of requirements."

(Bomia et al. 1997: 3-4)

Intrinsic motivation comes from within the individual. Thus a person might be motivated by the enjoyment of the learning process itself or by a desire to make himself or herself feel better.

According to the most researchers, the instrinsic motivation is valued more highly for encouraging success than extrinsic motivation. Harmer (1998:51), on the other hand, suggests that even where the original source of motivation is extrinsic, for example taking up a language course, the chance of success will be increased if the

learners come to love the learning process. Extrinsic motivation may lead to intrinsic one.

Both sources of motivation are important however, there are various advantages of intrinsic motivation. It is more likely for the intrinsically motivated learner to complete the chosen task and enjoy the challenging nature of a task at the same time. Katyukha(http://www.rusnauka.com/4._SVMN_2007/Philologia/19918.doc.htm) claims that: "Intrinsically motivated learners can profit in a number of areas:

- Earn higher grades and achievement test scores, on average, than extrinsically motivated students
- Employ strategies that demand more effort and that enable them to process information more deeply
- Use more logical information-gathering and decision making strategies
- Are more likely to engage in tasks that are moderately challenging, whereas
 extrinsically oriented students gravitate toward tasks that are low in degree of
 difficulty
- Are better personally adjusted to school
- Are more likely to be lifelong learners, continuing to educate themselves outside the formal school setting long after external motivators such as grades and diplomas are removed "

Spaulding (1992:5) points out that teachers rely too heavily on extrinsic rewards and punishments to keep the whole system running. According to her, they need to know when to rely on extrinsic motivators and when to promote a more intrinsic motivational orientation. And perhaps even more importantly, teachers need to know how to help their pupils move from extrinsic to intrinsic motivational orientation.

It is of course impossible to completely leave extrinsic motivation and replace it by intrinsic forms of motivation. According to Spaulding (1992: 8) intrinsic motivation is a situationally determined psychological state and no learner will be in a perpetual state of intrinsic motivation. As situations change from day to day, even minute to minute, so will pupils' perceptions of self-determination and competence. Ellis (1994: 36) also sees motivation as an example of a factor that is clearly variable. The strength of an individual learner's motivation can change over time and is influenced by external factors

Spaulding (1992: 8) suggests that a more realistic goal might be that all students will experience some level of intrinsic motivation for at least some parts of the

curriculum. In other words, the goal is to help all students recognize that academic pursuits can lead to pleasure and personal satisfaction, not that they always do so.

Grades and other extrinsic forms of reward and punishment have always played a significant role in educational scene and it is not probable that it will disappear in the near future. Successful learners are after all motivated by both internal and external factors and both types should be promoted in the classroom.

3.3 Integrative and Instrumental motivation

In the 1970s Gardner and Lambert suggested that motivation for language learning could be divided into two categories: integrative and instrumental.

Integrative motivation

Integrative motivation involves a possitive disposition and an interest in learning a second language because of a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other language group. Johnson (2001:129) states that someone is 'integratively motivated' if he or she is learning the foreign language through a desire to learn more about a culture, its language and people – to 'integrate' more within the target-language society. According to Gardner and Lambert (1972, in Alison 2001:106):

"learner is integratively motivated when the perceptions of him or herself is a part of the second language community; for example, making a wider circle of friends in the target language country, travelling there, even living there, adopting the culture and being regarded as 'one of the locals'."

Instrumental motivation

Instrumental motivation concerns the practical value and advantages of learning a new language as to get a better job, achieve higher status or pass an examination. Gardner (1985, in Spolsky 1990:150) described instrumental orientation as a more practical reason for learning and later he has modified the definition:

"Instrumental reasons refer to those reasons which stress the pragmatic aspects of learning the second language, without any particular interest in communicating with the second language community."

Harmer (1998:8) mentions the famous research carried out in the second half of the twentieth century by Gardner and Lambert suggested that learners who felt best about a language and who wanted to integrate into the culture of its speakers were more highly motivated (and learnt more successfully) than those who were only learning language as a means to an end (e.g. getting a better job). In other words integrative motivation was more powerful than instrumental motivation.

As Lighbown and Spada (1999, in Candlin and Mercer 2001:33) point out, research has shown that either of these types of motivation are related to success in second language learning. When speaking a new language one is adopting some of the identity markers of another cultural group. Depending on the learner's attitudes, learning a second language can be a source of enrichment or a source of resentment. If the speaker's only reason for learning the second language is external pressure, internal motivation may be minimal and general attitudes towards learning may be negative

In summary, integrative motivation is more valued than instrumental motivation but, whatever kind of motivation learners have, it is clear that highly motivated pupils do better than the ones without any motivation at all.

4 FACTORS AFFECTING LEARNERS' MOTIVATION

Motivation can be affected very easily by many factors. It is clear that the teacher, the class atmosphere, the course content, materials and facilities as well as personal characteristics of the learner (such as studiousness, etc.) will have an influence on the individual's motivation. There are many factors affecting the learners' motivation and therefore it is very important to pay attention to them. Because of the limited space, I will attempt to analyse only some of them which I consider as the most significant for motivation and for the purposes of this study.

4.1 Classroom Climate

Classroom climate and motivation are closely allied. In order for optimal learning to occur, students must feel safe and secure whether asking for clarification, venturing opinions, or seeking assistance. Teachers should ensure a supportive environment in which the learners can learn effectively and in which they can stretch their limits. Room temperature, comfort of seating and background noise are all factors of the environment that can influence motivation. Dörnyei (2001:41) divides classroom environment into physical and psychological. The examples of physical environment can be posters, board displays, flowers. The classroom should be physically attractive as far as possible. The psychological environment of the classroom is made up of a number of different components. They are for example the teacher's rapport with the pupils, pupils' relationship with each other, respect for the learners and their needs, praise, words of encouragement. All these factors can lead to a positive learning experience and an environment that encourages risk-taking, autonomy, and mutual support.

Schmuck (1971, in Morse and Wingo 1971:205) states that many educators assume that positive classroom social climates enhance a pupil's mental health and his academic learning. The warm support, encouragement and respect which pupils show for one another facilitate high self-esteem and utilization of intelectual abilities. Brophy (1998:22) adds that pupils will not respond well to motivational attempts if they are fearful, resentful, or otherwise focused on negative emotions. Teacher should create a place where pupils come primarily to learn, and succeed in learning through collaboration with the teacher and other learners. According to Candlin and Mercer

(2001:34) the teachers can make a positive contribution to learners' motivation to learn if they can make their classrooms places where learners enjoy coming because the content is interesting and relevant to their age and level of ability, where the learning goals are challenging yet manageable and clear, and where the atmosphere is supportive and non-threatening. Harmer (1991:53) recommends that although we may not be able to choose our actual classrooms, we can still do a lot about their physical appearance and the emotional atmosphere of the lessons. Both of these can have a powerful effect on the initial and continuing motivation of students. When pupils walk into an attractive classroom at the beginning of a lesson, it may help to get their motivation for the process going. When they come to an unattractive place motivation may not be initiated in this way.

We have touched upon the importance of creating and maintaining a pleasant but workmanlike attitude in the English classroom. Its atmosphere, either physical or psychological is very affective and its importance should not be overlooked.

4.2 The Role of Teacher

Let me start this chapter with a quote which best indicates the immense importance of the teachers' role:

"Schooling is organized so that educational policies, curriculum, and instruction are interpreted and enacted by teachers. Teachers are the human point of contact with students. All other influences on the quality of education are mediated by who the teacher is and what the teacher does. Teachers have the potential for enhancing the quality of education by bringing life to curriculum and inspiring students to curiosity and self-directed learning. And teachers can also degrade the quality of education through error, laziness, cruelty or incompetence. For better or worse, teachers determine the quality of education."

(Clark in Day 1: 2004)

The teacher is one of the most powerful variables in the educational environment. Everything that a teacher does in the classroom, his attitudes, enthusiasm and interest affect the learner and the motivational quality of the learning process enormously. The teacher's role in motivation should not be underestimated. Buzan and Buzan (2000:183) state that teaching is arguably one of the most important professions

in our society because teachers are responsible for that most treasured of all resources, the human intellect.

Although the teacher's major concern is classroom learning, he undertakes many roles. According to Ellis and McClintock (in Richards and Lockhart 1996:97), teachers may assume very different roles within their own classrooms. Some teachers see their role primarily in managerial and organizational terms. They spend a considerable amount of time planning their lessons, monitoring their teaching, and managing student learning and behavior to ensure that their goals are accomplished. Others see their role more as a facilitator, and believe that the best kind of lesson is one that arises out of the dynamics of the teaching – learning situation.

Motivation plays a crucial role in the act of learning and one of the teacher's role is to ignite pupils' enthusiasm and desire to explore. The teachers should help learners understand that they learn for themselves, they should help them enjoy learning and awake the inner satisfaction from the learning. They are responsible for creating and maximising learning opportunities in a very complex ways, fullfilling both academic and social roles. As Finocchiaro (1985, in Ellis 1994:516) puts it:

"Motivation is the feeling nurtured primarily by the classroom teacher in the learning situation. The moment of truth - the enhancement of motivation – occurs when the teacher closes classroom door, greets his students with a warm, welcoming smile, and proceeds to interact with various individuals by making comments of asking questions which indicate personal concern."

Woolfolk and McCune-Nicolish (1984:270) sees motivation at the heart of many of the most important concerns of teachers. Wright (1987:53) states that the primary function of teachers' management role is to motivate the learners who are demotivated and to nurture those who are already well motivated to the task of learning a foreign language. Various motivational strategies can be used in the classroom to ignite and support the learners' motivation. This topic will be discussed separately in chapter 5.

Individual teachers have a unique character and personality and they bring very different beliefs and attitudes about what constitutes effective teaching. Teaching is a very personal activity and therefore the ways of teaching differ. As the teaching styles differ, we should also emphasize that each child is unequally gifted and so the teacher

should nurture the learning process by responding to the individual needs and interests of each child. Magoon and Carrison (1976:334) describe the learner as the focal point of the educational process. Each learner is unique, he brings to the learning situation his heredity along with all that has happened to him in his life. He arrives with certain concepts about himself, about others, and about each element in the learning situation. The teacher must realize that the same learning task may be perceived differently by each child.

Teachers have various roles to fulfil in the classroom. They create their own roles within the classroom based on their theories of teaching and learning and the kind of classroom interaction they believe best supports these theories. Teachers are responsible for increasing and directing pupils' motivation but as Harmer (1992:8) states: "teachers are not ultimately responsible for their students' motivation. They can only encourage by word and deed. Real motivation comes from within each individual." As Petty (2006: 15) claims, it is necessary to transfer responsibility for learning to pupils, to make them approach actively towards learning.

4.3 Teacher's Expectation

Teacher's expectation plays a significant role in pupils' motivation. Teachers should have sufficiently high expectation for what their pupils can achieve. To put it simply, pupils expect to learn if their teachers expect them to learn.

Spaulding (1992: 13) points out that a teacher who believes that the pupil is not competent enough to succeed, is likely to communicate to the pupil his belief that the pupil is incapable of completing the assigned tasks. The pupil then internalizes the teacher's perception of him so that it eventually becomes his self-perception. Brophy (1981, in Woolfolk and McCune-Nicolich 1984:295) compares the teacher's behaviour to the pupils' mirror in which they see a reflection of themselves. Then it depends on what they see. If the reflection they see seems to say "You probably won't be able to do this", their self-esteem is likely to suffer. Of course, pupils differ. Some are more sensitive than others to the teacher's opinions. The teacher's evaluation may be very significant to one pupil and disregarded as unimportant by another.

Teachers communicate their expectations whether they are conscious of it or not. They do so by means of differential treatment. They lower expectations for example by offering fewer opportunities for minority pupils to speak in class discussions or seating them at the back of the class. In short, many of the expectations for success and failure that teachers hold about their pupils can be grounded in their unconscious and unjustified prejudices.

Elliott (http://pact.gse.uci.edu/ed173online/notes/173unit6.html) points out the possible ways of treatment when the teacher holds either higher or lower expectations towards a learner:

Higher expectations:

- "The teacher communicates higher expectations for the child, and the child internalizes these, coming to have greater confidence in his own ability
- The teacher calls on the child more frequently, giving him more opportunities for feedback
- He gives more demanding work to the child, with the result that the child's achievement does improve
- He communicates to parents that the child is doing extremely well, leading to added encouragement and support for the child at home.

Pupils who are believed to have less potential, those for whom teacher's expectations are low:

- They are seated farthest from the teachers and interact the least with them.
- They receive less attention in the classroom than those who are considered to have higher potential.
- They are called on less often than their peers.
- They are given less time to answer questions and are interrupted more often than those perceived to be more able.
- They are criticized more frequently than their peers and receive praise less often.
- They receive less and lower-quality feedback on their assignments than their peers.
- They come to perceive themselves as being less capable than their peers and report that they are not as "smart" as these other pupils."

In summary, the teachers treat the pupils differently based upon their expectations. If they expect a pupil to do well, he/she may be given more encouragement unlike the pupil who is expected to have less potential. Because the pupils are being treated differently, they respond differently, often in ways which mirror the teacher's expectations.

The following quotation seems to be fairly appropriate for closing this chapter:

"If you treat an individual as he is, he will stay as he is, but if you treat him as if he were what he ought to be, he will become what he ought to be and could be."

Goethe

4.4 Learners' Self-perceptions

Many pupils underachieve because they don't believe they are capable of fulfilling their targets. A learner's self perception of their own ability is crucially important. Learners are motivated when they believe they are able to succeed.

As Ridley (1997:15) points out, in many cases a lack of self-confidence is associated not only with lack of ability but also with negative self-perceptions, which give rise to poor motivation and low levels of effort. As Ushioda (1996, in Ridley 1997:15) puts it: what learners believe about themselves is crucially important to their capacity for self-motivation. Effective motivational thinking hinges on the preservation of a positive self-concept in relation to the activity in question.

Spaulding (1992:12) explains that if students do not perceive themselves as being capable of performing successfully, opportunities to take control of their performances are useless at best and counterproductive at worst. She adds that if pupils develop an image of 'no good at English' they will simply avoid situations which tell them what they already know – that they are not any good at English. Feelings of failure, particularly early in a student's school career, can therefore lead to a downward spiral of a self-perception of low ability – low motivation – low effort – low achievement – low motivation and so on. Students are motivated when they believe that they are able to succeed at a given task, if not they loose their motivation.

4.5 The Role of Success and Failure Experience

Another factor with a great influence on pupils' motivation is the role of success and failure experiences in motivation. Generally, teachers should do everything within their power to help pupils succeed academically. Even with much effort on the part of teachers, however, there will always be some failure in schools. Teachers should accept the failure that does happen in their classrooms and help pupils who do fail to recognize that their own efforts are the means toward success next time.

As Čáp (1993: 48) suggests, learning depends on motivation and also the results of previous learning. Weiner (1980, in Spaulding 1992:32) claims that experiences of failure can lead to a heightened level of effort as long as the learners who fail continue to believe that they could have succeeded if they had put more effort into the task. In other words, as long as their self-perception of competence remains intact, an experience of failure can be motivation for them. Vágnerová (1997: 23) states that when the pupil is successful, he/she feels safer and more confident. On the other hand, when the child is often not successful, he/she can stop trying and take the passive, defensive strategy.

According to Anderman and Midgley pupils' perceptions of their educational experiences generally influence their motivation more than the actual, objective reality of those experiences. The pupils' experiences influence their motivation. When a learner has a history of failure in school, it is not easy to overcome it (http://www.nwrel.org/request/oct00/textonly.html).

Failure and success are important to pupils' achievement. Although failure can lead to more effort which consequently leads to success, continuous failure is demoralizing and it leads to a lowered or negative self-concept. Success helps to develop self-confidence, initiative and creativity. Successful experience is important motivation for all learners.

4.6 Feedback

Providing feedback to learners on their performance is another important aspect of teaching. As Richards and Lockhart (1996:188) state, feedback can be either positive

or negative and may serve not only to let learners know how well they have performed but also to increase motivation and build a supportive classroom climate.

"Positive information feedback:

- 1. Provides information rather than judgements
- 2. Teachers should notice and react to any positive contributions from learners
- 3. Provide regular feedback about the progress students are making and areas they should particularly concentrate on

Negative feedback:

- 1. Communicating pity after failure
- 2. Offering praise after success in easy tasks
- 3. Unsolicited offers of help, particularly supplying answers outright" (http://www.uni-bielefeld.de/lili/personen/plennon/motivation/krah.rtf)

The way in which a teacher gives feedback on a pupil's work has an enormous impact on their motivation. Not every type of feedback is equally effective and the teacher's comments might be sometimes counterproductive. As Spaulding (1992: 146) states, it is insufficient to tell pupils only how well or poorly they did. The feedback should be specific. It is helpful to discuss the strengths as well as weaknesses and to stress the connection between effort and outcome.

Learners can hardly make progress in the absence of relevant feedback. All of us like to hear that our efforts are appreciated as well as useful in achieving our goals. Feedback increases pupils' motivation and lifts learning spirit. It communicates trust, promotes self-confidence and a positive self-concept.

4.7 Attention

Attention is another relevant topic related to creating a positive affective climate in the classroom. Harmer (1998: 16) states that in order to manage a class successfully, the teacher has to be aware of what learners are doing and where possible, how they are feeling. This means watching and listening just as carefully as teaching. It means being able to move around the class, getting the level of proximity right. It means making eye contact with students, listening to what they have said and responding appropriately. Dörnyei (2001:37) says that learners need to feel that the teacher pay personal attention

to them. He suggests a variety of small gestures that do not take up much time and which can convey personal attention and can touch the student positively.

Children love the attention of others. They want to be watched, they want to be noticed. Thanks to attention, they know that they are supported and feel more confident and motivated.

4.8 Aim and utility of the task

According to Skalková (2007: 126), aim is a highly motivating factor. She thinks that once a pupil knows the aim of an activity or a lesson, he/she can reach a higher efficiency in learning. Harmer (1998:17) suggests that at the beginning of the lesson, where possible and appropriate, teacher needs to tell the pupils what they will be doing or, in a different kind of lesson, needs to discuss with them what they are hoping to achieve.

Pupils are not likely to be motivated to learn when engaged in pointless or meaningless activities. Magoon and Carrison (1976:324) state that educational development will most probably come about when learners see some relevance between academic learning and their own interests and goals. Brophy (1998:170) suggests that the teacher should help the learners to appreciate that the knowledge or skills developed by an activity are useful to them and their needs and success in life.

It is essential to state the aim of the task but with a well known task this can be clear for pupils and therefore it does not need to be repeated. It is on the teacher to decide whether it is appropriate and needed in the particular situation.

4.9 Groupwork

Groupwork has many advantages. It is a cooperative activity, changing the interactional dynamics of the classroom. Pupils contribute more equally and they are also more able to experiment and use the language than in a whole-class arrangement. Groupwork has a number of additional advantages. Richards and Lockhart (1996:153) mention some of them:

- "It reduces the dominance of the teacher over the class
- It increases the amount of student participation in the class

- It increases the opportunities for individual students to practice and use new features of the target language
- It promotes collaboration among learners
- It enables the teacher to work more as a facilitator and consultant
- It can give learners a more active role in learning"

Harmer (1998:21) adds further that groupwork has many positives. It gives the learners chances to be more independent. They are working together without the teacher controling everything they do. They can work without the pressure of the whole class listening to them. Richard and Lockhart (1996:153) state that constantly changing interactional structure can either support or hinder effective language learning. Groupwork is of course not without any problems. As Harmer (1998:21) claims, pupils may not like the schoolmates they are grouped with. One pupil may dominate while the others stay silent. Groupwork may also encourage pupils to be more disruptive than they would be in a whole-class setting. They might use their mother tongue, rather than English, when the techer is working with another group.

To conclude, though groupwork has its disadvantages, it leads to a more relaxed and secure atmosphere in the classroom, where learners can help one another and use each other's strengths. Groupwork allows students to enjoy each other's support. The threat of embarrassment or failure is reduced. Pupils feel more comfortable asking questions, seeking help, and responding to questions when unsure of the answer.

4.10 Enthusiasm

Enthusiasm can be a very effective tool in teaching and in creating the affective second language classroom. The teachers should have a passion for their subject and a passion for their pupils. Dörnyei (2001:32) states that the teachers who love their subject matter and who show their dedication and their passion and show that there is nothing else on Earth they would rather be doing are the most influential ones. He continues further that such a commitment towards the subject matter then becomes 'infectious', evoking a similar willingness to pursue knowledge in learners. Enthusiasm is in his, and also in my eyes, one of the most important ingredients of motivationally successful teaching.

I have listed some quotes from scholars outlining the importance of enthusiasm in educational environment:

"It is the teachers' passions that help them and their students escape the slow death of 'busyness at work', the rituals of going through the motions, which in schools usually means checking that the homework was done, covering the curriculum, testing, grading, and quickly putting it all behind us."

(Fried in Day 2004:19)

"Some people are born teachers, who have the desire and the ability to pass knowledge and skills on successfully. But even a person who is not a born teacher can improve a lot by learning to smile, to be enthusiastic and patient, and to be constantly looking for new ways of getting his message across to his pupils."

(Hill and Dobbyn in Wright 1987: 60)

Successful experience of learning and teaching will be constantly nurtured and developed if both, the teacher and pupils have the will and enthusiasm for the subject. Spaulding (1992:4) illustrates this appropriately:

"When students are academically motivated, their teachers often become professionally motivated, working hard to provide students with worthwhile educational experiences and finding more satisfaction in doing so. In short, the whole educational enterprise is strengthened when teachers find ways to help their students experience the joys of learning."

4.11 Humour

Humour can be a very useful and effective factor in teaching and in creating inviting and conductive learning. It can be seen as a kind of spice which helps to reduce anxiety and stress. It releases the tension and helps to bring learning to life.

Dörnyei (2001: 41) sees humour as a very potent factor, yet often ignored in theoretical writings on motivation. According to him, the main point of humour is in having a relaxed attitude about how seriously we take ourselves. Kyriacou (1996:86) suggests that humour can be used in various situations. A teacher can make fun of himself, introduce new tasks with a joke etc.

Having fun when learning has a significant impact on some learners. It is a source of enjoyment for both sides, the teacher and pupils.

There are many factors which may influence the climate in the classroom, encompassing the teacher's attitude towards the pupils, through to the emotional atmosphere of the learning environment. Teachers cannot, of course, be expected to make all students 'happy' all the time but they can certainly strive toward reducing tension and anxiety and setting-up a climate where all students feel welcome and respected. To ensure this, they can find help in various motivational strategies. These are discussed in the following chapter.

5 MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES

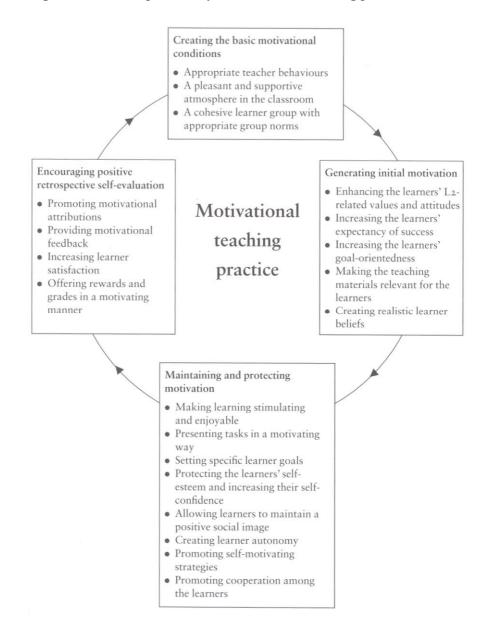
As the practical part explores the motivational strategies, I would like to dedicate this chapter to this topic. Many scholars designed and summarized motivational techniques for classroom application recently. However I would like to concentrate on the strategies in Dörnyei's (2001) book: *Motivational strategies in the language classroom* which is particularly relevant to this topic. It presents a list of more than 100 concrete motivational strategies. The full list can be found in appendix 1. The research of this thesis will work with eighteen of these strategies.

Dörnyei (2001: 28) describes motivational strategies as techniques that promotes the individual's goal-related behaviour. According to him these strategies refer to motivational influences that are consciously employed to achieve some systematic and persistent positive effect. Dörnyei follows the approach focusing on the different phases of the process-oriented model. He developed the model specifically for educational applications (see figure 1). The model follows through the motivational process from the intitial arousal of the motivation to the completion and evaluation of the motivated action.

Dörnyei (2001: 30) presents a set of four principles that he considers important in this conception of motivation. Those are:

- Creating the basic motivational conditions
- Generating initial motivation
- Maintaining and protecting motivation
- Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation

Figure 2: The components of motivational teaching practice in the L2 classroom



Brophy (1998:50) claims that certain preconditions must be in place before motivational strategies can be effective. He presents three important agendas which accomplishment will help to create conditions that favour the motivational efforts of teachers, which establish and maintain an attractive and supportive learning atmosphere in the classroom. The three agendas are:

- "1) Make yourself and your classroom attractive to students.
- 2) Focus their attention on individual and collaborative learning goals and help them to achieve these goals.

3) Teach things that are worth learning, in ways that help students to appreciate their value."

Motivational strategies are steps taken by the teacher to aid the interest, uncouragement and will for learning. These strategies can make teaching and followingly learning more efficient and effective.

PRACTICAL PART

6 RESEARCH

6. 1 Aim of the study

While the theoretical part presents an outline of the issues of motivation detailing the views of different authors, the practical part of this paper attempts to reveal the actual situation concerning the use of motivational strategies at primary schools, specifically at 6th - 9th grades.

The study attempts to answer the three following questions:

- 1. How frequently do teachers of English use the motivational strategies?
- 2. What strategies are used the most and which are underutilised?
- 3. Are the observed motivational strategies effective or ineffective?

I believe that the findings of this study provide readers with some interesting insights into motivation and motivational strategies.

6. 2 Research methodology

Three methods are used in the research: observation, interview and a questionnaire. The observations were carried out over a two-week period which started 3rd December 2007. The total amount of observed lessons was thirty. Each five observations were followed by structured interview with the teacher. The last instrument was a questionnaire for teachers.

6. 2. 1 Observation

The main purpose of conducting the observation was to determine how often the participating teacher actually employed the assessed motivational strategies. The most used and underutilised strategies in the teaching practice were identified. Motivational strategies that were used during the lesson were recorded in observation sheets as was the effectiveness of the method. I observed which strategies the teacher used, their effects on the pupils and I recorded it on the observation sheet.

Observations were carried out in the primary school where one teacher of English was observed. The school is situated in smaller town with about 11 700

inhabitants. The school building is modern and well equipped with about 630 pupils. The teacher involved in the observation has 28 years of teaching experience of which 16 years has been teaching English. He has a heavy teaching load, he also teaches the adult courses in the local language centre and is involved in free-time sport activities where he meets some of his pupils.

I selected eighteen motivational strategies for observation. The selection of the strategies was based on Dörnyei's (2001) motivational strategies and I chose the ones which were, in my opinion, best observable in the classroom. Each of the strategies was given a number. The strategies were grouped into clusters based on their content similarities. The strategies generating initial motivation were numbered first to the last ones encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation. The numbered strategies are listed below:

- 1. "Whet the pupils' appetite about the content of the task."
- 2. "Explain the purpose and utility of a task."
- 3. "Make sure that pupils receive sufficient preparation and assistance (e.g. guidance and help while working on the task..)."
- 4. "Pay attention and listen to each of the pupils."
- 5. "Accept pupils without necessarily approving of everything he/she does. ('Loving the sinner, not the sin')"
- 6. "Accept the humour in the classroom."
- 7. "Bring in the humour."
- 8. "Select tasks that yield tangible, finished products (e.g. posters,..)."
- 9. "Enlist the pupils in designing and running the course."
- 10. "Make task content attractive by adapting it to the pupils' natural interests or by including novel, intriguing, exotic, humorous, competitive or fantasy elements."
- 11. "Relate the subject matter to the everyday experiences and backgrounds of the pupils (e.g. including learners' own lives 'How would you do it at home?')."
- 12. "Promote contact with L2 speakers and L2 cultural products." (e.g. magazines, music, TV recordings, videos..)

- 13. "Include a sociocultural component in your language curriculum (cross-cultural similarities, interesting/relevant aspects of L2 culture, discuss the stereotypes and prejudices..)."
- 14. "Encourage learners to conduct their own exploration of the L2 community (e.g. on the internet..)."
- 15. "Set up tasks in which teams of learners are asked to work together towards the same goal."
- 16. "Promote the building of a stable group (encourage learners to give the group name, invent group symbols, mottoes, logos...)."
- 17. "Provide pupils with some 'social training' to learn how best to work in team (e.g. listening to each other, giving reasons in argument, organising the team's work...)."
- 18. "Draw your learners' attention to their strengths and abilities."

The observation sheet consisted of three main sections. The first section is the used strategy number, the second is for the teacher's action when performing the strategy and the last section for the behaviour exhibited by pupils after the strategy was used. Furthermore, the observation sheets include my comments on possible factors which could influence the lesson. I also added information about the date, time of the day, class and the number of pupils present in the classroom. When recording the data, I used the observation sheet and also a list with the strategies I focused on. I simplified the strategies on the list in order to ease the process of recording. It helped me to orientate better. Example of the observation sheet can be found in the appendix 2.

When analysing the observation sheets, the frequency of strategies used was summarized first and then their effectiveness was evaluated. The effectiveness of the strategy was classified according to the observed pupils' behaviour. The undesirable, off-task behaviour which followed immediately after the strategy was interpreted as the proof of ineffectivness and its counterpart on-task behaviour was interpreted as the indicator of success. The strategy was considered either effective or ineffective under certain conditions. The criterion was that the behaviour had to be exhibited by more than half of the class, when the strategy was aimed at the whole class. When focused on

group or particular pupil, it was only the group's or the learner's behaviour which was observed.

The data was gained from the classes of different grades, ranging from the fifth to the ninth. The number of pupils during the lesson ranged from 10 to 25, but the teacher worked mostly with smaller groups. Each class was observed five times. Whilst observing I was sitting at the back of the classroom, trying not to influence the course of the lesson.

Piloting: The observation sheet was carefully piloted before the main observation took place. The instrument was found functional. One question "What could influence the lesson?" was added in order to find out possible affective factors. These and eventually other factors were then confirmed or refused during the interview.

Limitations: The observation research is limited. As only one teacher was observed, further research would be appropriate. I originally planned to observe more than one teacher, but I felt that my presence in the lessons was annoying and other teachers were unwilling to be observed for so many lessons. I focused on the frequency of motivational strategies but also on the effectiveness which might, from my perception, be a stressful factor for the teacher.

6. 2. 2 Interview

As I have already mentioned, this study also employed interviews with the teacher. The interview was planned to take place after each five observations. This frequency was disturbed as the teacher had a heavy teaching load and there was not always space to do so. The interviews were therefore adapted to the teacher. The teacher commented on the nature of the lesson and the possible factors which could affect the lesson and influence the motivational strategies, its usage or effectiveness. He was asked to respond to the following questions:

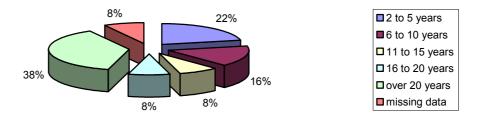
- 1. "Were the lessons the standard ones or did they differ in way?"
- 2. "Did you notice any factor which could influence the course of the lesson?"
- 3. "If yes, in what way did this factor influenced the lessons?"

After the interview, the information was transcribed and put down on a paper, and analysed.

6. 2. 3 Questionnaire

I chose to use questionnaire as one part of the research to be able to address a reasonably high number of teachers. The purpose of administering questionnaires was to find out the extent to which the motivational strategies were actually perceived to be used in the second language classroom, so that the underutilized ones can be highlighted for teachers. Participants in the questionnaire survey were 37 English language teachers (33 females and 4 males) teaching in primary school, 6th to 9th grades. The participating teachers represented a range of teaching experiences see *graph 1* below.

Graph 1: The years of the teaching experience



In order to cover the observed aspect, a Likert type questionnaire containing eighteen motivational strategies was developed (see appendix 3 and 4). The teachers were asked to answer eighteen questions by ticking and additionally by writing their comments if they chose so. The rating scale comprised five response options describing degrees of frequency ('never' — 'always'). To eliminate any potential language-based interference, Czech versions of the questionnaire were distributed. As it was used for observation, the same selection of eighteen strategies based on Dörnyei's (2001) motivational strategies was used for the questionnaire. The effectiveness was not monitored in the questionnaires as it would became too long and it could possibly lower the number of returned questionnaires. More importantly, the effectiveness would be the subjective perception of teachers. The questionnaires were administered mostly by email. A total of 37 filled questionnaires were received.

Piloting: The questionnaire was piloted in order to look for unclear formulations of either questions or answers and to determine the time limit for responding. The pre-testing proved some obscurities, which were substituted by more suitable formulations. The initial questionnaire contained more than thirty questions concerning strategies. The number of questions was reduced and the final version of the questionnaire was made up of eighteen motivational strategies and two questions concerning background information about the teachers. These were gender and length of the teaching experience. The space for additional comments or explanations after each question was offered to teachers in order to receive more sufficient data.

Limitations: I am aware of an inherent shortcomings of self-reported questionnaires. The formulation of questions could be unclear for some respondents. Another problem could be the fact that the respondents are likely to be tempted to describe their behaviours in a better than real light, according to what they believe to be the positive or the expected answers. I tried to eliminate this by the cover letter and the questionnaire instructions highlighting that the information provided was confidential and anonymous. It is also essential to make it clear that the validity of questionnaire is endangered by a relatively small sample of respondents. It would be good to check the results in further investigation.

6. 3 Data analysis and interpretation

The recorded data from the collected observation sheets and questionnaires were summarized and compared. From the point of view of the frequency, the most used and the most underutilized were determined. With the observation sheets the assessment of effectivity followed. The interpreted interview questions were taken into account when interpreting the effectiveness. For better understanding and imagination of the reader, the obtained results are supported with various tables and graphs.

6. 3. 1 Observation

As has been mentioned already, thirty observations were conducted. The amount of observed strategies during one lesson ranged from two to twelve, where the same, repeated strategies were also counted. In total, 146 strategies were used, without

counting the most used strategy – strategy 3. The reasons for not including this strategy will be explained in further analysis.

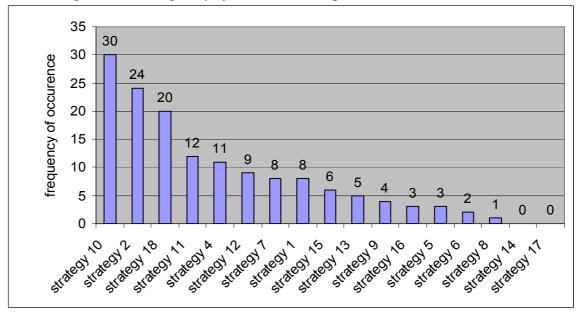
Concerning the effectiveness, it should be emphasized here that even when the strategy was classified as successful, certain disturbance from particular pupils could be present at times. The criteria for evaluating the successful or unsuccessful strategy have been mentioned already.

I list below my observations of the strategies in order of the number of times I observed them being used:

1. The most utilized strategy observed was <u>strategy number 3</u>: "Make sure that pupils receive sufficient preparation and assistance." The result requires little justification as this strategy is also one of the main teacher's roles in the classroom. I decided not to record the exact number of events when this strategy occured because it was included almost in every task during the lesson. The teacher was walking round the classroom, helping when somebody needed or when he was asked. He often stopped and gave advice or encouragement. Although he could be never able to satisfy all learners' needs, especially in classes with more pupils, he helped most of them. Pupils continued consciously in their work when teacher helped them.

The observed strategy was ineffective 12 times. The off-task behaviour such as talking to schoolmate or drawing pictures was noticed. As the observed strategy was effective in majority of cases, it was evaluated as successful.

The following *graph 2* (next page) illustrates the rest of the observed strategies according to the frequency they were used. I will attempt to analyse the strategies from the most utilized to the least employed. Strategy number 3 is not included in the graph.



Graph 2: Frequency of observed strategies

2. Strategy number 10: "Make task content attractive by adapting it to the pupils' natural interests or by including novel, intriguing, exotic, humorous, competitive or fantasy elements." was recorded thirty times. As stated by Dörnyei (2001: 75) humans are amazingly capable of producing concentrated effort when they want to, regardless of a dull practice. The teacher employed for example, a mistake spotting – he wrote the date incorrectly on the blackboard and waited if pupils would realize it. He also engaged imagination when he asked learners to pretend to be film directors. The memory game and mystery element was also included.

The pupils were attentive and cooperative. The observed strategies were effective in all the cases. The strategy was successful.

3. Strategy number 2: "Explain the purpose and utility of a task." It appeared twenty-four times. According to Kyriacou (1996: 84), by emphasizing the aim of the activity, teachers can raise the learners' motivation significantly. As observed, the purpose was mostly stated at the beginning of the lesson when the new topic was introduced or the task from the previous lesson was revised.

The strategy was observed as effective twenty times, ineffective four times. The strategy was successful.

4. Strategy number 18: "*Draw your learners' attention to their strengths and abilities.*" This strategy was observed twenty times. The teacher commented mostly on good reading and the progress in it, translating and also the organization of the task.

The praised pupils were visibly satisfied, some of them smiled and were encouraged in their effort. This strategy was effective in all cases, therefore it was analysed as successful.

5. Strategy number 11: "Relate the subject matter to the everyday experiences and backgrounds of the pupils." Kyriacou (1996: 83) states that one of the very effective motivational strategies is the choice of the topic which interest pupils and she adds that it is even better when the topic is related to learners' own experiences. This strategy was observed twelve times. The teacher related the topic to pupils' experiences and backgrounds when a suitable theme occurred. After this strategy was used, a discussion usually followed.

The strategy was effective every time when used. The pupils were more easily included into the activity when the topic became more familiar to them. It raised their attention. The strategy was successful.

6. Strategy number 4: "Pay attention and listen to each of the pupils." It appeared eleven times. It is clear that it is not in teacher's power to pay attention and to listen to each pupil all the time, but certain steps can be employed to make this happen as much as possible. The teacher asked pupils questions at the beginning of the lesson, such as: "How are you? " or "How was your weekend?". He asked about their missing friend and asked someone to pass him/her the material for studying. He also commented about a new haircut to the girl's delight. I observed three times when the teacher took a slower pupil to sit by his desk in the front and he was helping him with the task at the teacher's desk.

All of the above mentioned strategies worked well. Teacher let the pupils know that he cares about them even though they are not present in the class and that he pays attention to them. The strategy was observed as effective at all occasions and therefore classified as successful.

7. Strategy 12: "Promote contact with L2 speakers and L2 cultural products (e.g. magazines, music, TV recordings, videos...)." This strategy appeared nine times. The use of this strategy was mostly presented through use of the course book - the articles about second language country, culture, its products, tape recordings with the spoken word or music. Pupils may also visit a small library at school where they can borrow English magazines, graded readers or billingual books.

This strategy was ineffective two times and effective seven times. The strategy use was successful.

8. Two strategies are tied for this position, <u>numbers 7</u>: "*Bring in the humour*." and <u>1</u>: "*Whet the pupils' appetite about the content of the task*." Both strategies were brought eight times during the observed lessons.

<u>Strategy 7</u>: The jokes came out naturally as the teacher's nature allows it. The jokes were not offensive in any case and pupils were laughing. It evidently helped to energize the learners and they continued their work more relaxed.

It was effective in all the cases.

<u>Strategy 1</u>: It goes without saying that pupils enjoy the activity when they look forward to it. This strategy is very useful.

As this was mostly used in the end of the lesson and sometimes the bell came in the middle of it, pupils were looking forward to leave the classroom or already packing their stuff. Because of the reasons stated above, the strategy was observed as ineffective three times. Nevertheless, five times were observed as effective, so the strategy was considered successful.

9. Strategy 15: "Set up tasks in which teams of learners are asked to work together towards the same goal". The teacher employed the groupwork five times. Pupils were usually cooperating in pairs.

When working in groups, pupils were involved and they enjoyed the cooperation with their peers. As has been already stated in chapter 4.9, the groupwork also has specific disadvantages. These appeared in two lessons. Some groups talked about an unrelated topic in their mother tongue. Also the level of the noise was higher but I believe that this 'side effect' belongs to the nature of groupwork. The strategy was effective three times and ineffective twice. The strategy was considered successful.

10. Strategy <u>number 13</u>: "Include a sociocultural component in your language curriculum (e.g. cross-cultural similarities, interesting/relevant aspects of L2 culture, discuss the stereotypes and prejudices..)." The teacher led the discussion covering culture similarities, interesting habits and customs and he answered the pupils' questions when they asked for details. It occurred nine times.

The strategy was successful. Pupils were paying attention and were involved, it was ineffective once only.

11. Strategy number 9: "Enlist the pupils in designing and running the course." Pupils were enlisted by designing and running the task four times. They prepared the short morning exercise for their schoolmates and an English version of the television game show AZ Quiz. The AZ Quiz was very popular among children and they prepared and played it during the break before the start of the lesson. It was a great way of practising the vocabulary.

The strategy was effective in all events.

12. Strategies <u>16</u>: "Promote the building of a group legend." and <u>5</u>: "Accept pupils without necessarily approving of everything he/she does ('Loving the sinner, not the sin')". Both strategies were observed three times.

To start with <u>strategy 16</u>, building a group legend requires a stable group cooperating together. This may not be used very frequently as not all activities are suitable for it. It also carries the disadvantages of groupwork, which could be a barrier, nevertheless this strategy was observed three times. Pupils were in two teams, playing the English version of modified television game show AZ Quiz. Each of the teams had own name. All of the learners were enjoying the game, excited being members of the team and they were 'fighting' for their side eagerly.

The strategy was effective in all occassions and therefore successful.

<u>Strategy 5:</u> When pupils quarreled and were angry at each other, the teacher helped to solve their problems. After this event, the teacher remained friendly to both of those 'sinners'.

The strategy was effective in all three cases.

13. Strategy number 6: "Accept the humour in the classroom." was observed two times, as the jokes from pupils' side arose only twice. The teacher accepted the jokes and it helped to improve the classroom atmosphere. As with the previous strategy concerning humour, this variation is also a vital part of the lesson and it is a very effective tool.

Both the cases were effective. The strategy was successful.

14. Strategy 8: "Select tasks that yield tangible, finished products." was recorded once only. Pupils had to prepare the table game for their schoolmate and when finished, they played it together. Learners enjoyed showing it to others and were proud of what they created. To some of them, it helped their self-perception and to taste success.

The strategy was effective and successful.

15. The following strategies, 14: "Encourage learners to conduct their own exploration of the L2 community (e.g. on the internet)." and 17: "Provide students with some 'social training' to learn how best to work in team." were not observed once. I will try to explain why this is the case.

It is clear that the research is limited by the amount and time duration of observations, therefore we cannot conclude that the teacher does not use these strategies at all. I decided to ask the teacher to what extent he really does employ it in his lessons.

<u>Strategy 14</u>: The teacher said that he sometimes asks pupils to find some information about second language community or he implements it as a project.

Strategy 17: the possibility of observing the 'social training' to learn how to work in team was very low as could be expected that this training would probably took place at the beginning of the school year. I admit that this strategy was not so suitable for observing. When I asked the teacher, he answered that he uses it occassionally when needed. According to him, some classes work without problems and some need more hlep, therefore it depends on the particular situation.

The most used and most underutilized strategies have been identified in this chapter. The range of the most observed strategies includes strategies 3, 10, 2 and 18. The least observed strategies were 14 and 17 which were not observed at all. As has been mentioned previously, the results of the observation are limited by the duration of the time available for observation and also by the nature of some strategies. For example strategy number 6: "Accept the humour in the classroom." was observed twice, but here it depended on pupils interaction too, whether and how often they used humour.

It should be also mentioned here that the number of strategies were influenced for example by the activities which were used in the lesson, by the mood of the class and pupils or by the teacher who did not feel well that day. These factors influencing the strategies were either observed or revealed during the interview with the teacher.

Concerning the effectiveness, all observed strategies were found successful.

The results of this research might help the teacher to recognize his strong points and the possible areas on which he can concentrate and try to incorporate it into his everyday teaching practice. On the other hand, it should be emphasized here that it is not necessary to apply all of the strategies to make teaching effective. Only a fraction of it can be utilized. What is needed is quality rather than quantity. A few well chosen strategies which best fit the teaching style and personality of the teacher might create an overall positive motivational climate in the classroom. As Dörnyei (2001: 136) claims: "Some of the most motivating teachers often rely on a few basic techniques!"

6. 3. 2 Interview

The interview was conducted after each 5 lessons observed. The interview and my recordings from the observation sheets revealed certain factors affecting the lessons. Four factors were found. These appeared in thirteen lessons. Five lessons were influenced by the fact, that the teacher did not feel well, during another five lessons two halves of a class were merged and one lesson was influenced by both of these factors. Two lessons were influenced by 'Three little Barbaras', three girls in white costumes with the bells ringing as they were walking round the classes, reciting a poem and giving small presents. The teacher also commented on the weather change when the pupils became less active and cooperative.

Many factors can change the course of the lesson and the teacher has to deal with them. Comparing the data, the teacher employed less motivational strategies when the influencing factors appeared in the lesson. While 6 strategies at average appeared in the unaffected lesson, four strategies appeared when the influencing factors mentioned above occurred.

Concerning the effectiveness, more off-task behaviour occurred, but according to the criteria for evaluating, the strategies were still successful. The teacher handled all the influenced situations well.

6. 3. 3 Questionnaire

The purpose of administering the frequency questionnaire was to decide the extent to which motivational strategies were actually perceived to be used in the second language classroom. The following are the results of the questionnaire:

1. Do you whet the pupils' appetite about the content of the task?

never	hardly ever	sometimes	often	always	total
0	1	2	26	8	37

2. Do you explain the purpose and utility of a task?

never	hardly ever	sometimes	often	always	total
0	2	11	17	7	37

3. Is it always possible to make sure that pupils receive sufficient assistance? (e.g. guidance and help while working on the task..)

\		0			
never	hardly ever	sometimes	often	always	total
0	3	17	17	0	37

4. Can you always pay attention and listen to each of them?

	7 1 7		J		
never	hardly ever	sometimes	often	always	total
0	10	16	11	0	37

5. Is it possible for you to accept pupils without necessarily approving of everything he/she does? ('Loving the sinner, not the sin')

never	hardly ever	sometimes	often	always	total
0	1	13	19	4	37

6. To what extent do you accept humour in your lessons?

never	hardly ever	sometimes	often	always	total
0	0	10	23	4	37

7. Do you yourself bring humour in?

never	hardly ever	sometimes	often	always	total
0	1	18	18	0	37

8. Do you select tasks that yield tangible, finished products? (e.g. poster...)

neve	er hardly eve	, ,,	often	always	total
1	7	26	3	0	37

9. Do you find it possible to include pupils in designing and running the course?

never	hardly ever	sometimes	often	always	total
1	17	17	2	0	37

10. Do you make task content attractive by adapting it to the students' natural interests or by including novel, intriguing, exotic, humorous, competitive or fantasy elements?

never	hardly ever	sometimes	often	always	total
0	3	22	12	0	37

11. Do you relate the subject matter to everyday experiences and backgrounds of pupils? (e.g. including learners' own lives 'How would you do it at home?')

Î	never	hardly ever	sometimes	often	always	total
	0	7	15	15	0	37

12. Do you provide contact with L2 speakers and L2 cultural products?

(e.g. magazines, music, TV recordings, videos..)

never	hardly ever	sometimes	often	always	total
0	9	15	11	2	37

13. Do you include a sociocultural component in the lesson? (cross-cultural similarities, interesting/relevant aspects of L2 culture, discuss the stereotypes and prejudices..)

never	hardly ever	sometimes	often	always	total
0	12	19	6	0	37

14. Do you ask pupils to conduct their own exploration of the L2 community?

(e.g. internet, books, ...)

never	hardly ever	sometimes	often	always	total
0	17	11	9	0	37

15. Do you set up tasks in which teams of learners are asked to work together towards the same goal?

never	hardly ever	sometimes	often	always	total
0	9	15	13	0	37

16. Do you promote the building of stable groups?

(encourage learners to give the group name, invent group symbols, mottoes, logos...)

never	hardly ever	sometimes	often	always	total
8	16	10	3	0	37

17. Do you provide pupils with some 'social training' to learn how best to work in team? (e.g. listening to each other, giving reasons in argument, organising the team's work...)

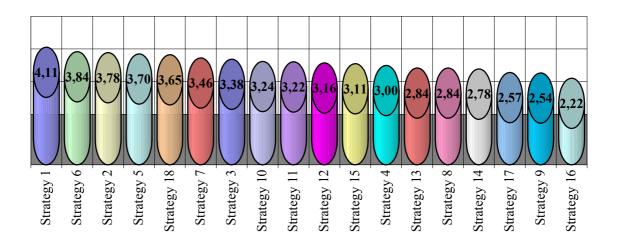
never	hardly ever	sometimes	often	always	total
5	14	10	8	0	37

18. Do you draw your learners' attention to their strengths and abilities?

never	hardly ever	sometimes	often	always	total
0	2	11	22	2	37

The following graph lists the motivational strategies in order of the mean frequency from the most to the least employed:

Graph 3: Frequency statictics



First, I would like to list and discuss the strategies from the most used to the most underutilized. The most used strategies are numbers 1, 6, 2, 5 and 18 and the most underutilized strategies numbers 16, 9, 17 and 14. For the better orientation I list the strategies below:

The most used motivational strategies:

- 1: "Whet the pupils' appetite about the content of the task."
- 6: "Accept the humour in the classroom."
- 2: "Explain the purpose and utility of a task."
- 5: "Accept pupils without necessarily approving of everything he/she does.('Loving the sinner, not the sin')"
- 18: "Draw your learners' attention to their strengths and abilities."

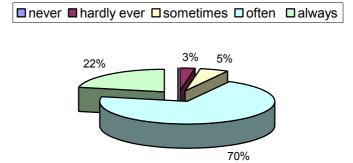
The most underutilized motivational strategies:

- 16: "Promote the building of a stable group (encourage learners to give the group's name, invent group symbols, mottoes, logos...)."
- 9: "Enlist the pupils in designing and running the course."
- 17: "Provide pupils with some 'social training' to learn how best to work in team (e.g. listening to each other, giving reasons in argument, organising the team's work...)."
- 14: "Encourage learners to conduct their own exploration of the L2 community (e.g. on the internet..)."

The results indicate that the most used strategy is <u>strategy number 1</u>:

Graph 4: Strategy number 1

"Whet the pupils' appetite about the content of the task."

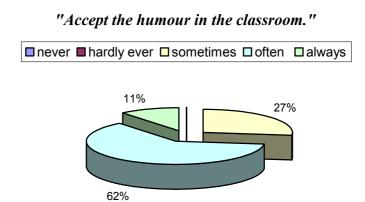


According to *graph 4*, most of the teachers value and use this strategy in their everyday practice. Many teachers commented in the questionnaire that though it is not effective in all the cases, they try to encourage pupils every time before starting another task.

We all need encouragement in what we do and the children need it even more. Not all of the activities are popular during lesson but even the most boring ones can be at least a little bit more entertaining. Dörnyei (2001: 80) recommends for example a twist to routine activities such as whispering the drill or he advises that the teacher can ask pupils to guess the oncoming activity.

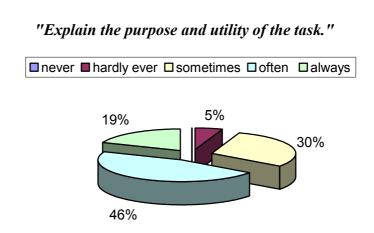
The second most used strategy is <u>strategy number 6</u>.

Graph 5: Strategy number 6



From the *graph 5* is clear that most of the teachers accept the humour in the classroom. As has been already mentioned, humour can help significantly in the lesson. On the other hand, many teachers emphasized that they are willing to accept it if the jokes are not offensive, rude or vulgar.

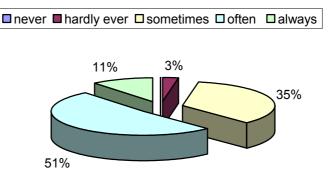
Graph 6: Strategy number 2



Graph 6 shows that the teachers are fully aware of the importance of this strategy. On the other hand some of them mentioned in the questionnaire that they sometimes prefer to let the pupils themselves to discover the aim. This is also useful. It depends on teacher's consideration of what is more suitable.

Graph 7: Strategy number 5

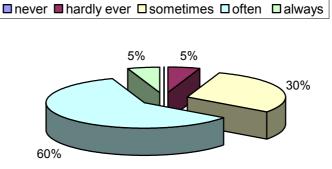
"Accept pupils without necessarily approving of everything he/she does (Loving the sinner, not the sin')."



Graph 7 shows that most of the teachers accept the pupils as they are, without judging them accordingly to their behaviour. Some teachers commented that the behaviour of pupils is not taken into consideration and that it does not influence the realationship among them and the pupils. However, some of them also mentioned that sometimes it is not that easy to do so, for example when the particular pupil disturbs the lesson constantly.

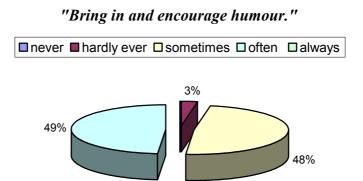
Graph 8: Strategy number 18

"Draw your learners' attention to their strengths and abilities"



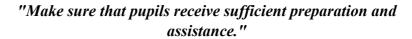
As can be seen from $graph \ 8$, most of the teachers communicate the strengths and abilities to their pupils. This kind of feedback is a very potent factor in motivating pupils. Many teachers commented that this builds the pupils' confidence, encourages them in their effort which can followingly lead to success.

Graph 9: Strategy number 7

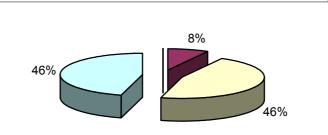


Graph 9 illustrates that most of the teachers often use the humour themselves. Some of them added that they could not imagine their teaching without it and that it helps them immensely. Of course the extent of the usage depends on the teacher's nature and on his/her consideration whether it is appropriate or not at the certain situation.

Graph 10: Strategy number 3



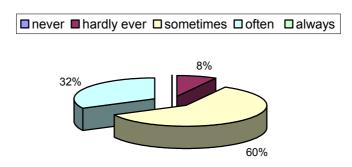
□ never □ hardly ever □ sometimes □ often □ always



From the *graph 10* can be concluded that most of the teachers are sometimes able to provide assistance for their pupils. The teachers' comments revealed the main factor which lowers the use of this strategy, the size of the group. It is clear that the teachers have more time for each pupil in smaller groups.

Graph 11: Strategy number 10

"Make task content attractive by adapting it to the pupils' natural interests or by inlcuding novel, intriquing, exotic, humorous, competitive or fantasy elements."

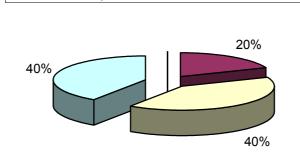


The commentary of teachers included mostly the use of game and competitive elements. Some of the comments included the factor which holds this strategy down. This factor is once again the lack of time.

Graph 12: Strategy number 11

"Relate the subject matter to the everyday experiences and backgrounds of the pupils."

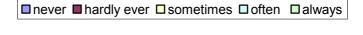
□ never □ hardly ever □ sometimes □ often □ always

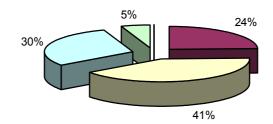


Graph 12 shows that teachers appreciate this strategy. Many of the teachers commented that they try to use it whenever it is appropriate. They added that it is much easier for pupils to work when the topic concerns them and their everyday life.

Graph 13: Strategy number 12

"Promote contact with L2 speakers and L2 products."

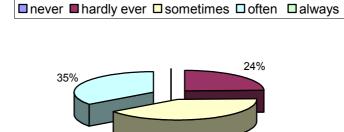




Most of the teachers stated that they provide this contact through the course book, its recordings and articles. In addition, many of them use their own resources such as songs and DVD films. They also use the modern magazines which are provided by school. Two teachers mentioned a trip to London where pupils had the opportunity to meet the native speakers.

Graph 14: Strategy number 15

"Set up tasks in which teams of learners are asked to work together towards the same goal."



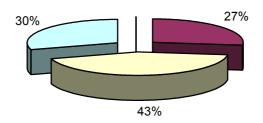
41%

The reasons for underutilization, mentioned in the commentaries, include the worries of noise and off-task behaviour which can appear when working with groups of learners. The teachers mentioned that it is difficult for them to monitor if all the groups are working on the task or not, especially with more pupils in the class.

Graph 15: Strategy number 4

"Pay attention and listen to each of the pupils."

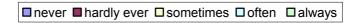


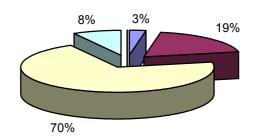


This strategy use was influenced by the same factor as in strategy number 3, number of the pupils. The teachers commented that it is difficult for them to pay attention and listen to each of their pupils when there is more of them in the classroom.

Graph 16: Strategy number 8

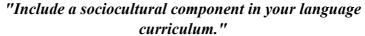
"Select tasks that yield tangible, finished products."

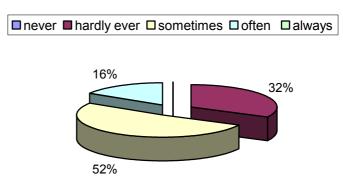




Many teachers commented that to use this strategy is quite time consuming and therefore they do not use it more often. They mentioned that the reason is also the fact that some pupils do not appreciate it and tend to underestimate it.

Graph 17: Strategy number 13

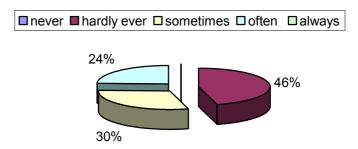




According to teachers' responses, this strategy is used occasionally. They mentioned that they use it when the topic is suitable and they also mentioned the time factor which plays a considerable role. Some of them claimed that they use it more when there is enough time to do so.

Graph 18: Strategy number 14

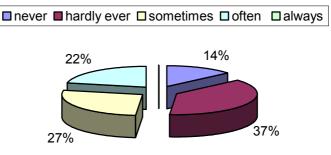
"Encourage learners to conduct their own exploration of the L2 community."



Examining graph 18, it can be seen that most of the teachers answered that they 'hardly ever' use this strategy. The teachers' comments can help to explain this underutilization. Some of them mentioned that it depends on the particular class and that some pupils are not very keen on their own exploration.

Graph 19: Strategy number 17

"Provide pupils with some 'social training' to learn how best to work in team."

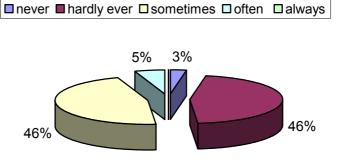


The explanation of the underutilization may lie in the nature of the strategy. As teachers commented, pupils do not need this training every time when they cooperate in the groupwork. Teachers themselves consider when the team works well and when the advice is needed. The classes and pupils differ and the teachers consider it individually.

The next graph illustrates the percentual rates of the <u>strategy number 9</u>.

Graph 20: Strategy number 9

"Enlist the pupils in designing and running the course."

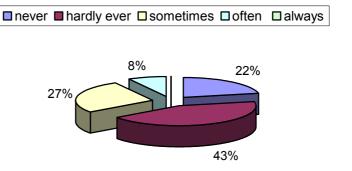


The main reason for underutilization of this strategy is, according to the teachers' comments, mostly lack of time. Many teachers are worried that they would not be able to cover the prescribed tasks and activities during the lesson if they used it more often. Some of them added that it is possible to realize it only with certain classes as some pupils are not willing to prepare anything themselves.

The most significantly underutilized strategy is <u>strategy number 16</u>: "Promote the building of a stable group (encourage learners to give the group name, invent group symbols, mottoes, logos...)."

Graph 21: Strategy number 16

"Promote the building of a stable group and its legend."



Examining graph 20, it can be seen that most of the teachers underutilize this strategy. As Dörnyei (2001: 44) claims, this strategy helps to create a cohesive learner group where pupils should have the feeling of belonging and simultaneously the commitment to the group and others. It certainly has its benefits. The teachers' comments can help when explaining the reasons for underutilization. Some of them are afraid of the certain disadvantages of groupwork such as noise and more off-task behaviour. They also mentioned the problems which could arise from the longer cooperation of the same pupils, namely, one group could be stronger that the other. In addition, some of the teachers wrote that they rather prefer pairwork.

The questionnaires revealed the most used and underutilized strategies of teachers. Among the most used strategies belong numbers 1, 6, 2, 5 and 18 and the most overlooked numbers 16, 9, 17 and 14. As has been stated in observation, teachers have a certain repertoire of strategies which they use regularly depending on their teaching style and character. However, it should be pointed out that the questionnaires could offer only a tentative ranking of the various motivational strategies, since teacher beliefs may not coincide with actual strategy occurrence.

The results of this research might help teachers to realize which strategies they usually employ and it might also suggest strategies which may eventually be added and employed in their teaching practice to enrich it. It should be reiterated that the good teacher does not need to use all of the strategies to be effective. Each teacher has his/her own teaching style and strategies which best suits him/her.

When answering the questionnaire, many teachers commented on reasons which affect and lower their use of motivational strategies. These were mainly lack of time and also the pupils' off-task behaviour and unwillingness to cooperate.

It is difficult to generalize about the results due to the limitations already listed. However, I will compare and comment on the most sigificant differences in the results of observation and questionnaires and explain the possible reasons for this differences on two examples. I would like to mention two strategies here. Strategy 3: "Make sure that pupils receive sufficient preparation and assistance (e.g. guidance and help while working on the task..). " and 10: "Make task content attractive by adapting it to the pupils' natural interests or by including novel, intriguing, exotic, humorous, competitive or fantasy elements." During the observation, these two strategies were noted as the most used while in the case of questionnaires, teachers responded that they use it regularly but the strategies were not the most utilized ones. This could be explained by the distinct teaching styles and personality of teachers. Each teacher uses a specific set of strategies according to his/her personal belief of what works best in the particular situation.

Concerning strategy 3, it can be difficult to employ with large class sizes. Most of the teachers responding to the questionnaire commented that they often teach bigger groups of pupils and therefore it is much harder to ensure sufficient assistance. On the

other hand, the teacher observed usually works with smaller groups. This explains the difference.

To conclude each teacher uses a particular set of strategies corresponding to his teaching style and character. Different strategies work for different teacher and situation. There are also many factors that influence strategies teachers employ in their everyday teaching practice and it should be also emphasized at this point that no motivational strategy has absolute and general value. The strategies are implemented in dynamically changing and diverse learning contexts. There the personality of the individual learners and the teacher, as well as the specifics of the learner group, will always interplay with the effectiveness of the strategy.

7 CONCLUSION

The aim of this thesis was to examine the topic of motivation and motivational strategies. The first part explores motivation on the theoretical level and thus creates a framework for designing the practical inquiry. It introduces the term motivation, various theories of motivation, and its types. It describes the possible factors that might affect learners' motivation and motivational strategies. The theoretical section can serve as a background of the research.

In the practical part, I decided to explore motivational strategies employed by teachers of English with the focus on how frequently they actually made use of these strategies in their teaching practice. In addition, an effort has been made to investigate the effectivness of the strategies.

The results of this research must be regarded as approximate since, to be able to generalize, a much more comprehensive research would be needed. In spite of this fact, I believe that the findings of this study provided readers with some interesting insights into motivation and motivational strategies.

This study has shown that each teacher has his/her repertoire of motivational strategies. These are used according to the teaching style and personality of a particular teacher. Many teachers responding to the questionnaire mentioned factors influencing the strategy use. These are mostly lack of time and a big number of pupils in the lesson. Other frequently stated factors were the off-task behaviour and unwillingness to cooperate which make the teaching much more difficult.

It needs to be emphasized that no motivational strategy has absolute and general value because such strategies are to be implemented in dynamically changing and very diverse learning contexts, in which the personality of the individual learners and the teacher, as well as the composition and structure of the learner group, will always interplay with the effectiveness of the strategy.

The results of this research might serve as a reflection for teachers to realize which strategies are part of their teaching and which strategies could be eventually added and employed to enrich it. It should be reiterated here that the good teacher does not need to use certain set or many of the strategies to be effective. Teachers differ in

their characters and teaching styles and they might employ different strategies which best work just for them.

In conclusion, it has been acknowledged in the paper that motivating pupils is essential in order to ensure academic growth of pupils. The encouragement of motivation make learning a foreign language more efficient and improve the classroom atmosphere. For that reason, it is vital that the motivational strategies be fostered and enhanced. The effective use of motivational strategies in the English language classroom help to develop pupils' curiosity, motivation and lifelong love of learning.

RESUMÉ

Předložená diplomová práce se zabývá tématem motivace a motivační strategie v kontextu základní školy. Mezi stále palčivější problémy učitelů v současné škole patří nedostatečná motivace žáků. Mnohdy je velmi obtížné žáky motivovat a zaujmout pro aktivní učební činnost. Motivace se zdá být jedním z nejčastěji diskutovaných témat. Nejen z těchto důvodů jsem cítila potřebu zabývat se touto problematikou, stalo se tak i proto, že motivovat žáky bylo jedním z nejpodstatnějších úkolů v prvním roce mé učitelské praxe.

Práce se skládá ze dvou částí - teoretické a praktické. Problematika motivace je značně rozsáhlá a doposud zdaleka ne uzavřená. Existuje k ní řada přístupů, uplatňujících různé výkladové principy. Úvodní kapitola práce prezentuje některé z tradičních teorií motivace až po ty současné. Ty současné jsou především ovládány teoretickou orientací kognitivního přístupu, chápající motivaci jako výsledek funkce poznávacích procesů. Pod kongnitivním přístupem se skrývá překvapivě velké množství teorií a subteorií motivace, které se snaží popsat celou různorodou škálu motivů, které mohou potencionálně ovlivňovat naše chování. Každá teorie motivace dává sama o sobě smysl a tvoří ucelenou soustavu, ale mnohdy jedna druhé odporuje či jedna druhou ignoruje. Absolutizovat kterýkoliv z těchto přístupů by představovalo jednostranný pohled na složitý systém lidské motivace. Eklektický přístup se v tomto případě zdá být nejpříhodnějším řešením.

Druhá kapitola vymezuje termín motivace z pohledu několika autorů. Z dostupné literatury je zřejmé, že rozliční autoři interpretují pojem motivace odlišně a jejich přístupy se liší. Motivaci lze nicméně chápat jako souhrn činitelů, které podněcují, energizují a řídí průběh chování člověka a jeho prožívání ve vztahu k okolnímu světu a k sobě samému.

Motivace učit se cizímu jazyku pramení z mnoha různých zdrojů. Těmi se zabývá další kapitola. Tyto zdroje se dají rozdělit na zdroje vnější (extrinsické) a vnitřní (intrinsické). Intrinsická motivace je typ motivace, který pochází z jedince samého, naopak extrinsická motivace je ta, která je jedinci poskytována jeho okolím. Extrinsická motivace zahrnuje faktory, jakými jsou školní známkování, testy a zkoušení. Vnitřní motivace znamená, že se žáci aktivně zapojují do činnosti, aniž by za to dostávali odměny. Kapitola zmiňuje také další rozdělení motivace, integrativní a instrumentální.

Pojem integrativní motivace označuje princip, kdy se žák chce učením jazyka identifikovat s řečovou komunitou daného jazyka. Instrumentální motivaci nalézáme u žáků, kteří se cizí jazyk učí kvůli funkčnímu cíli, například ke složení zkoužky nebo získání práce.

Následující text kapitoly věnuje pozornost některým z faktorů ovlivňující žákovu motivaci. Prvním diskutovýným faktorem je klima třídy. Klima třídy může mít zásadní vliv na motivaci žáků a jejich postoj k učení. Dörnyei (2001: 41) rozděluje prostředí třídy na fyzické a psychické. Žák by se měl ve třídě cítit bezpečně jak po fyzické tak po psychické stránce. Harmonické klima napomáhá procesu učení tím, že vytvoří a udržuje kladné postoje žáků k výuce a také k jejich vnitřní motivaci.

Dalšími důležitými faktory jsou role učitele a jeho očekávání. Učitelé hrají v životě žáků významnou roli. Pro některé se učitel může stát důležitým modelem. Učitelé mohou působit příznivě nebo naopak nepříznivě svou osobností, vztahem k žákům a komunikací. Učitel by měl žákům důvěřovat a očekávat že budou úspěšní. Svá očekávání učitel žákům sděluje vědomě, ale může být sdělováno i nevědomě. Toto nevědomé sdělování se může projevovat při jednání se žáky. Pokud učitel očekává že žák bude úspěšný, dává mu to najevo buď slovně nebo chováním. Učitel například vyvolává žáka častěji, častěji ho chválí a dává mu více prostoru projevit se v hodině. Pokud ale učitel očekává neúspěch žáka, může se to projevit opačnými projevy chovaní. Žák je méně vyvoláván, není mu dán dostatečný prostor pro odpověď a samozřejmě je méně chválen a oceňován.

Z očekávání učitele vychází žákova sebedůvěra. Mnoho žáků je neúspěšná, protože si nedůvěřuje. Pokud žák nevěří ve své schopnosti a domnívá se, že nemůže být úspěšný, v hodinách pak ani není aktivní. Jedním z učitelových úkolů je podpořit žákovu sebedůvěru, dokázat mu, že může uspět a chválit ho i za malé úspěchy.

Na předešlé dva faktory ovlivňující žákovu motivaci navazuje další. Jedná se o roli úspěchu a neúspěchu žáka. Úspěch dodává důvěru v sebe sama a jistotu. Úspěšný žák se pouští do zadaných úkolů s větší chutí a nadšením a to se potom odráží v jeho výsledcích. Neúspěch hraje v edukačním procesu rovněž svoji roli a ne vždy negativní, jak by se mohlo zdát. I neúspěch může motivovat k většímu úsilí a to může následně vést k úspěchu. Nicméně pokud je neúspěch žákem zakoušen častěji, může to snížit jeho sebedůvěru, která pak mnohdy vede k rezignaci a tak k dalším neúspěchům.

Dalším faktorem je zpětná vazba. Zpětná vazba je jednou ze základních podmínek efektivního učení a velice záleží na tom, jakým způsobem je učitelem sdělována. Zpětná vazba může být pozitivní a negativní.

Následujícím faktorem je pozornost učitele, která je věnována žákům. Harmer (1998: 16) uvádí, že učitel by měl být pozorný k žákům a k jejich činnostem a pocitům stejně intenzivně jako se věnuje vyučování. Skutečnost, že se učitel žákům věnuje nasvědčuje tomu, že učitel má o ně zájem, že mají jeho podporu a mohou mu důvěřovat.

Rovněž je velice důležité žákům vysvětlit cíl učiva a k čemu se jim probíraná látka může hodit. Žáci jsou daleko více motivovanější pokud tuto informaci mají. Samozřejmě není pokaždé nutné připomínat cíl a někdy je výhodnější nechat žáky samotné, aby na něj přišli. To samozřejmě závisí na vhodnosti použití a učitelově rozhodnutí.

Skupinová práce je zmiňována jako další. Ačkoli má skupinová práce své nevýhody (větší hluk, žáci mohou lehce sklouznout k rodnému jazyku..) nabízí i spoustu výhod. Například napomáhá samostatné práci a rozhodování žáků, žáci se učí spolupráci a ve skupině je pro žáky méně stresující vyjádřit svůj názor než před celou třídou.

Dalším diskutovaným faktorem je nadšení učitele pro svou práci, které může být následně přeneseno i na žáky. Svým zaujetím pro vyučováný předmět může učitel probudit zájem žáků o danou látku a ti pak mají větší motivaci a chuť do učení.

Záverečným faktorem je zmiňován humor ve třídě. Vyučování je jistě příjemnější, když dává prostor humoru a veselým zážitkům. Humor může významně napomoci k vytvoření uvolněné a přátelské atmosféry.

Poslední kapitola teoretické části se zabývá motivačními strategiemi se kterými bude pracováno v praktické části. Motivační strategie jsou takové strategie, které podněcují zájem žáků. Žáci jsou více motivovaní a dosahují tak lepších výsledků. Dörnyei (2001) v knize "Motivational strategies in the language classroom" uvádí více než sto motivačních strategií, které mohou být učiteli užity při vyučování. Všechny strategie, které Dörnyei uvádí ve své knize jsou uvedeny v příloze 1.

Praktická část si klade za cíl zjistit jaké z osmnácti vybraných motivačních strategií jsou používány učiteli druhého stupně základních škol a s jakým úspěchem. Formou výzkumu bylo zvoleno pozorování, rozhovor a dotazník pro učitele.

Během třiceti pozorování, kdy byl sledován jeden učitel, byl zjištěn výskyt a úspěšnost motivačních strategií, který sice není plně reprezentativní co do četnosti pozorování, ale i tak je pohledem do daného tématu. Celkem bylo zaznamenáno 146 strategií. Data získaná během výzkumu byla zaznamenána do záznamového archu. Ten zachycoval údaje o tom, jaké ze sledovaných strategií byli použity a rovněž jaké chování žáků následovalo, z čehož byla později hodnocena úspěšnost strategií. Záznamový arch byl dále doplněn o informace týkající se třídy, počtu žáků v hodině, datumu a čase. Zaznamenávány byly také případné faktory, které mohly ovlivňovat obvyklý chod hodiny. Ukázku záznamového archu najdete v příloze 2.

Všechny z osmnácti strategií byli úspěšné a mezi nejpoužívanější patřili strategie číslo 3: "Zajistěte žákům dostatečnou pomoc." 10: "Zatraktivňujte náplň výuky jejím přizpůsobením zájmům žáka." 2: "Vysvětlujte cíl a význam učiva." a 18: "Upozorňujte žáky na jejich schopnosti a silné stránky." Nejméně používané strategie byli 17: "Zajistěte žákům trénink, jak nejlépe pracovat v týmu." 14: "Zahrnujte žáky do průzkumu kultury země učeného jazyka." 8: "Zařazujte cvičení, kde je výsledkem dokončená hmotná věc." a 6: "Akceptujte humor ve třídě."

Po každých pěti odpozorovaných hodinách hodinách následoval rozhovor s učitelem, jehož cílem bylo zjistit nebo vyvrátit faktory, které mohly ovlivnit průběh výuky. Když byly diskutovýny faktory ovlivňující motivaci v teoretické rovině, jasně vyplynulo, že na motivaci působí celá řada vzájemně propojených faktorů. Interview odhalilo čtyři faktory, které ovlivnily průběh výuky. Jedná se o velké množství žáků ve třídě (učitel spojoval obě poloviny třídy), zdravotní problémy učitele, jeden den byli žáci vyrušováni třemi Barborkami (mladšími žákyněmi v kostýmech, které chodily po budově školy, cinkaly zvonečky a rozdávaly dárečky) a učitel rovněž zmínil změnu počasí, kdy byli žáci unavení a evidentně méně aktivní. Z výzkumu vyplynulo, že učitel použil méně strategií, když byla hodina ovlivněna výše zmíněnými faktory. Zatímco v hodinách bez ovlivňujících faktorů se průměrně objevilo 6 strategií, v ovlivněných hodinách to byli 4.

Na dotazníky odpovídalo celkem 37 učitelů druhého stupně základní školy (z toho 33 žen a 4 muži). Délka učitelské praxe se pohybovala od 2 do 28 let. Respondenti měli za úkol označit na pětibodové Likertově škále jak často dané strategie používají.

Mezi nejpoužívanější strategie patří čísla 1: "Povzbuzujte chuť žáků k učivu." 6: "Akceptujte humor ve třídě." 2: "Vysvětlujte cíl a význam učiva." 5: "Přijímejte žáka bez bezpodmínečného pozusování každého jejího/jeho činu." 18: "Upozorňujte žáky na jejich schopnosti a silné stránky." a nejméně užívané 16: "Zajistěte žákům trénink, jak nejlépe pracovat v týmu.", 9: "Zahrnujte žáky do plánování a vedení hodiny." a 17: "Zajistěte žákům trénink, jak nejlépe pracovat v týmu." Zde je nicméně nutno podotknout, že validita dotazníkového šetření je vždy ohrožena některými faktory a bylo by tedy vhodné tyto výstupy ověřit dalším šetřením.

Dotazník byl doplněn o prostor pro případný komentář u každé strategie, kde učitelé většinou uváděli důvody proč používájí strategie méně nebo vůbec. Studie ukazuje, že hlavním důvodem pro nepoužívání motivačních technik je nedostatek času, nespolupráce žáků a učitelé se dále obávají nevhodného chování žáků.

V praktické části byl rovněž učiněn pokus srovnat a zdůvodnit rozdíly zjištěných výsledků pozorování a dotazníků. Z výzkumu vyplývá, že každý učitel má svůj repertoár motivačních strategií, které používá ve svých hodinách podle jeho osobnosti a filosofie učení. Každý učitel využívá ty strategie, které se osvědčili právě jemu/jí jako efektivní a které vyhovují dané situaci. Přínos tohoto výzkumu autorka vidí v možné reflexi učitelů, kteří si tak mohou uvědomit, které strategie běžně používají a které ze strategií využívají málo nebo vůbec a které by případně mohli zařadit do svého vyučování a tím ho obohatit.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1 — Motivational strategies

Appendix 2 — Observation sheet

Appendix 3A – Questionnaire (English version)

Appendix 3B – Questionnaire (Czech version)

Appendix 1 - Motivational strategies

Motivational Strategies

MOTIVATIONAL CER A TRICKIEG CREATERING THE RANGE	1
MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES: CREATING THE BASIC	
MOTIVATIONAL CONDITIONS	
1 Demonstrate and talk about your own enthusiasm for the course	
material, and how it affects you personally.	
Share your own personal interest in the L2 with your students.	
Show students that you value L ₂ learning as a meaningful experience that	
produces satisfaction and enriches your life.	
2 Take the students' learning very seriously.	
Show students that you care about their progress.	
Indicate your mental and physical availability for all things academic.	
Have sufficiently high expectations for what your students can achieve.	
3 Develop a personal relationship with your students.	
Show students that you accept and care about them.	
Pay attention and listen to each of them.	
Indicate your mental and physical availability.	
4 Develop a collaborative relationship with the students' parents.	
Keep parent regularly informed about their children's progress	
Ask for their assistance in performing certain supportive tasks at home.	
5 Create a pleasant and supportive atmosphere in the classroom.	
Establish a norm of tolerance.	
Encourage risk-taking and have mistakes accepted as a natural part of	
learning	
Bring in and encourage humour.	
Encourage learners to personalise the classroom environment according to	
their taste.	
6 Promote the development of group cohesiveness.	
Try and promote interaction, cooperation and the sharing of genuine	
personal information among the learners.	
Use ice-breakers at the beginning of a course.	
Regularly use small-group tasks where students can mix.	
Encourage and if possible organise extracurricular activities and outings.	
Try and prevent the emergence of rigid seating patterns.	
Include activities that lead to the successful completion of whole-group	
tasks or involve small-group competition games.	
Promote the building of a group legend.	
7 Formlulate group norms explicitly, and have them discussed and	
accepted by the learners.	
Include a specific 'group rules' activity at the beginning of a group's life to	
establish the norms explicitly.	
Explain the importance of the norms you mandate and how they enhance	
learning, and ask for the students' agreement	
Elicit suggestions for additional rules from the learners and discuss these in	
the same way as the rules you have proposed.	

Put the group rules (and the consequences for violating them) on display.	
8 Have the group norms consistently observed.	
Make sure that you yourself observe the established norms consistently.	
Never let any violations go unnoticed.	

MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES: GENERATIG INITIAL MOTIVATION	
9 Promote the learners' language-related values by presenting peer role	
models.	
Invite senior students to talk to your class about their positive experience.	
Feedback to the students the views of their peers, e.g. in the form of a class	
newsletter.	
Associate your learners with peers (e.g. in group or project work) who are enthusiastic about the subject.	
10 Raise the learners' intrinsic interest in the L2 learning process.	
Highlight and demonstrate aspects of L ₂ learning that your students are	
likely to enjoy.	
Make the first encounters with the L ₂ a positive experience.	
11 Promote 'integrative' values by encouraging a positive and	
open-minded disposition towards the L2 and its speakers, and towards	
foreignness in general.	
Include a sociocultural component in your language curriculum.	
Quote positive views about language learning by influential public figures.	
Encourage learners to conduct their own exploration of the L ₂ community	
(e.g. on the internet).	
Promote contact with L ₂ speakers and L ₂ cultural products.	
12 Promote the students' awareness of the instrumental values	
associated with the knowledge of an L2.	
Regularly remind students that the successful mastery of the L ₂ is	
instrumental to the accomplishment of their valued goals.	
Reiterate the role the L ₂ plays in the world, highlighting its potential	
usefulness both for themselves and their community.	
Encourage the learners to apply their L ₂ proficiency in real-life situations.	
13 Increase the students' expectancy of succes in particular tasks and in	
learning in general.	
Make sure that they receive sufficient preparation and assistance.	
Make sure they know exactly what success in the task involves.	
Make sure that there are no serious obstacles to success.	
14 Increase your students' goal-orientedness by formulating explicit class	
goals accepted by them.	
Have the students negotiate their individual goals and outline a common	
purpose, and display the final outcome in public.	
Draw attention form time to time to the class goals and how particular	
activities help to attain them.	
Keep class goals achievable by re-negotiating if necessary.	
15 Make the curriculum and the teaching materials relevant to the	
students.	

Use needs analysis techniques to find out about your students' needs, goals and interests, and then build these into your curriculum as much as	
possible.	
.	
Relate the subject matter to the everyday experiences and backgrounds of	
the students.	
Enlist the students in designing and running the course.	
16 Help to create realistic learner beliefs.	
Positively confront the possible erroneous beliefs, expectations, and	
assumptions that learners may have.	
Raise the learners' general awareness about the different ways languages	
are learnt and the number of factors that can contribute to succes.	

MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES: MAINTAINING AND PROTECTING	
MOTIVATION	
17 Make learning more stimulating and enjoyable by breaking the	
monotony of classroom events.	
Vary the learning tasks and other aspects of your teaching as much as you	
can.	
Focus on the motivational flow and not just the information flow in your	
class.	
Occasionally do the unexpected.	
18 Make learning stimulating and enjoyable for the learner by increasing	
the attractiveness of the tasks.	
Make tasks challenging.	
Make task content attractive by adapting it to the students' natural interests	
or by including novel, intriguing, exotic, humorous, competitive or fantasy	
elements.	
Personalise learning tasks.	
Select tasks that yield tangible, finished products.	
19 Make learning stimulating and enjoyable for the learners by enlisting	
them as active task participants.	
Select tasks which require mental and/or bodily involvement from each	
participant.	
Create specific roles and personalised assignments for everybody.	
20 Present and administer tasks in a motivating way.	
Explain the purpose and utility of a task.	
Whet the students' appetite about the content of the task.	
Provide appropriate strategies to carry out the task.	
21 Use goal-setting methods in your classroom.	
Encourage learners to select specific, short-term goals for themselves.	
Emphasise goal completion deadlines and offer ongoing feedback.	
22 Use contracting methods with your students to formalise their goal	
commitment.	
Draw up a detailed written agreement with individual students, or whole	
groups, that specifies what they will learn and how, and the ways by which	
you will help and reward them.	
Monitor student progress and make sure that the details of the contract are	

observed by both parties.	
23 Provide learners with regular experiences of success.	
Provide multiple opportunities for success in the language class.	
Adjust the difficulty level of tasks to the students' abilities and	
counterbalance demanding tasks with managable ones.	
Design tests that focus on what learners can rather than cannot do, and also	
include improvement options.	
24 Build your learners' confidence by providing regular encouragement.	
Draw your learners' attention to their strengths and abilities.	
Indicate to your students that you believe in their effort to learn and their	
capability to complete the tasks.	
25 Help diminish language anxiety by removing or reducing the anxiety-	
provoking elements in the learning environment.	
Avoid social comparison, even in its subtle forms.	
Promote cooperation instead of competition.	
Help learners accept the fact that they will make mistakes as part of the	
learning process. Make tests and assessment completely 'transparent' and involve students	
in the negotiation of the final mark.	
26 Build your learners' confidence in their learnig abilities by teaching	
them various learner strategies.	
Teach students learning strategies to facilitate the intake of new material.	
Teach students communication strategies to help them overcome	
communication difficulties.	
27 Allow learners to maintain a positive social image while engaged in the	
learning tasks.	
Select activities that contain 'good' roles for the participants.	
Avoid face-threatening acts such as humiliating criticism or putting student	
in the spotlight unexpectedly.	
28 Increase student motivation by promoting cooperation among the	
learners.	
Set up tasks in which teams of learners are asked to work together towards	
the same goal.	
Take into account team products and not just individual products in your assessment.	
Provide students with some 'social training' to learn how best to work in	
team.	
29 Increase student motivation by actively promoting learner autonomy.	
Allow learners real choices about as many aspects of the learning process	
as possible.	
Hand over as much as you can of the various leadership/teaching roles and	
functions to the learners.	
Adopt the role of facilitator.	
30 Increase students' self-motivating capacity.	
Raise your students' awareness of the importance of self-motivation.	
Share with each other strategies that you have found useful in the past.	
Encourage students to adopt, develop and apply self-motivating strategies.	

MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES: ENCOURAGING POSITIVE	
SELF-EVALUATION	1
31 Promote effort attributions in your students.	
Encourage learners to explain their failures by the lack of effort and	
appropriate strategies applied rather than by their insufficient ability.	1
Refuse to accept ability attributions and emphasise that the curriculum is	
within the learners' ability range.	1
32 Provide students with positive information feedback.	1
Notice and react to any positive contributions from your students.	1
Provide regular feedback about the progress your students are making and	
about the areas which they should particularly concentrate on.	
33 Increase learner satisfaction.	
Monitor student accomplishments and progress, and take time to celebrate	
any victory.	
Make student progress tangible by encouraging the production of visual	ı
records and arranging regular events.	
Regularly include tasks that involve the public display of the students'	ı
skills.	1
34 Offer rewards in a motivational manner.	1
Make sure that students do not get too preoccupied with the rewards.	
Make sure that even non-material rewards have some kind of lasting visual	ı
representation.	
Offer rewards for participating in activities that students may get drawn	i
into because they require creative goal-oriented behaviour and offer novel	i
experiences and consistent success.	
35 Use grades in a motivating manner, reducing as much as possible their	i
demotivating impact.	
Make the assessment system completely transparent, and incorporate	i
mechanisms by which the students and their peers can also express their	i
views.	
Make sure that grades also reflect effort and improvement and not just	ı
objective levels of achievement.	
Apply continuous assessment that also relies on measurement tools other	i
than pencil-and-paper tests.	
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Appendix 2 – Observation sheet

MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES

Number of pupil	Date:	Time:
Teacher's action	Pupils' rea	ction – off-task or on- sk behaviour
		Teacher's action Pupils' rea

Influencing factors:

Appendix 3 A	– Questionnair	e (English ver	sion)	
I am female \square	male \square			
Teaching experi	ence (yea	ars)		
Please indicate these strategies	on the Likert type in your lessons.	e scale to what ex	xtent is it possib	le for you to use
Example: <i>Do you explain t</i>	he purpose and uti	• •		
never	hardly ever X	sometimes	often	always
Additional comn	nent or explanation	<i>1</i>		
1. Do you whet the	he pupils' appetite a	about the content sometimes	of the task?	always
ne vei	narary ever	Sometimes	Often	aiways
	nent or explanation n the purpose and u	tility of a task?		
never	hardly ever	sometimes	often	always
Additional comm	nent or explanation			
assistance? (e.g.	t is it possible for y	while working on	the task)	
never	hardly ever	sometimes	often	always
Additional comm	nent or explanation			

4. To what exten	hardly ever	sometimes	often	always
nevei	natury ever	sometimes	Oiten	aiways
Additional comp	nent or explanation	1		
				sarily approving of
everything he/sh	e does? ('Loving tl			
never	hardly ever	sometimes	often	always
Additional comm	nant ar avalanation			
Additional comm	nent or explanation	1		
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6. To what exten	t do you accept hu	mour in vour lesso	ons?	
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Additional comp	nent or explanation	1		
5 D	101 : 1 :	0		
= =	elf bring humour in		often	alwaya
7. Do you yourse never	elf bring humour in hardly ever	sometimes	often	always
never	hardly ever	sometimes	often	always
never		sometimes	often	always
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never	hardly ever	sometimes	often	always
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Additional comm	hardly ever	sometimes		
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Additional comments 8. To what extent poster) never	hardly ever ment or explanation at do you select task hardly ever	sometimes a cs that yield tangib sometimes	ole, finished proc	lucts? (e.g.
Additional comments 8. To what extent poster) never	hardly ever ment or explanation to do you select task	sometimes a cs that yield tangib sometimes	ole, finished proc	lucts? (e.g.
Additional comments 8. To what extent poster) never	hardly ever ment or explanation at do you select task hardly ever	sometimes a cs that yield tangib sometimes	ole, finished proc	lucts? (e.g.
Additional comments 8. To what extent poster) never	hardly ever ment or explanation at do you select task hardly ever	sometimes a cs that yield tangib sometimes	ole, finished proc	lucts? (e.g.
Additional comments 8. To what extent poster) never	hardly ever ment or explanation at do you select task hardly ever	sometimes a cs that yield tangib sometimes	ole, finished proc	lucts? (e.g.
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Additional comments 8. To what extension poster) never Additional comments 9. Do you find it	hardly ever nent or explanation at do you select task hardly ever nent or explanation r possible to include	sometimes as that yield tangib sometimes e pupils in designii	ole, finished proconten	lucts? (e.g. always he course?
8. To what extent poster) never	hardly ever ment or explanation at do you select task hardly ever ment or explanation	sometimes a as that yield tangib sometimes	ole, finished proc often	lucts? (e.g.
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natural interests	or by including i		, , ,	
fantasy elements never	? hardly ever	sometimes	often	always
Additional comn	nent or explanation		1	1
backgrounds of	ent do you relate the pupils? (e.g. includ	2		
home?')				
never	hardly ever	sometimes	often	always
Additional comn	nent or explanation			
12. To what ext	ent is it possible f	or you to provide	e contact with L2	2 speakers and L2
cultural products	? (e.g. magazines,	music, TV record	dings, videos)	•
never	hardly ever	sometimes	often	always
Additional comn	nent or explanation			-
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13 To what ext	ent is it nossible f	for you to include	e a sociocultural	component in the
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stereotypes and p		inicresting/reieva	iii aspects of L2 c	ulture, discuss the
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Additional comm	nent or explanation			
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14. To what exte	nt do you ask pupi	ls to conduct their	r own exploration	of the L2
community?	(e.g.	internet, books, .)	
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	ent is it possible for	-	ks in which teams of	of learners are
never	ogether towards the hardly ever	same goal?	often	always
Additional com	ment or explanation	1		L
16. To what exte	ent is it possible for	you to promote t	the building of stab	le groups?
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	ent is it possible fo			
	to work in team	, ,	to each other, g	iving reasons in
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Roky dosažené	pedagogické praxe	•••••		
	e na Likertově šká edené strategie ve s	-	ry je pro vás m	ožné a skutečno
Příklad : Vysvětlujete vžd	y cíl a užitečnost uč	iva?		
nikdy	málokdy	občas	často	vždy
	X			
Váš případný ko	omentář či vysvětlen	í		
1. Povzbuzujete	chuť žáků k učivu?			
1. Povzbuzujete	chuť žáků k učivu?	občas	často	vždy
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6 Do jaká míry	akaantuista humor	vo třídě?		
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7. Používáte Vy	sami humor při ho málokdy	dině? občas	často	vždy
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nikdy	málokdy	občas	často	vždy
Případný komentá	ř:			•
	máte možnost vzt			
	apř: vlastní zkušer	nosti žáků "Jak l	bys to udělal ty u s	ebe doma?")
nikdy	málokdy	občas	často	vždy
řípadný komentá	ř:			
	máte možnost zaj		-	jejich kulturou
	časopisy, hudba, T		·	
nikdy	málokdy	občas	často	vždy
řípadný komentá	ř:			
1 2				
13. Do jaké míry	máte možnost zah			
13. Do jaké míry podobnosti kultur,	máte možnost zah , zajímavé nebo rel			
3. Do jaké míry odobnosti kultur, ředsudků)	, zajímavé nebo rel	evantní aspekty	druhé kultury, dis	kuze stereotypů
3. Do jaké míry odobnosti kultur,				
3. Do jaké míry odobnosti kultur, ředsudků) nikdy	zajímavé nebo rel málokdy	evantní aspekty	druhé kultury, dis	kuze stereotypů
3. Do jaké míry odobnosti kultur, ředsudků) nikdy	zajímavé nebo rel málokdy	evantní aspekty	druhé kultury, dis	kuze stereotypů
3. Do jaké míry odobnosti kultur, ředsudků) nikdy	zajímavé nebo rel málokdy	evantní aspekty	druhé kultury, dis	kuze stereotypů
3. Do jaké míry odobnosti kultur, ředsudků) nikdy	zajímavé nebo rel málokdy	evantní aspekty	druhé kultury, dis	kuze stereotypů
3. Do jaké míry odobnosti kultur, ředsudků) nikdy	zajímavé nebo rel málokdy	evantní aspekty	druhé kultury, dis	kuze stereotypů
3. Do jaké míry odobnosti kultur, ředsudků) nikdy Případný komentá	zajímavé nebo rel	občas	druhé kultury, dis často	kuze stereotypů vždy
3. Do jaké míry odobnosti kultur, ředsudků) nikdy Případný komentá	rajímavé nebo rel	evantní aspekty občas é zahrnovat žá	často často ky do jejich vlast	kuze stereotypů vždy ního průzkumu
3. Do jaké míry odobnosti kultur, ředsudků) nikdy řípadný komentá	málokdy ř: je pro Vás možn	evantní aspekty občas é zahrnovat žálného jazyka? (1	často často ky do jejich vlast	vždy vždy ního průzkumu
3. Do jaké míry odobnosti kultur, ředsudků) nikdy Případný komentá	rajímavé nebo rel	evantní aspekty občas é zahrnovat žá	často často ky do jejich vlast	kuze stereotypů vždy ního průzkumu
3. Do jaké míry podobnosti kultur, předsudků) nikdy Případný komentá 4. Do jaké míry eznamování se s nikdy	málokdy ř: je pro Vás možn kulturou země učer	evantní aspekty občas é zahrnovat žálného jazyka? (1	často často ky do jejich vlast	vždy ního průzkumu
3. Do jaké míry odobnosti kultur, ředsudků) nikdy řípadný komentá	málokdy ř: je pro Vás možn kulturou země učer	evantní aspekty občas é zahrnovat žálného jazyka? (1	často často ky do jejich vlast	vždy vždy ního průzkumu

spolupracují spole nikdy	málokdy	občas	často	vždy
Případný komentá	iř:			
16. Do jaké míry	ie pro Vás možné	e podporovat trval	ou enolunraci eki	ınin žáků kteří h
		ymboly, loga či m		ipin zaku, kicii o
nikdy	málokdy	občas	často	vždy
Případný komentá	íř:			
	•	a čas zajistit žál	kům trénink, jak	nejlépe pracova
v týmu? (např: r	•		kům trénink, jak	nejlépe pracova
v týmu? (např: r týmové práce)	naslouchání jeder	a čas zajistit žál n druhému, scho	kům trénink, jak pnost argumento	nejlépe pracova vat, organizovár
v týmu? (např: r	•	a čas zajistit žál	kům trénink, jak	nejlépe pracova
v týmu? (např: r rýmové práce) nikdy	naslouchání jeder málokdy	a čas zajistit žál n druhému, scho	kům trénink, jak pnost argumento	nejlépe pracova vat, organizovár
v týmu? (např: r týmové práce) nikdy	naslouchání jeder málokdy	a čas zajistit žál n druhému, scho	kům trénink, jak pnost argumento	nejlépe pracova vat, organizovár
v týmu? (např: r týmové práce) nikdy	naslouchání jeder málokdy	a čas zajistit žál n druhému, scho	kům trénink, jak pnost argumento	nejlépe pracova vat, organizovár
v týmu? (např: r týmové práce) nikdy	naslouchání jeder málokdy	a čas zajistit žál n druhému, scho	kům trénink, jak pnost argumento	nejlépe pracova vat, organizovár
v týmu? (např: r týmové práce)	naslouchání jeder málokdy	a čas zajistit žál n druhému, scho	kům trénink, jak pnost argumento	nejlépe pracova vat, organizovár
v týmu? (např: r týmové práce) nikdy Případný komentá	naslouchání jeder málokdy iř:	a čas zajistit žál n druhému, scho občas	kům trénink, jak pnost argumento často	nejlépe pracova vat, organizovár vždy
v týmu? (např: r týmové práce) nikdy Případný komentá	naslouchání jeder málokdy iř:	a čas zajistit žál n druhému, scho	kům trénink, jak pnost argumento často	nejlépe pracová vat, organizovár vždy
v týmu? (např: r týmové práce) nikdy Případný komentá	málokdy iř: y máte možnost	a čas zajistit žál n druhému, scho občas a čas upozorňova	kům trénink, jak pnost argumento často	nejlépe pracova vat, organizovár vždy
v týmu? (např: r ýmové práce) nikdy Případný komentá	naslouchání jeder málokdy iř:	a čas zajistit žál n druhému, scho občas	kům trénink, jak pnost argumento často	nejlépe pracová vat, organizovár vždy
v týmu? (např: r ýmové práce) nikdy Případný komentá 	málokdy málokdy nř: y máte možnost a málokdy	a čas zajistit žál n druhému, scho občas a čas upozorňova	kům trénink, jak pnost argumento často	nejlépe pracova vat, organizovár vždy
v týmu? (např: r rýmové práce) nikdy Případný komentá	málokdy málokdy nř: y máte možnost a málokdy	a čas zajistit žál n druhému, scho občas a čas upozorňova	kům trénink, jak pnost argumento často	nejlépe pracova vat, organizovár vždy