AKYILDIZ

MOTIVATION AND MOTIVATING TECHNIQUES IN THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN TURKISH UNIVERSITIES
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Project Title: MOTIVATION AND MOTIVATING TECHNIQUES IN THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN TURKISH UNIVERSITIES

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MOTIVATION AND MOTIVATING TECHNIQUES IN
THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN
LANGUAGE IN TURKISH UNIVERSITIES

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THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

BY
SUNDUS AKYILDIZ

August, 1989
I certify that I have read this major project and that in my opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and in quality, as a major project for the degree of Masters of Arts.

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SECTION ONE: INTRODUCTION

Statement of the topic

The topic of this project is the problem of motivation and techniques to improve motivation in the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) in Turkish universities. This paper intends to present practical information that relates to daily classroom instruction based on sound theories of teaching and learning that suit Turkish EFL situations. What EFL teachers need are useful ideas, suggestions, explanations, demonstrations and examples of teaching—strategies that have been supported by leaders in the field of modern language teaching, strategies that are consistent with established theoretical principles and that others in the profession have found to be practical and relevant. It is the recognition of this need that this research paper seeks evidence of an awareness and understanding of current theories of language to help improve motivation in TEFL in Turkish universities. This study also seeks ways to transform theoretical knowledge about motivation into practical applications for the classroom.

Purpose

The purpose of this paper is to focus upon the aspect of motivation in TEFL in Turkey. It has been apparent that motivation
is something often missing in EFL students in Turkey mainly because of their attitudes towards learning the foreign language. Motivation is missing because students view the language not as an aim in itself but as a means to an end and because teachers use inappropriate and ineffective methods and material in the language classroom. Since motivation is a key term for success in learning a foreign language, or any other subject, and since many foreign language classes lack motivation, there arises the need for EFL teachers to find ways to promote motivation in their students. Therefore, this paper attempts to give EFL teachers, or other people in the field of teaching such as the teacher trainee, an insight to enable them to handle the problem of motivation.

As Stevick (1982) states "Making informed choices is what teaching is all about," the purpose of this project is to provide information to teachers and teacher trainees about some motivating techniques of foreign language teaching which are the practical applications to the classroom. This paper intends to provide an understanding of the principles on which the current methods are based and of the motivating techniques associated with those methods. The purpose is not to convince the reader of the superiority of any of them. What is being recommended is that, in the interest of becoming informed about existing choices, teachers can investigate each method or technique. Teachers may
also examine their own beliefs about teaching and learning, and about how they put these into practice. Even those of the readers with a great deal of teaching experience stand to benefit from considering the principles of learning and teaching techniques in terms of motivation.

This paper may also help course designers to establish goals and objectives for EFL programs taking the motivation factor and suggested techniques into consideration.

Method

This research project has been conducted through library research in order to find enough evidence for understanding and using the current theories of language to help improve motivation in TEFL.

The findings based on the survey of the resources have been presented in four sections. The first section introduces the topic, provides a brief rationale for the study and explains briefly what the project is all about. The second section is the literature review in which the term motivation is explained in relation, first, to the theories of learning, second, to the modern theories of language teaching in general, and last, to the teaching of English as a foreign language. The third section consists of suggestions for improving motivation for Turkish students learning English in Turkish universities. The
suggestions include techniques that are found to be motivating and relevant to the explanations in the previous section. The last section is the conclusion containing recommendations and a summary.

In order to conduct the project, an extensive library research has been done. The American Libraries in Ankara and Izmir, the Bilkent University Library, the Bilkent MA TEFL Library, the British Council Library, the Hacettepe University Library, the Middle East Technical University Library, and the USIS Library have been surveyed, in addition to the personal library of the Director of the English Language Teaching Department in Buca Education Faculty of Dokuz Eylül University, to collect all the references used in this paper.

The sources made use of in this paper consist of articles on motivation collected from the *ELT Journal* and *English Teaching Forum*, and books on the profession of teaching English as a second or foreign language. The motivating techniques suggested in the third section are adopted mainly from Moskowitz's *Caring and Sharing in the Foreign Language Class* (1978), Dubin and Olstain's *Facilitating Language Learning* (1977), and articles from the *English Teaching Forum* and *ELT Journal*.

Expectations

As a result of this study, the suggested techniques are
presumed to be effective and are designed to help improve motivation in TEFL in Turkey. The teachers are not expected to abandon the way they teach at present in order to wholly adopt the suggested techniques. However, some techniques will be worthy of their attention. Although certain techniques are associated with particular methods and are derivable from particular principles, most techniques can be adapted to any teaching style and situation.

This collection of techniques is eclectic in nature. It is not intended to present any particular method of language teaching. If the techniques have anything in common, it is that they have proven to be successful and useful, therefore stimulating motivation in particularly adult ESL/EFL learners.

Motivation is a term that depends upon many variables ranging from the learning environment to the learner, some strategies suggested here may work well in a particular classroom whereas some others may not. Thus, this presentation should be recognized as providing suggestions only. Making the utmost use of them is up to the teacher.

SECTION TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

MOTIVATION AND ITS IMPORTANCE IN ELT

Much has been written about motivation in psychological,
educational and linguistic circles. At one level the term motivation refers to complex theories such as Hull’s ideas on drive reduction, Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, Ausubel’s identification of desires or needs of human organisms, and McLelland’s emphasis on achievement. At another level, motivation covers such everyday concepts as what interests a person, what holds one’s attention, or most simply of all, what makes one act. Is what makes one act curiosity, desire or amusement, or simply energy? What does it mean to say that someone is motivated? How does one create, foster, and maintain motivation? Answers to these questions necessitate a detailed understanding of what motivation is, what the subcomponents of motivation are, and what fundamental nature of human psychology relates directly to motivation.

The Meaning of Motivation

Motivation is commonly thought of as "an inner drive, impulse, emotion, or desire that moves one to a particular action," as Brown (1987, p. 114) asserts, and as "the desire for a toy, a coin, or a piece of candy which someone has promised as a reward for satisfactory performance," as superficially referred to by Stevick (1976, p. 48). Put more specifically, motivation is "those factors that energize and direct behavioral patterns organized around a goal" according to Rogers (1986, p. 81).
Rogers considers motivation as "a force within the individual that moves him or her to act in a certain way."

Coinciding with Rogers' definition, Rivers' (1984) assertion is that motivation is "individual," or stated explicitly, "the private domain of the learner" (p. 147). In addition, she clarifies motivation as "natural motivation" which is the "energizing force each living entity possesses." Using the word motive, Lott (1978) describes it as "the factor which incites a person's will to do something." Lott considers the matter of motivation important, continuing: "The more motivated people are to do something the better they will do it" (p. 87).

Making a distinction between motivation and incentive, Dry (1977) defines motivation as "the internal drive" affected by the incentives that refer to external stimuli. For Dry, motivation is

a function of the self-image, which is the assessment, varying in time, made by the individual of his own aptitudes and capacity and of his actual and potential relation to society at all degrees of proximity to and remoteness from himself, compounded of varying, ... of conscious and unconscious beliefs (p. 190).

Chastain (1976) refers to motivation as "achievement motivation" which implies some incentive that causes the individual to participate in activities leading toward a goal and to persevere until the goal is reached (p. 253). Simply stated,
achievement motivation refers to students' effort to learn.

Chastain's statements on what motivation is not are also worth mentioning since they may help clarify some misconceptions about motivation, particularly in language learning/teaching. Chastain states that motivation does not imply fun and games, nor necessarily the task itself. Motivation is not synonymous with either noise or silence. Contrary to the facts, he claims that high motivation is not necessarily beneficial all the time. Poor motivation, conversely, is not necessarily the fault of the teacher since influences on motivation should not be limited to the classroom. He continues that motivation cannot "convert any and all students into superior students." Stating all those 'not's about motivation, Chastain explains what motivation is saying that motivation depends upon many variables. Because motivation implies some inner drive, it is affected by self-concept, values, needs, and goals, by success or failure, by the social environment of the class, by teacher behavior. Motivation also depends upon cognitive and affective-social variables.

All the definitions above entail one dichotomy of motivation that motivation is either intrinsic or extrinsic. This dichotomy needs mentioning here as it may well answer the question "Does the motivation generally stem from within oneself or from other people?," and may enlighten our scope on what motivates our students.
Intrinsic motivation can be defined as the motivation emerging from within oneself, from the "inner pressures and or rational decisions" which create a desire for changes. Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, can be defined as the kind of motivation that is activated by those external incentives or pressures, such as the expectations of parents and the society, school requirements, external rewards and or punishments.

These differences in motivation are cited by Brown (1987) with reference to Kathleen Bailey who illustrated this dichotomy in a figure including integrative and instrumental factors. Instrumental motivation refers to motivation to acquire a language as means for "attaining instrumental goals: furthering a career, reading technical materials, translation, and so forth." Integrative motivation is the motive which is employed when "learners wish to integrate themselves within the culture of the second language group, to identify themselves with and become a part of the society" (Brown, 1987, p.114).

Figure 1 illustrates the dichotomy of motivation. Brown asserts that teachers need to discern the source of student's motivation in order to meet particular needs (p. 369).

Chastain (1976) states that some students are generally motivated intrinsically, others extrinsically. Citing Shwards, Chastain lists the intrinsic motivators as anxiety, need to achieve, self-concept, and aspirations, and the extrinsic motivators as
Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are two distinct modes of motivation. Bailey's (1987) illustration of the dichotomy of motivation highlights the differences between these two modes.

### Table 1: Bailey's Illustration of the Dichotomy of Motivation

<table>
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<th>Intrinsic</th>
<th>Extrinsic</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Integrative</strong></td>
<td>Someone else wishes the L2 learner to know the L2 for integrative reasons (e.g., Japanese parents send kids to Japanese-language school)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2 learner wishes to integrate with the L2 culture (e.g., for immigration or for marriage)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Instrumental</strong></td>
<td>External power wants L2 learner to learn L2 (e.g., corporation sends Japanese businessman to U.S. for language training)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2 learner wishes to achieve goals utilizing L2 (e.g., for a career)</td>
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Figure 1: Bailey's illustration of the dichotomy of motivation (Brown, 1987)

Sociocultural influences and social reinforcers. He also notes that intrinsic modes of motivation emphasize plans, cognitive drive, and need to avoid failure as well, while extrinsic theories stress response reinforcement and behavior modification (p. 73). Rogers (1986) also states that motivation is seen as being dependent on either intrinsic or extrinsic factors. He further suggests moving from motivation based on extrinsic factors to motivation based on intrinsic factors in all forms of education, for example, from a desire to pass an examination to an interest in the subject itself. He continues that one must be careful in this move because even in intrinsic motivation there is a hierarchy of motives. Rogers exemplifies this hierarchy as
follows:

A desire to please some other person that keeps the student attending even when bored with the subject is seen as an intrinsic motive of a lower order than a desire to complete a particular task within the learning context (p. 82).

From the remarks stated above the inference can be made that we must shift our concern to the general theories of motivation in order to understand the fundamental nature of human psychology to serve the purpose of enlightening ourselves in the area of teaching. As language teachers, we must be concerned with theories of general human motivation because we are teaching people, or wholepersons (Moskowitz, 1978) as they are often called in humanistic language teaching circles. Of more specialist relevance are theories of motivation in mother-tongue learning, and in second language acquisition in the target language environment. These ideas may well illuminate our thinking about the far more difficult and usually far less successful business of getting our students to learn a foreign language in the formal environment of an educational institution. EFL teachers need to keep up to date about motivation in education generally, and in foreign language learning specifically as Vincent (1983) suggests.
General Theories of Motivation

There are many theories of motivation among which the
long-standing, but very interesting examples of Maslow’s “needs”
type of motivation, Skinnerian type of learned motivation, and
goal-oriented motivation can be cited. This part of the project
deals with how some theories of motivation and specialists
approach the matter.

Maslow (Disick, 1975), recognized as the apostle of the
“needs” school of thought, lists five basic needs in an
hierarchical order labeled as “Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs,” or
“Motivation Pyramid.” The basic needs proposed by Maslow are the
following:

1. Physiological needs, which refer to the most “prepotent” of the
five basic needs, including the needs for food, water, and some
other fundamental biological needs;

2. Safety needs, comprising the needs for security; protection;
freedom from fear, anxiety, and chaos; which emerge when
physiological needs are relatively well satisfied;

3. Belongingness and love needs, enclosing the needs for finding
one’s place in a group, and forming one’s own sense of
identity consistent with that place, as Stevick (1976, p. 50)
states.

4. Esteem needs, the desire for strength, achievement, adequacy,
mastery and competence, confidence, and independence and
freedom as well as the desire for reputation or prestige, satisfaction of which leads "to feeling of self-confidence, worth, strength, capability and adequacy, of being useful and necessary in the world" (Disick, 1976, p. 26);

5. **Self-actualization needs** which refer to man's desire for **self-fulfillment**, namely, to the tendency for him to become actualized in what he is potentially. This tendency might be phrased as the desire to become more and more what one ideosyncratically is, to become everything that one is capable becoming....(Maslow in Disick, 1976, p.26)

Figure 2 below illustrates Maslow's hierarchy of needs, or "motivation pyramid," interpreted by Childs, an educational psychologist, and Stevick, an ELT specialist (Vincent, 1983).

As evident in the diagram, in addition to Maslow's five needs in an hierarchical order, the level of "Knowledge and Understanding" appears as the paramount factor. As the diagram emphasizes the wide range of human concerns and their inter-relationships in an order, i.e., the satisfaction of needs at the lower level is a prerequisite for attention to the next level, this highest level can be reached only when the prerequisite levels are met. In other words, when the diagram is interpreted in terms of its importance in language learning, this paramount level entails that learning a language, either second or foreign, as an intellectual task, has a chance of success when the
students' needs at the lower levels of the pyramid are not ignored but met. Therefore, language teachers must consider the following factors: it may be difficult for a student to concentrate on abstract academic matters when things are going
wrong at home; concentration tends to lessen before lunch; and a badly chosen group may not work well together. Such considerations may draw the teachers' attention to valuing the importance of personal and group identity, which may be easy to ignore when teaching large classes, e.g., classes over 30 students.

Another point that seems to be brought out by this pyramid, as Vincent states, is the differences between learning one's first language at home, or a second language for survival in a particular speech community, and a foreign language in a school classroom. For Vincent, learning one's mother-tongue is a basic human need since the ability to communicate is a fundamental part of human life. However, for the ones who are second or foreign language learners the need for learning the language may not be so immediate, so fundamental. At this point, the question of what motivates people to learn a second or foreign language arises. The question partly finds its answer in Rogers' comments (1986). Rogers notes that Maslow's hierarchy of needs proves undependable for adult educators precisely because it seems to offer an analysis of the pre-conditions to the type of learning; "the almost self-evident truth that the needs for food, shelter, personal relationships and sense of esteem must be met before creative, evaluative and cognitive learning can take place" (p. 64). However, he further indicates that some students come to
language programs from a desire for social relationships or to gain some sense of esteem; they are driven by needs that must be satisfied at least partially before further learning can take place.

Where Rogers finds Maslow's hierarchy of needs insufficient in a sense, McDonough (1986) discards the needs-based theory of motivation, or in his own terms "homeostatic drive theory." McDonough gives two crucial reasons why it has to be rejected for serious consideration in connection with human learning. The first reason he proposes is that drive to act is reduced if the needs are reduced: therefore, giving rewards reduces learning instead of increasing it. He expands this by stating the following:

Although human learners often have well defined aims and objectives, the satisfaction of homeostatic needs [air, water, food, and constant body temperature] is irrelevant to them (p. 150).

According to McDonough, learning part of a language may increase motivational strength. That is, the learner may want to learn the rest. As the second reason, McDonough brings forth the mechanistic nature of the needs-based theory of motivation saying that in needs-based theory of motivation, the drive results automatically from the needs without reference to any more sophisticated set of values. He rejects this stating his plea
that reward of knowledge of results is dependent on values and perceptions rather than on mechanistic reactions.

Weiner (Chastain, 1976) glosses four basic theoretical positions regarding motivation:

1. **Associative theory**, which postulates specific responses connected to certain stimuli.
2. **Drive theory**, which postulates drives triggered by a need to correct some type of imbalance in the organism.
3. **Cognitive theory**, which stresses purposive behavior based on plans, cognitive drive, level of aspiration, need for achievement, and need to avoid failure.
4. **Psychoanalytic theory**, which is a psychological theory of motivation stressing internal processes (p. 73).

The theories McDonough (1986) mentions can be summarized under the following headings [in addition to the drive theory mentioned above]:

1. **Attribution theory**, which attempts to describe motivated behavior in terms of the cause to which the individuals attribute, or ascribe, their own ability, effort, intention, or others' ability, effort, or intention, luck, and so on.
2. **Achievement theory**, which postulates that the learner's estimates of value of the task to him and the chances of succeeding, are vital components of the motivation.
3. **Aspiration theory**, which is related to expectancy and value, stating that previous success raises the level of aspiration;
Rogers (1986) lists three theories of motivation each of which specifically denotes intrinsic motivation only. Of these three theories, the first states that motivation is a drive to fulfill various needs; the second says that motivation can be learned; and the third claims that motivation relates to goals accepted by oneself.

Ausubel (Brown, 1987) identifies six desires or needs of human organisms which plot the construct of motivation. This sixfold concept of motivation can be glossed as the needs for the following:

1. **exploration**: seeing "the other side of the mountain," probing the unknown;
2. **manipulation**: operating—to use Skinner’s term—on the environment and causing change;
3. **activity**: movement and exercise, both physical and mental;
4. **stimulation**: the need to be stimulated by the environment, by other people, or by ideas, thoughts, and feelings;
5. **knowledge**: processing and internalizing the results of exploration, manipulation, activity, and stimulation, resolving contradictions, questing for solutions to problems and for self-consistent systems of knowledge;
6. **ego-enhancement**: the self to be known and to be accepted and approved by others.
Brown also mentions other factors brought forth by psychologists, e.g., Maslow's hierarchical human needs, and others' basic needs as achievement, autonomy, affiliation, order, change, endurance, aggression, and other needs. However, he states that the six needs listed above appear to cover the essence of most general categories of needs, and are especially relevant to second language learning. He adds that in foreign language learning, meeting needs of the learner either intrinsically or extrinsically will positively motivate the learner. He further implies that "motivation, then, is an inner drive or stimulus which can, like self-esteem, be global, situational, or task-oriented" (p. 115). For him learning a foreign language requires some of all three levels of motivation. For example, while a learner may have a high "global" motivation, he or she may not maintain this for performing well, that is he or she may have low "task" motivation.

Motivation for Language Learning

Motivation, as has been presented so far, is a term which conveys different things to different specialists, and a term on which so many theories have been formulated. Several of these theories have been presented here in order to provide a basis for studying what motivates learners. For an understanding of what motivates one to learn a foreign language, since foreign language
learning is the main concern here, we need to look at an outstanding example of the study of motivation carried out by Gardner and Lambert (1972).

Researchers have been interested in investigating factors that affect language learning since the early fifties as Stern (1983) states. The most consistent research has been undertaken by Gardner and Lambert (1972) who focused their study on learners' social attitudes, values, and the motivation of learners in relation to other learner factors and the learning outcome. The Gardner and Lambert research was made in the framework of social psychology and the analyses of the research have been applied to the attitudes and motivation of English-speaking high school students learning French as a second language in "anglophone settings in Canada" (Stern, 1983). Gardner and Lambert (McDonough, 1986) have performed their studies measuring the extent to which achievement in the second language is related either to a desire to use the language in the context of the student's own community, for business, or promotion, or simply to possess a prestigious qualification; or to a desire to become accepted by, or even become a member of, the community that speaks the other language (p. 157).

These two different reasons for study have been labeled respectively instrumental and integrative motivations, or in
McDonough’s words, "orientations to language learning."

Gardner (Stern, 1983) has summarized the inferences of the research he has conducted with Lambert in a model of motivational characteristics describing attitude, motivation, and personality. Although this model has been developed with reference to French as a second language, Stern believes that the model applies generally to learners of a second language in school settings. Gardner distinguishes four main categories as illustrated in the model (Figure 3).

According to Stern’s interpretation, the first component consists of attitudes towards the community and people who speak the target language. The second component comprises attitudes toward the learning situation itself: how the individuals feel about learning this language in a particular course and from a particular teacher and how they interpret their parents’ feelings about learning the language. It also includes an assessment of the feelings of anxiety in the language class: more relaxed and confident students are assumed to be more proficient than those who become anxious in the language class. Stern informs that while “the learner entertains the attitudes in the first category before being placed into a learning situation,” the second category refers to “attitudes that develop during the learning process”. The third category refers to the learner’s motives for learning the language, “the goals pursued by the
Figure 3: Gardner's model representing aspects of the motivation to learn French

Stern notes that in this model Gardner has dropped the instrumental orientation, because it is the integrative motive that, in Gardner's view, is the more crucial. Stern infers from this that motivation includes both pre-learning factors and
"factors that only become evident in the course of learning."
The last category, **generalized attitudes**, includes a general interest in foreign language and certain personality characteristics: "ethnocentrism, authoritarianism, anomie, Machiavellianism, and need for achievement."

Stern further summarizes Gardner's model as comprising general personality characteristics which can be said to have positive or negative bearing on second language learning:

- **attitudes related to the second language and the second language group with which the learner approaches language learning:** attitudes that develop in the course of the experience of learning the second language in the classroom setting: and goal perceptions or motives for learning the second language (p. 384).

Summing up the analysis of Gardner's model based on the affective factors, Stern makes the following distinctions:

1. **basic predispositions** in the individual and relatively pervasive personality characteristics which are likely to have bearing on language learning (for example, tolerance of ambiguity, need for achievement).
2. **more specific attitudes** related to second language learning, such as attitudes to language, language learning, and to ethnolinguistic communities in general, and attitudes to particular languages and language-speaking groups such as language learners' attitudes to the French language and France and other francophone communities, or to the English language and British, American, and other anglophone communities, and so forth.
3. **the motivation of learners** that initiates and
maintains the learning process, or that leads to the avoidance or rejection of learning; the stated reasons and perceived goals as well as the subconscious drives and needs that prompt and sustain the learning effort or lead to its inhibition or rejection (p.385).

Stern concludes that many of the concepts used in research on the affective aspect are somewhat "a speculative mixture of common-sense observations, psychological theorizing, and empirical findings." Stern finally states that despite the fact that little has been done to observe and record the emotional and motivational states of language learners in the course of learning, the theory, research, and experimentation of recent years have lead to the increasing conviction of the importance of the affective component in language learning.

Richard-Amato (1988), mentioning the correlative studies of motivation done by Gardner, Smyhthe, Clement, and Gliksman, and Spolsky in addition to the well-known study of Gardner and Lambert, makes similar statements which claim that the evidence in the area frequently appears contradictory, that there are cases in which integration appears not to be a strong motive but in which a certain urgency exists to become proficient in the target language for instrumental reasons. She quotes from Lukmani, 1972; Oller, Baca, and Vigil, 1977, who claim that in such cases instrumental motivation becomes the main predictor. In addition, she uses as an example the study of Chinese-speaking
graduate students in the United States (Oller, Hudson, and Liu in Richard-Amato, 1988) which indicates that although the students' main reason for wanting to be proficient in English was instrumental, the subjects who characterized Americans positively performed better on the cloze test. Drawing a conclusion, Richard-Amato states that the studies are very inconclusive. She adds that what appear to be contradictory findings may simply be "evidence indicating that the various motivations studied are difficult if not impossible to isolate and are certainly not mutually exclusive" (p. 58).

In accordance with the above statement, Brown (1987) also mentions some recent findings which point out that there is no single means of learning a second language, listing that some learners in some contexts are more successful in learning a language if they are integratively oriented, and others in different contexts benefit from an instrumental orientation. Stating the finding that the two types of motivation are not necessarily mutually exclusive, Brown maintains that the second language learner is rarely motivated by attitudes that are exclusively instrumental or exclusively integrative, that most situations involve a mixture of each type of motivation. He exemplifies this with the situation of Arabic speakers learning English in the United States for academic purposes. Brown asserts that these students may have a desire to learn English
both for academic (instrumental) purposes and to understand and become somewhat integrated with the culture and people of the United States.

Motivation in Education and in English Language Teaching

So far, the concern of this study has been on explaining some concepts related to motivation and general theories of motivation, and factors that affect language learning particularly in second language learning. However very little of this work has been directly concerned with language classes, in other words, with foreign language learning in the classroom setting.

We must draw our attention to the particular ways of learning, to the context and other factors that make the learning process effective. Rogers (1986) draws up a list of strategies and factors that, he thinks, will enhance the learning process. According to him, two frequently quoted lists of factors for effective learning are as follows:

List 1

1. Motivation
2. Clear goals; awareness of need
3. Conducive environment, not threatening
4. Appropriate methods
5. Presentation skills
6. Empathy of teachers
7. Expertise of teachers
List 2

1. Motivation
2. Awareness of students' differences
3. Awareness of students' existing knowledge and attitudes
4. Reinforcement
5. Practice opportunities
6. Activity-centered learning
7. Division of materials into learnable units
8. Guidance as to appropriate responses
9. Drawing out generalities
10. Presentation skills

Rogers' interpretation of these two lists is that both, as may be in any other such lists of factors for effective learning, start off with motivation. These lists incorporate three different sets of factors as those primarily concerning the teacher (e.g., awareness of students' differences, empathy), those concerning the learners (e.g., motivation and practice), and those concerning the context within which the learning takes place (e.g., conducive environment). Another implication Rogers draws out of the lists is that such lists may confuse the situational factors that lead to greater learning and strategies that the teacher and students may adopt in order to achieve their goals.

Malimah-Thomas (1987) also states that one should look for signs of positive affect in the classroom. She suggests looking at the teacher's attitude and behavior, the students' attitudes and behaviors, and the general classroom atmosphere.
Most of the literature on conditions of effective learning handles the matter in almost the same way, by grouping the factors under three main headings: teachers, students, and the learning context.

The Role of Teachers in Motivating EFL Learners

Of the three inseparable components of learning—teacher, student, and learning context—the teacher plays the major role in motivating students. Students might come to class motivated or unmotivated. The primary task of the teacher, in any case, is said to be motivating the learners, particularly "the ones who are demotivated and to nurture those who are already motivated to the task of learning." There are several ways in which a teacher can achieve this according to Wright (1987). They can be summarized as follows:

1. Adopting a positive attitude towards the learners
2. Giving students meaningful, relevant, and interesting tasks to do
3. Maintaining discipline to the extent that a responsible working atmosphere is established
4. Being motivated and interested themselves
5. Involving the learners more actively in the classroom process in activities that demand "inter-student communication and co-operative efforts on their part" such as group work and
6. Introducing learners to the concept of self-approval and self-evaluation through reports and discussions
7. Giving positive feedback on written assignments
8. Encouraging pride in achievement by allowing learners to display their work on the classrooms walls and notice boards

Mugglestone (1977) states that "the curiosity motive is a primary need, so presumably the apparently 'unmotivated' student has a curiosity motive which can be activated" (p. 116).
In her opinion, the casual relationship between motivation and learning is "reciprocal rather than unidirectional." In this case, she continues, the teacher's wisest approach could be concentrating on teaching as effectively as possible. This, according to her, involves "appealing to the curiosity motive by ensuring an interesting environment and the maximum pupil activity, both physically and mentally."

Stating that the most important immediate influence on the learner's own motivation is the teacher, Dry (1977) also brings forth the teacher's role in motivating students. Dry believes that the learners' motivation and "consequent" behavior is a product of the influence not only of their own internal and external environment in relation to the target language, but also of the environment in which the target language is studied.
According to Dry, the teacher is the most obvious element in this
environment, and the teacher’s motivation and consequent behavior are similarly the product not only of the environment in which the teaching is carried on, but also of his or her own internal and external environment.

Girard (1977) considers the teacher factor as the most important factor in motivation bringing forth the generally observed fact that the same method is successful in the hands of some teachers and a complete failure with others, all other things being equal. Girard suggests carrying out an objective analysis of the teachers’ performances—in order to discover deficiencies in their teaching techniques and in their mastery of the language taught. Yet, he suggests that learners opinions about the language teacher must be taken into consideration. At this point, Girard refers to Bertrand’s inquiry made on 300 French students of school-leaving age to find out how they imagined the ideal foreign language teacher. From the study Girard draws the following conclusions about motivation and the teacher’s responsibility:

A good language teacher must

1. offer a good model in the use of the foreign language, especially the spoken language.
2. be a good technician of language teaching in order to be able to
   _ make his pupils understand
   _ correct their pronunciation and develop their communicative skills.
   _ stimulate activity in the foreign language.
3. also, and above all, be a good psychologist, well aware of his pupils' individual problems, capable of coping with them and of creating at all stages an atmosphere of mutual confidence and sympathy in the teacher-class relationship (p. 102).

Wright (1987) brings forth another factor related to teaching: teaching style. According to Wright, teaching style is a complex mixture of belief, attitude, strategy, technique, motivation, personality, and control. Teaching style lies "at the heart of the interpersonal relationship between teacher and learner." Wright notes that it may be true that teachers who are predisposed towards communicating with others and who are interested in learners as people are more likely to succeed in the classroom than those who regard teaching only as the "routine transmission of knowledge." On the other hand, Wright continues that a teaching style that is centered on personal relationships rather than learning tasks can only succeed if the learning group accepts such a strategy, or the school authorities sanction such behavior, or parents and other sponsors believe this to be in the best interests of the learner.

Stevick (1980) suggests some steps so that teachers are better able to encourage their learners to perform, i.e., participate in classroom activities. The first step is studying the students' motivation, attitudes, and the social pressures on them in order to build up a fuller picture of them as people.
the second is "scrutinizing" teachers' methods and techniques in terms of the amount of control they provide and the amount of student-led activity there is. The third step suggests giving more control and responsibility to the learners. Another one suggests thinking positively and communicating this to the learners. Acting "normally" in the class, as another participant in the process, rather than as a "teacher" is another important role the teacher has to play. Becoming less evaluative of the learners' efforts, allowing them to be evaluative of their own appears as important as the previous steps suggested. The list of steps Stevick suggests ends with "giving students the chance to discuss and evaluate the course, the language, their fears, and frustrations."

The list Olivia (Chastain, 1976) introduces as conditions which can enhance motivation somewhat corresponds to the steps suggested above. Olivia claims that, in order for efficient learning to take place, the following must be taken into consideration: Students

1. learn when they conceive of themselves as capable individuals
2. learn when they are dealing with materials geared to their level
3. learn when they see purpose in their activities and study
4. learn when they see their studies as important
5. often do not like easy or trivial work. They grumble at difficult class work, but they respect demanding education
failure of a foreign language learner: aptitude, intelligence, perseverance or motivation, and other factors. Basing his analysis on the findings of American and Canadian psychologists and the results of a variety of objective tests, Jakobovits establishes percentages for these four categories as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aptitude</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intelligence</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perseverance or motivation</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other factors</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is remarkable that the third category, perseverance and motivation, which is the concern of this paper, comes out with the same high percentage as aptitude, that is 33 percent or one-third of all the learner factors and seems to be much more important than the intelligence factor.

Considering the main differences between first language acquisition in a natural setting and foreign language learning in a school situation, Girard (1977) states that motivation is not a problem in the first language acquisition: "it is given by nature together with the innate capacity to acquire the language of the environment" (p. 98). Girard names motivation in such a condition as primary motivation. Girard continues that in foreign language learning, motivation with extraordinary variety is quite a different matter. There is variety in "degree and nature," from the most highly motivated learners to those whose
motivation seems to be "nil," or even worse, who have developed a kind of "anti-motivation, if only through realizing their inability to learn the language." According to Girard, there are four main factors in motivation: "one which is not directly connected with the classroom situation and three of which correspond to the basic components in the teaching situation," i.e., the learner, the method, and the teacher.

Motivating EFL Adult Learners

As foreign language learning is becoming more of an individualized activity and more learner-centered, as Mugglestone (1977) states, the learner is less of a passive recipient and more of an active participant in the learning process. Therefore, before investigating what motivates the EFL learner or adult EFL learner, we need to scrutinize what the individual learner and the adult learner are.

Wright (1987) quotes a scheme for studying the behavior of individual learners based on actual observation of classroom interaction. The scheme is illustrated in Figure 4.

The four main types of learner are distinguished in this analysis. Bearing in mind that individuals could be placed anywhere on this diagram and thus can differ according to the degree of the tendency towards being of any one type, Wright glosses the types as follows:
1. The **enthusiast**, this type tends towards the teacher as a point of reference but at the same time is concerned with the goals of the learning group.

2. The **oracular**, again centres on the teacher but this time is much more oriented towards the satisfaction of personal goals.

3. The **participator** focuses attention both on group goals and on group solidarity.

4. The **rebel** leans towards the learning group for his or her point of reference but mainly concerned with the satisfaction of his own goals.

Rogers (1986) discusses the issue of motivating adults in detail citing recent work on theories of learning which suggest that "the individual is engaged in learning a process of active relating with some new form of knowledge or with the social (or total) environment and with him/herself" (p. 75). Learning takes
place in a number of different areas (domains), and the hierarchies of learning strategies are called into play to cope with different types of learning. However, rather than suggesting any of the theories on effective learning, Rogers directs his attention to the "natural learning episode" which he explains as

those incidents in which adults throughout their lives engage in rather more systematic learning in order to achieve a particular goal or solve a specific problem (p. 75).

Listing the characteristics for "learning episodes" for adults, Rogers draws implications upon each characteristic. They can be summarized as follows:

1. Learning is episodic, not continuous which implies that teachers should rely on "short bursts of learning activity"; should break the materials into manageable units; but "hook" on other items of learning.

2. Learning is problem centered, not curriculum oriented; immediate goals are based on needs and intentions; which require the teacher to make learning relevant to students' needs for motivation, be aware of students' intentions, and start not with the logical introductory material appropriate to the subject but with the issues of concern to the learners.

3. Adult learners have different learning styles such as
analogical thinking, trial and error, meaningful wholes, less memory but imitation, all of which lead the teacher to consider different learning styles and build up learning skills accordingly. For example, analogical thinking requires the use of existing knowledge and experience, relating new material to existing experience and knowledge. The process of trial and error leads to discovery learning, making students active participants, requiring reinforcement, and building in feedback and practice. The reliance on meaningful wholes for understanding and retention indicates that the learners should be helped to build up the units of the new material so as to create wholes themselves. The decline of memory indicates that the teacher should rely more on understanding for retention, not memorizing; rote learning on its own is an inappropriate strategy for adults.

4. Adult learners lack interest in general principles. This characteristic entails questioning of general principles and moving from concrete principles to general ones.

Another implication Rogers draws on adult learning is that the learners should be encouraged to engage in further learning. The teachers should seek ways to encourage the learners to learn without their help. According to Rogers, the teachers' main aim should be to help create effective learners.
Rogers believes that characteristics for adult learning may help teachers to understand more clearly how to structure their own learning opportunities for adults. The purpose of the teacher for adults, according to Rogers, is to go beyond this natural learning process "to make its results more permanent; to draw out general principles; to use the process to lead on to further purposeful learning; to make the learners, in short, free in their own learning." Rogers concludes that teachers can use the characteristics of these learning episodes as a basis for creating their own adult education programs.

Holden (1983) holds the view that students' expectations when beginning to learn a foreign language depend partly on their age. She summarizes the expectations of students according to their age in three groups as young children (7-12 years), adolescents (12-16 year olds), and adults. Since the concern here is motivating the adult learners, having an insight on what adult learners' expectations are is essential. Holden lists the expectations adult learners hold for their foreign language classes:

--the materials should accord with the ideas "being taught"
--their success should be measurable by themselves
--the material should be linked with the outside world and their personal interest
--and the material should be useful
The implications of such student expectations Holden draws are finding out what their previous language learning experience has been, as it may color their present expectations; explaining why the present system may be different; ensuring each learner succeeds at various tasks to "boost confidence"; and choosing or devising materials which present an obviously "useful area of the language."

When the two lists, of Rogers and of Holden, are compared one can easily notice that the characteristics and the implications correspond with each other, in fact the previous one covering all the items in the latter one.

Holden suggests practical ways for carrying out the implications she draws by saying, "It is up to the teacher to find examples which are difficult enough to be challenging, but not so difficult that people give up; that are stimulating to do, but are not viewed as childish" (p. 46).

PRACTICAL SOLUTIONS TO MOTIVATION PROBLEMS IN TURKEY

Much has been said on motivation, theories of motivation, the components of motivation, motivation in learning and classroom settings. The factors that enhance motivation have also been discussed as well as the roles of the teacher, the learners and context that are believed to form the reciprocal components of effective teaching. All of these have been
presented in order to identify the problems in TEFL in Turkey, particularly at universities, and to be able to suggest effective techniques which would serve for the purpose of solving, or at least reducing the existing motivation problems at universities partially, at least on the part of the teacher.

The Motivation Problem in TEFL in Turkey

In Turkey hardly any research has been done on TEFL directly related to motivation problems. The existing literature consists of general problems in foreign language teaching. Of the studies on problems of teaching foreign languages in Turkey, the ones touching upon the motivation problem are to be cited here.

A study on the problems faced by EFL teachers in Turkey was carried out by Ekmekci and Inal (1984). Ekmekci and Inal interviewed teachers, administrators, students and parents, and submitted a questionnaire to the English teachers who worked in secondary schools. The purpose of the research was to investigate the reasons for and sources of the problems arising in EFL teaching. The content at the questionnaire covered the following factors:

1. Classroom arrangements
2. Syllabus design
3. Motivation and students' attitudes
4. Teachers' training (p. 2)

The analysis of the questionnaire reflecting the teachers'
perspectives on the third factor, motivation and students' attitudes, displays that there was a lack of motivation among students. Ekmekçi and Inal noted that around 50 percent of the teachers being questioned thought that their students were not interested in learning a foreign language. However, students who attended school with the aim of learning English were highly motivated. The reasons for the lack of motivation were given as the attitudes of parents towards the language, and students' involvement in preparing for the university entrance examination, i.e. other subjects. In the responses, 59 percent of the teachers thought that students would be more enthusiastic toward EFL classes if the importance of English as a foreign language were emphasized. According to the responses of 56 percent, if students were provided with the circumstances in which they would feel the need of using the foreign language, they would be more motivated. To the question of what would increase students' interest most, acting out dialogues and role playing received 70 percent preference and using visual aids, 60 percent. Ekmekçi and Inal continued that the majority of the teachers seemed to encourage their students to play games and performed short skits in English.

Another study comprising the problems encountered in foreign language learning was done by Songun (1987). Songun attributed the reasons for the problems as inefficiency of teachers,
ineffective materials, textbooks, time, learning situation, students' attitudes towards the language, overcrowded classrooms, lack of modern facilities, inefficient language program, and lack of understanding the importance of a foreign language.

Emphasizing the importance of the role of teachers in foreign language teaching in Turkey, Songun believes that the teachers' attitude to teaching in general, and to foreign language teaching in particular, is governed by their mastery of the language. However he states that the survey he conducted on secondary school foreign language teachers resulted in the finding that most of the foreign language teachers lack a good command of the language.

Stating the problems in foreign language teaching in universities, Kocaman (1983) associates them to the language teaching curriculum. According to Kocaman, the fundamental goal of foreign language programs at universities should be enabling students to follow and write scientific materials in their major fields in the target language and meeting their needs to use the language in their future careers. Kocaman suggests developing an efficient language teaching curriculum which is based on the needs of the learners. Mentioning motivation problem at this point Kocaman pleads that only when a needs-based curriculum and a student-centered language syllabus are developed, the motivation of the students will naturally increase.
In Kocaman's view, efficiency in the teaching of the foreign language in universities depends upon a good choice of materials/texts which could be as authentic and up to the level of students as possible; methods and techniques, e.g., cognitive-communicative method instead of audio-lingual method. In relation to approaches/methods to teaching, the choice and the use of techniques are also important according to Kocaman. The techniques should utilize out-of-text, real life situations and meet the various needs of students. Moreover, Kocaman stresses the teacher factor. He claims that teachers are insufficient and lacking the necessary pedagogical background for adult teaching and for implementing suitable methods/techniques into their classrooms.

In the light of the information given above and in the previous parts of the paper, the inference could be made that since the learners in our universities are foreign language learners and they are adults, to make the learning process effective for them we need to design and implement our classes to satisfy their need, interest and level. Implementing effective classes requires good choice and use of various techniques.
SECTION THREE: SUGGESTED MOTIVATING TECHNIQUES FOR TEFL IN TURKISH UNIVERSITIES

As Kharma (1977) puts forth, the general consensus for language teaching methods seems to favor a method of teaching English which is "a combination of what is best in the audio-lingual, audio-visual, direct, cognitive, and functional methods", which teaches language as a means of communication and which tries to create and develop communicative competence in the learner. For arriving at the goal and for arousing interest of the learner in the process, many different techniques could be recommended.

Considering that as EFL teachers in Turkish universities we are dealing with students whose instrumental motivation to learning the language seems higher than their integrative motivation (which means that they want to learn the language as a means to an end), and that many of the students are really motivated intrinsically, and a few, extrinsically, because of the school requirements, we can infer that they come to class already motivated. The problem is sustaining the motivation they have in the classrooms through effective techniques. Considering that motivation or interest is likely to lessen after a considerable amount of time spent with attention, expecting full time attention from the students would be unrealistic, if, moreover,
the class is held teacher-centered, and if the activities do not appeal to them. Added to these, if we think of the improper learning situation for the language classes, e.g., overcrowded students, lack of audio-visual and other such teaching aids, we should say that the teacher is the most essential aid in the language classes. Therefore, employing any of the suggested techniques requires a special kind of person who can employ "humour, narrative, picturesque, descriptions, and lively conversations naturally" (Kharma 1977, p. 109); and who is aware of the ages, local culture, and special interests of the learners. It also requires a similar kind of person to be able to teach such material in a highly motivating manner.

Because the main focus of this section is on the presentation and discussion of a number of techniques for promoting motivation in the adult foreign language learner of English in Turkish universities, and because space is limited to include all possible techniques, only the techniques which are found to be the most effective and appropriate according to what has been mentioned so far have been chosen and presented with rationales behind them. The following presents the principles or beliefs which underlie the techniques to be discussed later in this section:

**Basic Tenets**

With regard to language acquisition it is held that:
the unconscious process of acquisition is at least as important as the conscious, effortful process of learning (Krashen in Dulay et al., 1977).

learner error is a necessary part of the learning process, and correction may often be unproductive.

learners acquire the language at their own individual rate and employing their own individual strategies. "The learner is not a pin-pot into which the language is poured, but a home-brewery kit in which teacher input ferments" (Maley, 1982, p.34)

With regard to views of language it is held:

the usage is at a higher level in the hierarchy than use (Widdowson, 1978). Use is a necessary, but not a sufficient, condition for communication.

ability to handle discourse is likewise a higher level skill than the ability to handle sentences.

With regard to program design:

it may reinforce a "product" view of the learning process.

whenever possible, authentic texts should be used for input, and authentic participation and output encouraged.

if providing interesting input at an appropriate level is devised, all the necessary language features could in any case be derived from it.
With regard to methodology:

-- **fluency activities** must be accorded with **accuracy activities**
  (Brumfit, 1979).

-- **task-centered activities** are to be preferred to purely
  **language-centered activities**.

-- **language skills** should be learnt in **integrated series** which
  approximate normal behavior, rather than in isolation.

-- **learning** should be based on **interaction**, not on "one-way
  traffic" from teacher to student.

With regard to learners as people:

-- learners' **affective filter** should be lowered.

-- they should feel able to **take risks** or make mistakes.

-- **learning** should be **creative** rather than defensive
  (Stevick, 1980).

-- co-operation is generally to be preferred to competition,
  though there may be room for both.

-- different **learning styles** should be taken into consideration.

-- learner initiative should be encouraged **within an overall
  framework of teacher control** (Stevick, 1980).

**Inquiry-centered learning**

One way of conducting a lesson effectively could be
teachers' varying the ways of instruction. Instead of the
teacher being the only active person in the classroom with the
traditional way of teaching such as lecturing, lock step, and the like, an alternative way is suggested by Wright (1987): inquiry-centered learning, which could be appropriate for adult learners.

The main procedures of inquiry-centered learning include the following:

1. The teacher plans in advance the topics and ideas that the class may wish to explore. Then, the teacher organizes a sequence of teaching/learning activities around them.

2. The teacher introduces the new material and challenges the learners to try out and explore new ideas.

3. The teacher insists on the communication of ideas and beliefs from the class and justifications for opinions expressed.

4. The teacher summarizes and asks for clarification as and when necessary.

5. The teacher gives the learners the opportunity to guess and "play hunches."

6. The class is organized into small working groups.

The basic assumption behind this technique is that learners will learn if they are given opportunities to participate in discovering ideas for themselves. The teacher is primarily a facilitator, setting up tasks and providing the instructional materials. The teacher is also a guide to the process of discovery and understanding, and an assessor only in helping to clarify concepts where it seems to be appropriate. In this
technique "much is made of the learners' own ideas and beliefs which the teacher attempts to refashion if it appears to be necessary."

In inquiry-centered learning the process of learning is seen to be as important as the content of the learning.

**Humanistic Techniques**

"A trend has recently developed in methodological techniques and approaches which stresses the affective factors of the classroom" (Malamah-Thomas, 1987, p. 79). "Humanistic techniques" focus on the human factor, on the process of achieving objectives instead of focusing on the objective of teaching.

Moskowitz (1981), the forerunner of humanistic techniques, mentions the research she has conducted based on using humanistic communication activities to teach languages. She notes that the research indicated that students instructed with humanistic techniques improved significantly in their attitudes toward learning the target language and in their self concept. The activities, she states, helped overcome the fear and inhibition many felt in speaking the new language. She also states that the activities increased the enthusiasm and motivation of both teachers and students.

Moskowitz (1978), in her book *Caring and Sharing in the Foreign Language Classroom*, provides many examples of "humanistic"
exercises. Here is one of them, entitled "The best product—me."

The affective purposes of "The best product—me" are to get students to be introspective in a lighthearted way, to call on their creativity and imagination. The linguistic purposes are to practice the use of superlatives, the use of adjectives describing positive qualities, forming interrogative sentences. The exercise can be adapted to all levels with groups of six to eight or the total class. The procedure is as follows:

The teacher asks the class to write some commercials using their creativity and imagination, thinking about themselves and what makes them unique, and then design an ad or a brochure selling their products to readers. Students can use magazine pictures, snapshots, sketches, and three-dimensional objects for their commercials, and put them on colored paper on tag boards.

The proceeding steps are expressed by Moskowitz as follows:

When the ads are brought in, divide the students into groups of six to eight. Have each student pass his ad to the person on his right. Everyone will then read the ad to himself to get the flavor of it. Then, one at a time, the students will read the ad aloud and show it to the group. (This means no one is reading his own ad, so embarrassment will be reduced.)

Next the groups should volunteer to have two of their advertisements read to the entire class. The owners of the ads could now read them before the class. Then instruct the students to hang their ads on the wall, and let the class circulate around the
room reading them. As they do so, have the students each compose five questions based on the ads they read, and select some to ask before their former group or the total class. This will keep the class activity rather than passively involved with the ads. It is fun and humorous to see whether you can remember "Who the product is" in this follow-up quiz activity (p. 162).

As an alternative to dividing the class in groups, Moskowitz suggests having the class seated in a circle, with each person passing his or her ad to the one on his or her right to be read aloud and shown to the class. She adds that the advertisements can still be posted around the room afterwards with the quiz following.

The Silent Way

The Silent Way (Gattegno 1972) is another set of techniques for language teaching that lays emphasis on affective factors of the teaching and learning situation. Richards and Rodgers (1986) summarize the theory of learning behind the Silent Way:

1. Learning is facilitated if the learner discovers or creates rather than remembers and repeats what is to be learned.
2. Learning is facilitating by accompanying (mediating) physical objects.
3. Learning is facilitated by problem solving involving the material to be learned (p. 99).

Here is a technique of the Silent Way, proposed by Stevick (1982):
A Preposition Game

This technique requires the use of Cuisenaire rods—small colored rods of varying lengths. The preposition game can be appropriate for beginning levels to practice prepositions. The procedure is as follows:

Divide the class into groups of two or three. Give each group a few rods, with the number and colors of the rod being identical from group to group. One group is to serve as originators, the others as copiers. Stand a notebook or other tall object on the table so that the copiers cannot see the originators' rods. Then place the originators rods in some kind of configuration which is not visible to the others. The originators describe their configuration and the other groups try to duplicate it. Either you or a student appointed by you watches the work of the copiers and announces when one group has won (p. 129).

Stevick gives the alternate forms of the technique for different levels. For instance, the version in which the originator cannot see the copiers and copiers are not allowed to ask questions is suitable only for very advanced students. Another variation requires the originators' putting together their own configuration rather than working from one that the teacher sets up for them. The complexity of the game depends on the number of rods given to each group.

In any of these versions the basic characteristics of a game stands out, as Stevick notes, that the background for activities is the students' shared knowledge of the names for the colors and
of simple ways of describing locations.

**Problem Posing**

Richard-Amato (1988), taking into consideration Wallerstein's approach to language teaching which is an activity designed to develop critical thinking through group dynamics, brings forward another dimension to the accomplishment of the approach: clarifying values. According to Richard-Amato the procedure is as follows:

Teachers should begin by listening to the students to discover what issues seem to be important to them. Then, they should attempt to find a story, a dialogue, a picture, or a photograph to tap into what is truly meaningful. In addition, what teachers should take into consideration in selecting these codifications is that the selected material should contain a problem. Finally teachers should ask questions upon the codification selected in order to direct the students to solve the problem. It is important that only one problem be the focus at a time so that the issues do not become clouded. The teacher and the students need to determine what actions would be effective and appropriate in each situation. Briefly with the use of problem posing the students' interest will increase.

**Simulation**

According to Jones (1984) motivation is inherent in
simulations. The strength of the motivation depends on the simulation, on its suitability for the particular students, and on whether the teachers briefing has been adequate. Jones states that motivation "from function and duty is an essential ingredient in a simulation." He adds "One of the main reasons why teachers of foreign languages find simulations so useful is that they destroy the teacher-student orientation, and kick the teacher out of the classroom. Inhibitions and fears tend to diminish."

Banner (1985) suggests the use of simulations in the language classroom so as to motivate students. For the usage of simulations he suggests teachers to divide their class into three groups, provide each group with an identity and model manifesto. The students' tasks will be to read the model given to them and then write a procedure of their own manifesto. Some possible models are provided in Figure 5.

With simulations teachers provide the student with the language he needs. The ideas are of secondary importance. "It is the language the young university student is after. That is why he comes to language class, and that is why he wants to talk to his classmates: to practice the language; not to find out what he and others think of unemployment" (Banner, 1985).
Who are you?
You represent the Tories, the Conservative Party.

What is your answer to unemployment?
1. Your aim is to develop a streamlined, competitive, healthy industry which will create new jobs by opening up new markets abroad. Industry must be competitive!

How can this be achieved?
   a. Hold down inflation by cutting government spending. Bring in cuts in education and health. You can reduce expenditure on these items, without reducing quality, by improving efficiency. Reduce manpower but increase output. Introduce student loans, cut grants. Money does not mean quality!
   b. Cut income taxes to encourage investment and the entrepreneur.
   c. Do not support ailing industries, the "lame ducks." Each inefficient or unproductive job that the government keeps going artificially is a burden on productive ones. If we intervene to save bankrupt companies, we are merely diverting investment from the healthy sector to an unhealthy one!
   d. Encourage a healthy competitive industry and it will produce real, productive jobs.
   e. Fill education and health and the nationalized industries with artificial jobs. They are part of our national heritage--any money spent will create jobs and be an important investment for the future.
   f. Build hospitals and schools in the country. Create the conditions for people to stay on the land and in agriculture. People! Not Money! Cut the multinationals, not jobs!
   g. Cut expenditures on the Armed Forces. Use the money saved to finance education and health.

Who are you?
You represent the Labour Party, the main opposition to the ruling Conservative Party.

What is your attitude towards unemployment?
1. Your aim is to lower the rate of unemployment by creating jobs. Cut the dole queues! Not education and health!

How can this be achieved?
   a. Increase public spending--reflate the economy. Unemployment is a greater enemy than inflation!
   b. Create new jobs in hospitals, universities, the nationalized industries, and the building industry.
   c. Increase social-security payments and old-age pensions.
   d. Encourage industry with subsidies to make it more competitive abroad. Raise trade barriers to protect our workers.
   e. Introduce currency controls. Remember! Every dollar invested abroad is one dollar less in our industries.
   f. Nationalize main industries; help ailing industries with massive injections of money in order to modernize.
   g. Raise income taxes and taxes on profits. Squeeze the rich!
   h. Help youth unemployment immediately by opening more places not only in higher education but in training schemes for industry. People first!

Who are you?
You represent the Liberal Party.

What is your attitude towards unemployment?
1. We want to get rid of the "unacceptable face of capitalism!" We must encourage industry, but we must also help those who cannot defend themselves, and protect jobs.

How?
   a. Hold down inflation and lower taxation to help the worker, but raise taxation on industry and profits.
   b. Increase the number of jobs by shortening the working week to four days and by banning overtime.
   c. Increase old-age pensions, social security, and grants for students.
   d. Control strikes by encouraging trade-union participation in decision-making and management. Offer bonuses for productivity.
   e. Help youth unemployment immediately by opening more places not only in higher education but in training schemes for industry. People first!

Figure 5: Banner's sample models for simulation (Banner, 1985)
SECTION FOUR: CONCLUSION

The review of psychological analyses of motivation presented in this paper with the summary of some of the recent research in second and foreign language learning relevant to motivation has shown that the ways students are motivated are varied and complex. The review of the literature in second or foreign language teaching with regard to motivation has also shown that there are many factors to be taken into consideration in motivating the learners. Among those factors, one stands as the learners themselves with their age, linguistic and cultural background, attitude towards the target language, intelligence, personality (the affective domain, self-esteem, inhibition, risk taking, anxiety, empathy, extroversion, and most important of all, motivation), need and expectation. Another factor is the learning context—the textbooks, materials used, the objectives of the syllabus, the modes of presentation and teaching of language, success and failure in the language, and individual differences. The teacher, as another factor, plays the vital role.

The teacher with his or her beliefs, attitudes, strategies, techniques, motivation, personality, and control is the main motivator in the learning environment. As Rogers (1986) puts forth, motivation is "in the eye of the beholder as is beauty"
The teacher may assume that the learners have an interest or dislike of the learning task, that the learners want to escape from responsibility, that they have "a static range of abilities that nothing within the learning context will improve, which it is the function of the teacher towards the learning task." In this case, the teacher becomes a part of the extrinsic factors influencing motivation. The teacher may assume that learning changes are natural to all human beings and are the "expressed desire" of the learners, that they are willing to accept responsibility for their own learning, that external factors such as the educational system itself is inhibiting the learners from exercising their imagination and creativity. In this case, the teacher becomes the motivator in the learning context. Motivation, then, is such a matter of concern for the teacher as it is for the learner; it depends as much on attitudes of the teacher as on the attitudes of the learners.

The review of techniques for improving motivation in TEFL in Turkish universities presented in this project has been carried out with regard to the above considerations on motivation. As recent views on language have led to the investigation of teaching techniques which more directly involve the learner in communicative tasks, problem solving and information seeking, these techniques require the learners to utilize the language creatively as an instrument of learning, as Bryne (1981, p. 76)
notes. The presentation of the suggested techniques here or any others of the kind, moreover, requires a special kind of person who can employ "humour, narrative, picturesque descriptions, and lively conversations naturally" (Kharma 1977, p.109); and who is aware of the ages, local culture, and special interests of the learners. It also requires a similar kind of person to be able to teach such material in a highly motivating manner. In addition, the effectiveness of any strategy or technique often depends on teacher's "investment of time and energy" and on his or her confidence in the technique. A possible pitfall, suggested by Orlich, et al. (1985) is the teacher's moving quickly from one technique to another without expending the necessary time and energy. The final selection and implementation of any one strategy or combination of strategies "rest solely with the teacher."
BIBLIOGRAPHY


RESUME

I was born in Rize in 1963. I completed primary education at Sehit Cengiz Topel Ilkokulu in 1975, secondary education at Guzelbahce Ortaokulu in 1978 and Karatas Lisesi in 1981 in Izmir. I did my undergraduate study in English teaching at the Department of English Language Teaching in Buca Education Faculty of Dokuz Eylul University. Having completed my undergraduate program in 1985, I started teaching English at the Turkish American Association in Izmir. I have been working as an English instructor in Dokuz Eylul University since 1987.