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Motivation: Issues and Implications for the Classroom

Steven J. Lonning
SIT Graduate Institute

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Motivation: Issues and Implications for the Classroom

Steven J. Lonning
B.A. University of the Americas 1980

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International Training, Brattleboro, Vermont.

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Handwritten:
H. J. Lonning
personal copy

This project by Steven Lonning
is accepted in its present form.

Date _____

Project Adviser Dr. M. S. Grew

Project Reader Gregory R. Zerk

This paper explores the nature of student motivation and subsequent implications for teaching. The literature on the subject of motivation is presented and discussed from the perspective of the behaviorist, the cognitive theorist and the humanist. From this survey of the literature three common themes emerge that are useful in working with student motivation. They are the student's motivation to feel success, to feel affiliation and to find meaning. In describing the teacher's role in fostering motivation in these areas a variety of teaching methods and techniques are presented. Among these are effective objective setting and cooperative learning. These methods are explored plus the role of teacher attitudes and awareness in encouraging intrinsic motivation to learn. How these methods and attitudes withstood the test of a year teaching high school Spanish is described in the final chapter.

ERIC DESCRIPTORS: Affiliation Need Motivation
Motivation Techniques Second Language Instruction
Self-Actualization Student Motivation Success

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INTRODUCTION

The topic of motivating language learners became an important issue for me early in my career as a teacher. As I taught, I saw learners time and again become frustrated with the work and give up. I had little trouble relating to their frustration as I recalled my own high school language learning experiences. I did not feel I was learning much and what I was learning I was sure I would never use. My feelings of the importance of the issue of motivation were reinforced because every teacher who heard I was writing on this subject told me of their own problems dealing with "low motivation" and asked if I would please send them a copy of my project. I almost began to feel as if I was on the trail of finding a cure for some devastating disease. What follows is what I found.

To determine why my students were not motivated I felt I first had to know more about motivation itself. I began my search by looking into the research done on the topic of human motivation. I discovered that there was abundant research on this topic dating back to the earliest days of psychology. I learned that over the last 80 years differing schools of thought have dominated the field. Each had a different conception of our human reality and what motivated behavior. I assumed that through a clearer understanding of how students were motivated more teachers could reach more students.

I was convinced that students could develop intrinsic motivation to learn. The proof of this for me was my experience as a student with a number of very talented teachers. I set out to try to figure out what these teachers had that made my classmates and I think so highly of them and work so hard in their classes.

My assumption is that the development of an understanding of student motivation and the role of the teacher in view of this understanding of motivation is vital to effective teaching in today's world. In the first chapter I survey the views held regarding motivation by behaviorists, cognitive psychologists and humanists. Chapter one is centered on identifying and understanding those forces that influence student behavior. In chapter two I describe some implications for the teacher's role based on several key aspects of student motivation. In the final chapter I relate my experiences putting these ideas into practice teaching high school Spanish. Throughout the text please note the use of single and double spacing. In the first two chapters I use single spacing for lengthy quotes. In the final chapter I use single spacing for concrete examples of ideas I put forth. Also, unless specifically noted otherwise, the use of feminine personal pronouns refer to the teacher and masculine pronouns to the student.

CHAPTER ONE

What one proposes as a definition of motivated behavior seems to depend more upon (one's) theoretical commitments than upon anything in the behavior itself. Any solution to the problem of what it is about a particular behavior that makes it appear motivated will therefore depend upon how we regard behavior in general and how we explain it in general. Thus, motivation seems to be neither a fact of experience nor a fact of behavior, but rather an idea or concept we introduce when we undertake to explain behavior. (Bolles, 1975)

It is nearing the end of the first day of class. You have prepared a lesson to help your students get to know one another and to help you get to know them. As you begin to present the next activity you notice a student wave to someone walking by the window. What is your reaction? You probably try to interpret the incident. How you interpret it depends more on your "theoretical commitments" than on the behavior itself.

Therein lies a central problem of understanding motivation. It is a concept we infer to explain behavior. It cannot be directly measured just as an individual's intelligence or creativity cannot be directly measured. No theory can provide a full picture of motivation in education. The approach one takes to motivation depends on one's "theoretical commitments" and view of the nature of human behavior. Because motivation is something that cannot be directly observed, all the different schools of psychological thought are on equal footing in describing it. I contend that many teachers enter the field unprepared to deal with motivation problems because they have not decided what their commitments are in this area. In an attempt to clarify my own

assumptions regarding what motivates student behavior I investigated the empirical approach to motivation taken by behaviorists and cognitive psychologists and also the more subjective, case-study approach taken by humanists.

Psychologists from all the disciplines generally agree that the term "motivation" refers to the processes involved in arousing, directing, and sustaining behavior. This is the definition that I will be using throughout this paper. I use the terms "need" and "motivation" interchangeably. What follows is a summary of the reading I did in relation to the two approaches mentioned above and some conclusions that I reached based on my research.

THE EMPIRICAL APPROACH TO MOTIVATION

While psychologists agree on a broad definition of motivation as "processes" that influence behavior, it is the nature of these processes that has been the cause of debate for the last one hundred years. Probably as a reaction against the theories put forth by Freud in the last century, psychology entered a period that rejected any theory that could not be backed up by the scientific method.

From the early part of this century up until the 1950's the theoretical model for motivation was dominated by behaviorism. According to this theory, the environment is the only motivating factor in human behavior. The principle guiding behaviorism is

that its subject of study must be public as in other areas of scientific investigation. The individual's affect and cognition are subjective. The outside environment and the individual's responses to its environment are, according to behaviorists, the only data open to investigation. Considerable research has been done based on this model of motivation and a great deal of experimental evidence has been gathered that indicates that the environment can and often does have a significant impact on behavior. This evidence indicates that human beings are very complex "organisms" that respond in predictable ways to environmental stimulus. Since the fifties, however, this model has been found increasingly inadequate in explaining all the forces behind behavior and the shift is to accept the role of cognition in motivation.

Cognitive theorists view the environmental stimulus on the individual as a source of information which is acted upon based on conscious decisions. Along with this new interest in the cognitive factors that influence behavior, attention is also being given to the role of the individual's self-concept and emotions in explaining behavior. Some important research in this area of cognitive theory was done by David McClelland in the 1950's. McClelland explains the relationship between cognition, affect and motivation in this way:

...throughout life certain stimulus situations become associated with affective states. The hot stove elicits fear because it has been associated with pain; tasks are associated with positive affect (pride) or negative affect

(shame) because they have led to such feelings in past encounters. The reappearance of meaningful cues, such as the hot stove or an achievement task, arouse affective states that, in turn, elicit instrumental approach or avoidance behavior. That is, anticipatory goal reactions, or emotions, learned from prior cue-affect associations, energize and direct behavior. Hence emotions are not motives, but they are the basis for motives.'" (Cited in Weiner, 1972)

McClelland's work focused on achievement motivation or the need to achieve. It was theorized that achievement motivation was operating when the individual expected that his performance would be evaluated in relation to some standard of excellence.

(Atkinson, 1978) Achievement theory is based according to Atkinson on the assumption that a person's motivation to achieve is the "result of learned beliefs or cognitions about one's ability to control one's environment." Achievement theory states that whenever the individual is being evaluated he may react in one of three ways. He may: 1) Strive to remain static 2) Strive to achieve success or 3) Strive to avoid failure.

The expectations of the individual for success or failure in achievement situations produce emotions that have repercussions on his beliefs and attitudes which in turn influence his performance. These beliefs are referred to as the individual's "self-efficacy." Self-efficacy is hypothesized to have diverse effects in achievement settings (Bandura, 1977a; Schunk, 1984).

Self-efficacy can influence choice of activities. Students who have a low sense of efficacy for acquiring cognitive skills may attempt to avoid tasks, whereas those who judge themselves more efficacious should participate more eagerly. Self-efficacy can also effect motivation. When facing difficulties, students who have a high sense

of efficacy for learning should expend greater effort and persist longer than those who doubt their capabilities. (Bandura & Schunk, 1981; Brown & Inouye, 1978; Schunk, 1982)

High self-efficacy indicates a "can-do" attitude. Bandura states that a person's feeling of efficacy determines "whether coping behavior will be initiated, how much effort will be expended and how long it will persist in the face of obstacles." The learner's self-efficacy is affected by his perceptions of "performance accomplishments, vicarious (observational) experiences, social persuasion, and inferences from physiological states." (Bandura, 1981, 1982) Success in activities raises self-efficacy and failure lowers it. Self-efficacy is raised when the learner observes similar others succeeding. When the teacher has high credibility her attempts at persuasion, e.g., "You can do this" can raise self-efficacy. This information is reflected upon by the learner. Feelings of efficacy that are buoyed by persuasion or observation of other's success are adjusted after the attempt is made. The cognitive processes the learner uses to evaluate self-efficacy information have been addressed by attribution theory.

Attributions are "why" questions. Attribution theory relates to the idea that a driving force in behavior is the desire for understanding. When the student gets a Spanish exam back and asks himself why he flunked, he attempts to attribute his failure to something. He may decide he did not study hard enough, or that he just is not "any good" at Spanish. We are driven to find the

causes of success or failure. This causal information is influential in forming expectancies for success or failure in future achievement contexts. The theory states that these expectations in turn effect the student's motivation. From among a large number of causal factors, the individual's perception of ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck have been identified as the most significant for the attributions in achievement situations. (Weiner, 1979) In classifying these causes, Weiner has arranged them around the causal dimensions of locus, stability and control.

LOCUS Internal-----External

STABILITY Stable-----Unstable

CONTROL Controllable-----Uncontrollable

Locus refers to our perception of whether the cause of success or failure was internal or external. Weiner indicates that this factor is linked to the individual's emotions and self-esteem. Self-esteem is raised if the individual attributes success to internal factors such as ability or effort and is lowered if failure is attributed to the same factors. Success or failure attributed to external factors such as luck or task

difficulty has little effect on self-esteem.

Stability refers to our expectancy for change over time. Stable factors include typical effort, ability and family relationships. Unstable factors are those such as immediate effort, luck, attention and mood. Attributions to stable factors lead to lower expectancy for change in future tasks and contribute to feelings of hopelessness in the case of failure. In failure unstable causes raise expectancy and a hopeful attitude.

Weiner states that control refers to the "degree of volitional influence that can be exerted over a cause." It involves interpersonal judgements and influences help received from the teacher or peers. If the student fails and his teacher attributes this to controllable causes such as effort, then the student elicits a negative response. If failure is attributed to uncontrollable causes, this elicits a positive evaluation and help is given freely. It seems evident that students' attributions for locus, stability and control influence their motivation in achievement situations. Weiner's conclusion that motivation for success is dependent on internal attributions has some definite implications for the teacher's role. These implications will be discussed in the next chapter.

Behaviorism and the more recent cognitive model of motivation have shed light on those processes that arouse, direct and sustain behavior. The evidence indicates that behavior is often motivated by forces outside the individual. Behaviorist psychology conceives of motivation as a stimulus-response

relationship. Habitual behavior and reflex reactions could be classified as being completely externally motivated. Beyond these classic, textbook behaviors are all those tasks we do that are extrinsically motivated. The importance in today's schools placed on grades fosters this type of motivation.

Much of our behavior, however, appears to be the result of mental processes that involve decision making. The cognitive theorists' model for motivation would be: stimulus-cognition-response. Research is being done to investigate the connection between motivation and the individual's attributions for success or failure and his feelings of self-efficacy. While this purely empirical study of motivation offers much useful information for the teacher working toward refining her theoretical commitments in the area of motivation, there is a body of evidence based on the work done by humanistic psychologists that must also be considered.

THE HUMANISTIC APPROACH TO MOTIVATION

Humanistic psychologists approach the question of motivation accepting non-empirical investigative methods as valid sources of information. They do not rule out their personal experience or their abundant case-studies to back their theories. Humanists offer a "growth" model of human development. They picture the

individual as one seeking to transcend, to understand more or to be more than before. The individual is seen as having vast potential for growth. This growth can be manifested only through the individual's own exertions.

Developmental psychologists have suggested that as the child develops psychologically into adulthood he is faced with developmental tasks that must be accomplished in order for healthy growth to take place. Erik Erikson states that the dominant developmental concern facing the young child is to trust or mistrust those around him. Later in life a dominant issue becomes independence versus dependence. Throughout these developmental stages it is suggested that various needs are present in the individual. As the child deals with the trust issue his needs for affiliation must be met for trust to be developed. Later other needs such as the need to feel self-determined and to feel competent may become central issues for healthy development. The following discussion deals with these issues and the related concepts of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

Self-determination implies making one's own choices. When the individual chooses to do that which is personally meaningful this motivation is referred to as intrinsic. Intrinsically motivated behaviors are:

based in people's need to be competent and self-determining in relation to their environment. They arise out of the individual's perception of what his needs are. The need for competence and self-determination leads

people to seek out and conquer challenges that are optimal for their capacities. (Deci, 1980)

Challenges are those stimuli that are viewed by the individual as "incongruous" to some internal structure. Deci states that individuals are continually motivated by a need to:

reduce incongruity once they have found it. The cyclical process of seeking and conquering challenges that are optimal for one's capacities represents the heart of intrinsically motivated behavior. The need is for being competent and self-determining, and the processes of seeking and conquering the challenges lead to the satisfaction of that need: the feeling of competence and self-determination.

According to Deci intrinsically motivated activities are those that we are good at but are not so easy that we do not feel challenged by them. Leisure time activities are often intrinsically motivated. The pleasure we get comes from the feeling of success and from doing something that has meaning. Other intrinsic forces are the need for or tendency to seek order and pattern, the need to reduce incongruity, the need for intellectual stimulation and the need for affiliation with others. Before considering these other intrinsic forces I would like to mention extrinsic motivation.

The opposite of intrinsic motivation is extrinsic motivation. Extrinsically motivated behaviors are those that are activated by forces in the environment. These are the activities that we do because of fear or the hope of some external reward. External forces that students frequently have to deal with are peer-pressure, parental pressure and school pressure.

Extrinsically motivated behavior tends to become automatic or non-chosen. It becomes automatic because it holds no intrinsic meaning. After doing something that is meaningless for awhile our tendency is to either stop doing it or to not think about it. I see two dangerous outcomes of operating solely under extrinsic motivation in the classroom. The most serious is that we run the risk of alienating our students towards learning. The least serious is that they will put out of their minds whatever it is we are teaching as quickly as possible. It seems evident that intrinsically motivated behavior is a desired outcome of teaching.

According to Deci our predisposition for intrinsic motivation or to feel competent and self-determining is developed according to our own unique talents and environment. This basic need is gradually differentiated into "specific needs- for achievement, self-actualization, (and) cognizance." (White 1959; Deci 1975)

Abraham Maslow has addressed the specific needs of the individual. Maslow (1970) describes a "hierarchy of needs" that motivate behavior. He states that humans have a need for self-actualization. While self-actualization is our ultimate goal, Maslow states that other more basic needs must be met before this highest goal can be addressed. Maslow arranged these needs into a hierarchy with the most basic physiological needs being most important to the individual until they are met. Coming after physiological needs is the need for safety. "Security,

stability, dependency, protection, freedom from fear, from anxiety, the need for structure, order, law and limits" are some of the specific needs that fall under this category. Following this are needs for affiliation and love. This need is followed by the need for esteem. Maslow divides this category into two main groups: the need for strength, achievement and mastery and the need for prestige, status and fame. "Satisfaction of the self-esteem needs leads to feeling of self-confidence, worth, strength, capability and adequacy, (and) of being useful and necessary in the world." After all these needs have been satisfied the individual may then strive for self-actualization. In this highest stage the individual is seeking to find and fulfill the meaning in his life.

Another psychologist to address the need for meaning is Victor Frankl. Frankl was imprisoned for several years in Nazi concentration camps and through this experience developed the approach to psychotherapy known as "logotherapy" or "meaning" therapy. The most important motivating force behind human behavior in Frankl's view is our search for meaning. It is termed to be the "last of human freedoms." (Frankl, 1967) According to Frankl, when all else is taken away we still have "the freedom to choose what our attitude will be in the face of any given circumstances". Behavior is not always the result of associative bonds to environmental stimulus or to physiological needs. Frankl cites many examples of individuals denying their own needs for food or comfort to satisfy their higher need for achieving

meaning or purpose in their lives.

In the ghastly surroundings of the camps Frankl wrote that all the familiar goals in life were taken away. What alone remained was the freedom to choose one's attitude in the face of difficulties. Frankl watched prisoners give up their search for meaning and quickly be consumed by the terrible suffering they experienced in the camps. Those individuals that found meaning in their suffering were able to withstand the pressure applied by their captors and gain strength from their experiences. Meaning is not the "mere self-expression of man himself" but rather the "confronting of existence." Meaning, says Frankl, is not invented but discovered. The things one discovers as valuable become the source of meaning in life. The purpose of logotherapy is to help the individual discover what his values are and to so fulfill the meaning in his life.

Frankl states that the will to meaning is frustrated by an "existential vacuum" that has come into being in the latter part of this century. He states that this vacuum is being caused by an abandonment of traditional values that once supported our behavior. To fill this vacuum the individual usually chooses to conform to the norm. The most frequent manifestation of this phenomena is boredom. It takes courage to be self-determining. Our human frailty, or a type of natural inertia tends to drag us down into accepting without question another's meaning.

Summary

What is it then that we are working with? Who are these people in our classrooms? What are the forces or motivations that influence their behavior? In this first chapter I have looked into several different approaches taken toward understanding human nature and behavior as it relates to teaching.

Psychologists are approaching these questions from different angles. Each school of thought offers differing views of human reality.

From the behaviorist perspective, the individual appears to be a very complex machine who is "wired" neurologically to respond in predictable ways to external stimulus. The student has a need for order, pattern and predictability. This need may exist as a protection for the individual. If every new environmental stimulus required our higher cognitive processes we would be bogged down in thought all the time. The tendency to form habits frees the individual to work on those tasks that are new and do demand concentrated mental effort.

Cognitive theorists view the individual as a thinking machine who uses stimuli as information that aids the process of decision making. When faced with an achievement task the student assesses his chances for success based on the internal and external cues available to him. These cues are used to generalize and group the task with other similar past experiences. The degree to which success or failure has been achieved in these

past encounters will influence how he approaches the present situation. Past successes boost feelings of self-efficacy and mean the student will try harder for a longer period. After the event, the student reflects on the outcome and tries to figure out why he succeeded or failed. The causes he attributes to the outcome will influence how he approaches similar tasks in the future.

Humanist psychologists picture the individual as a "transcender" continually striving for growth. They speak of the individual's need to feel competent and self-determined. The need to find meaning and purpose in living and to seek affiliation with others are seen as driving forces behind behavior. Intrinsically motivated behavior can result in feeling competent, affiliated and self-determined. Extrinsically motivated behavior can lead to automatic behavior and a sense of meaninglessness.

If, as suggested by humanistic psychology, the individual is intrinsically motivated to feel competent and self-determined, then the question arises: Why do we find so few "motivated" students in our classrooms?

I feel the answer is found in the nature of the classroom environment and the way the student perceives his environment. Self-determination involves a continual focus on what is most important or most meaningful for the individual. It necessitates continually being open to change: taking on new, useful ways of being and letting go of old, no longer useful ways. It means seeing with one's own eyes and not through the eyes of someone

else. At the core of self-determination is the willingness to make one's own decisions. Environments can squelch intrinsic motivation by not providing the proper balance between freedom and control. This happens by either denying the individual the opportunity to make decisions or granting too much freedom so that he feels abandoned. Chapter two deals with how the teacher can create an environment that fosters intrinsic motivation in the student.

We have invented the concept of motivation to attempt to make sense of behavior. How the teacher makes sense of behavior determines how she responds to it. At the beginning of this chapter I gave an example of a student waving to a passerby outside the classroom. The teacher sees the wave and must decide what to do. The teacher as a behaviorist interpreting this behavior would look to the stimulus-response relationship of the event and cite as its cause the positive reinforcement her student got when his friend waved back. The teacher as a cognitive theorist could imply her student's behavior was a result of a conscious decision made after weighing the embarrassment of possibly being singled out by the teacher with the pleasure of the passerby's smile. If the teacher were a humanist she could acknowledge her student's need for affiliation with his peers or that connecting with his friend was more meaningful than what was going on in the classroom at that moment.

From my reading and experience working with children it

seems to me that no single theory of human behavior captures a full picture of the student. I offer that the nature of our students is at once mechanical, rational and transcendent. Their mechanical side is manifested in needs for order, predictability and pattern. As rational beings students use cues from their environment to make decisions. Students' transcendent nature is evident through their need to find meaning and affiliation. I see three threads running through these views of human motivation. They are our motivation to feel successful, to feel affiliation and to find meaning in our lives. Viewing students this way has useful implications for teaching.

CHAPTER TWO

In this chapter I want to explore what the teacher can do to work effectively with student motivation. I believe that how we look at our students greatly influences how we teach them. My assumption is that if we accept that our students already have the necessary motivation, that they are not handicapped by "low motivation" then we can make a start with them. As I indicated in chapter one, students bring with them to the classroom the motivation to feel successful, to feel affiliated and to find meaning in their lives. I will concentrate on the implications for teaching for these three areas. My hypothesis is that if the teacher creates a classroom where the student finds success, affiliation and meaning, the students will learn and they will begin to feel intrinsic motivation to learn.

TEACHING FOR SUCCESS

Students are more motivated to achieve when they are successful. Madeline Hunter's Elements of Effective Instruction program (1976) identifies three "critical behaviors" of the teacher for successful teaching. According to Hunter the teacher should: 1. Teach to an objective. 2. Teach to the correct level of difficulty and 3. Monitor the students' behavior and adjust teaching accordingly. Two more areas of the teacher's role relate to the beginning and the end of the learning process. They are to communicate clearly the objective to the students and to provide

feedback to the learners in response to their efforts. The first part of the teacher's role is to teach to an objective.

Teaching to an objective simply means deciding what you want your students to learn and how you want them to learn it. Key questions to ask here are: What will my students learn? How will I know they learned?

Objectives for learning then have two parts: the learning + the learner behavior that will indicate the objective has been met.

For example, if you want your students to learn names of body parts, a possible objective could be: "The students will show their knowledge of the names of the parts of the body by labeling a drawing." The learning is knowledge of body parts and the behavior is labeling a drawing.

After the objective for learning has been formulated, the next part of teaching to an objective is planning activities that will lead the learners to mastery. Before the students can label the drawing they have to have the necessary knowledge. The teacher's role here is to provide "relevant information, relevant questions, relevant activities and to respond to the efforts of the learner." (Cummings, 1980)

Some factors that the teacher considers in determining the relevance of activities are the students' prior knowledge, their on-tap energy level, and the level of difficulty of the learning task. Cummings states that the level of difficulty of a task may be determined by undertaking a task analysis and administering a

diagnostic activity. The purpose of diagnostic activities is to find out what skills or knowledge students already have.

Diagnostic activities can be prepackaged formal tests or tests designed by the teacher. They can be informal oral or written surveys or they can be inferential, based on the intuition and "feel" the teacher has for the group's skill level. The teacher then plans activities that are at the correct level of difficulty for the student. This involves task analysis.

Task analysis starts by formulating an objective, breaking it down to discover its component skills and pieces of knowledge and then identifying and sequencing each step that leads to the accomplishment of the objective. The discovery of all the necessary skills within an objective makes it possible for the teacher to determine if the objective is within the reach of her students. The following suggests how to decide if an objective is at the correct level of difficulty:

Piaget(1952) proposed that children are intrinsically motivated to encounter situations that are moderately but not completely assimilable. This means that children are attracted to situations that partially match an existing cognitive structure." (Cited in Deci)

The ideal activities are those that match the learner's interests and abilities and are "moderately but not completely assimilable." Tasks that are too difficult will lower motivation and be avoided and those that are too easy will not hold the learner's interest. The assumption is that learning is incremental from easy to difficult and from simple to complex. It

is important in breaking down an objective to not take any learning or skill for granted.

After deciding on the objective for learning and planning observable activities at the correct level of difficulty that will lead the learners toward the objective, the teacher then monitors these activities. The teacher interprets her students' responses to decide if she should move on, practice, reteach or abandon the objective to one that is more appropriate.

The last step in this teaching/learning process is to provide "knowledge of results" (Hunter, 1976) to the students on their progress. Hunter stresses the importance of immediate feedback to increase motivation. The reasons why this feedback is a powerful tool are found in Weiner's attribution theory. As already indicated, students who attribute their success to internal effort tend to become more motivated for future similar tasks. The teacher's role here is to teach in a way that increases the chances that the student will conclude that he succeeded due to his own efforts and not because of external factors such as luck or easy tasks. This all gets back to planning learning activities at the correct level of difficulty and encouraging active participation.

An additional aspect of the teacher's role in helping the student attribute success to internal causes is through effective teacher praise. While praise is not a necessary ingredient in the learning process, if used effectively it can be a useful tool in increasing student motivation. Basic guidelines

for effective praise are sincerity and attention to actual accomplishment. It should be individualized according to the past performance of the student and should focus on both the ability and the effort expended. Due to the often negative impact of peer-pressure, praise might be more effective in private through written or verbal feedback. (Brophy, 1981) This feedback is most effective when it is given immediately following the activity.

Part of the teacher's role in fostering feelings of success in students is helping them see their role in the process. According to David McClelland and Eric Johnson, students can be taught to feel more successful through achieving their goals.

Recently E. Johnson (1984) developed a program for teaching achievement motivation in the schools. The basis for this program is self-evaluation, values clarification, goal setting, action and reevaluation. McClelland's message is that the need to achieve is a latent force acting within the student and can be taught.

High achievers think realistically about themselves. They have an accurate picture of what their strengths and weaknesses are. They know what is important for themselves and are able to decide what is most important at a given moment. Based on their knowledge of themselves, achievers set realistic goals and develop strategies for attaining these goals. The results of these strategies are evaluated and used for further goal setting. The process whereby the students' need to achieve is developed begins with looking for meaning in life, setting goals and

acting. This process is self-perpetuating because it satisfies the student's innate need to feel successful. Teachers can teach for success through effective pedagogy and by assisting students in realistic goal setting and achievement strategies. Another source of intrinsic motivation is our need for affiliation.

TEACHING FOR AFFILIATION

Students have affiliation needs that the teacher can capitalize on to increase the rate of learning. I feel these needs for affiliation can be broken down into three main areas: affiliation with peers, with the teacher and with the target language and culture. My assumption is that students who feel affiliated with their peers will be more secure and be better able to devote energy to learning. Students who feel affiliated with their teacher will be more apt to trust her and invest themselves in her learning activities. As the student moves toward an understanding of what culture is in general and becomes familiar with the target culture, I believe that affiliation will result. This affiliation is a feeling that can motivate learning.

Peer Affiliation

We are intrinsically motivated to feel connected with others and to belong to a group. We are social beings. Traditionally

schools have emphasized competition or individualism in the classroom. Roger and David Johnson working out of the University of Minnesota have been conducting research in cooperative learning as an alternative to the traditional approaches to education as a way to increase achievement and self-esteem. In cooperative learning a stated goal along with the mastery of the content is the teaching of cooperative social skills. The teacher takes time to present, practice and evaluate cooperative skills. The research done by the Johnsons indicates that this time spent teaching cooperative skills is rewarded in higher achievement, increased retention, improved attitudes towards peers and school personnel and improved self-esteem.

Cooperative groups are one way in which the teaching of cooperative skills is combined with academic tasks. Cooperative groups are best used when it is to the individual's advantage to work cooperatively rather than individually or competitively. The Johnsons identify three critical elements of cooperative groups: 1. Positive interdependence 2. Social skill training 3. Monitoring and processing of social skill behaviors.

Positive interdependence is created by controlling the materials, the way the task is structured and the method of evaluation. The teacher strives to create the feeling that, "I can attain my goal only if you attain your goal." The teacher breaks the class up into heterogeneous groups of between two and six students. Materials for the activity are distributed among the groups limiting the number of copies each group receives so

as to require group members to share materials. The task is structured so that the only way for the group to succeed is for all the members of the group to participate, understand and contribute to the final product that is turned in. In order for this to happen the teacher must be sure the task is well enough understood and is clear enough for the group to successfully complete without the teacher's intervention. While the group will cooperate and turn in one product, it must be clear that it is everyone's responsibility that everyone in the group understands the material and that each member is accountable for learning the academic task as well as cooperative skills. The teacher can help insure individual accountability by having each member initial his contributions to the group's final product. Another technique is to give everyone a clearly defined role in the group such as secretary, question asker, leader, etc. The teacher may also have each member maintain a copy of the group's work and then randomly collect one copy from each group and give the entire group that individual's grade.

Another aspect that sets cooperative learning groups apart from non-structured small groups is that social skills are consciously presented, practiced and evaluated. Just as with any objective, the teacher must present cooperative skills in a way that takes into account the age and experience of the group. As the groups become more skillful, they can tackle more advanced cooperative behavior. Beginning groups might work on taking turns and sharing materials. Advanced groups might be expected to

criticize ideas, not people, and integrate their ideas. Each group monitors its own functioning. This can be done by appointing a group member to make checks on a social skill check list whenever the desired skills are used in the group. The teacher also monitors the social skill behaviors during the activity so at the close of the activity she can assist in the processing of how the students were interacting with each other. Processing is a time for students to identify areas of weakness as well as areas of strength.

In the classroom students can work competitively, individually or cooperatively. I believe that teachers can direct students' affiliation needs into positive cooperative channels that will have a beneficial effect on academic achievement, self-esteem and relationships with peers and faculty. In the next section I want to look further into the teacher's role in fostering student feelings of affiliation.

Teacher Affiliation

I believe successful teachers' rewards come from the quality teaching/learning relationships that come into being in their classrooms. The role of the teacher in creating relationships that promote learning is the subject of this next section. My assumption is that feelings of affiliation toward the teacher can have a dramatic impact on student motivation to learn.

I am defining teacher affiliation as a set of feelings and

attitudes that develop within the student. Among these are feelings of caring and affiliation, respect, admiration, credibility and trust. They can increase the chances that the student will invest himself in the class and do what he can to meet his teacher's expectations. Teachers can help bring about this type of relationship through effective teaching. This involves helping the student achieve success and find meaning, which I address elsewhere in this chapter. What follows is a look at how teacher attitudes and expectations can enhance affiliation.

I do not think it is the role of the teacher to seek affiliation. Seeking affiliation would cause the teacher to lose sight of her primary responsibility: to teach. The student has to decide how much he will trust and invest in the class. The teacher's role is to teach effectively and then reap the benefits of affiliation should it occur.

Another part of the teacher's role is to manifest the same attitudes in herself that she wants to see in her students. Teacher attitudes that encourage affiliation are self-confidence: "I am convinced that what I am doing is important for your learning." Messages such as "I care about your learning, I trust in your abilities, I know you have worth and I know you can learn," encourage the growth of these attributes. If the teacher maintains a positive attitude toward her students the chances are greater that they will live up to her expectations. What follows are some thoughts on the issue of teacher expectations for

student performance.

During the past six years I have taught in a number of very different teaching assignments involving various age levels and subjects. I was always given a lot of freedom to teach whatever I wanted using whatever approach I desired. Every time I taught a different subject and/or level I first had to decide what I wanted my students to learn both academically and socially. I found that higher expectations resulted in higher performance and lower expectations resulted in lower performance. No expectations, unrealistic expectations or poorly defined expectations (all common problems with beginning teachers) also resulted in poor performance.

Unrealistically high expectations can be lowered easily. Unrealistically low expectations can be raised if they are discovered and corrected early enough in the term. Students quickly form habits that are difficult to break. Poorly defined expectations result from ambiguity or inexperience and undermine the confidence students hold for the teacher. If clarified quickly student performance probably will not suffer. It follows, then, that it is wise to begin with high, clearly defined expectations for student performance. They can always be adjusted if it becomes apparent that they are inappropriate.

The expectations of the teacher center around academics and creating a learning environment. I am including all non-academic learning such as appropriate social behavior and classroom routines in this area of creating a learning environment. The two

areas of academic and non-academic learning are mutually dependent. However, academic learning is the center on which non-academic learning is based. Once the teacher is in control of what she wants her students doing academically, the learning environment can be established. I do not think it possible to define here specifically what academic or non-academic skills should be taught. It is too complex an issue and unfortunately one that can only be learned through direct experience teaching. There are, however, some points that I think are useful in beginning.

The first step is for the teacher to decide what she wants her students to learn. She then plans activities that will help her students achieve her objectives. Expectations arise out of the teacher's objectives. These expectations relate to how fast and how well students will learn. I do not know how to emphasize enough the importance of these two steps of planning in establishing a healthy teacher-student relationship. I am convinced that the basis for willing acceptance of teacher expectations is for students to feel engaged in meaningful activities that they can succeed in. This forms the foundation on which a learning environment can be built.

After the teacher determines her expectations, she then communicates these to her students. The way she chooses to communicate her expectations along with her timing determines how well they will be received. A universal among experienced teachers is that the first few days of the school year is a

critical period in establishing a learning environment. Many teachers make the mistake of launching into chapter one before the class knows what the routines are. The first things students want to know is how much control the teacher has over the academic and non-academic content. This is when students are searching for clues regarding these expectations. They want and need to know what the limits are. "What do I do when I forget my pencil?" "What happens when I blurt out an answer?"

The teacher's job is to communicate her expectations in a positive way. "Of course you will always bring your materials to class." "Certainly you will wait until you are called on to give me the answer." A positive attitude backed up with fair, consistent enforcement will teach the class she cares enough to expect the best of her students. After expectations for the learning environment are established, students can feel safe in their knowledge that there is order in the classroom and that someone who cares is in charge.

There is a balance that effective teachers maintain between informality and authority. Effective teachers are perceived by their students as being in control while allowing a degree of freedom within this control. Freedom is granted by the teacher. Earl Stevick (1980) has addressed the issue of teacher control and student freedom. Stevick contends that teacher control is an essential part of fostering student initiative:

In exercising "control," then, the teacher is giving some kind of order, or structure, to the learning space of the student. In encouraging him to take "initiative," she is allowing him to work, and to grow, within that space. The trick, for the teacher, is not only to preserve this distinction; it is also to provide just the right amount learning space. If there is too little, the student will be stifled. If there is too much, the student will feel that the teacher has abandoned him.

If teachers can achieve this balance of control and freedom, teacher affiliation is more likely to happen. If it does the teacher is in a good position to encourage the growth of intrinsic motivation to learn. Teachers can also encourage the development of feelings of affiliation for the target language and culture.

Target Language/Culture Affiliation

The learner on the first day of language class or the immigrant stepping off the plane brings with him more than books or baggage. He brings his first language and culture. He also brings his attitudes about the language and culture he is about to learn. These will influence his learning. If the learner is burdened with negative stereotypes or prejudice about the target culture, chances are that his progress in learning it will be slower than if he has more positive feelings.

It is my assumption that a key factor in language learning is the development within the learner of feelings of affiliation for the target language and culture. I see learning language and culture as an on-going process towards ever deeper and deeper understanding. The term Caleb Gattegno uses is "entering into the spirit of the language". When there is this level of understanding, I believe feelings such as affiliation, respect and affection will grow. These feelings are motivators for further learning. The reasons why I believe understanding is a necessary goal in language learning are based on my assumptions regarding the nature of and the relationship between language, culture and the individual.

The power of speech separates human beings from other forms of life on this planet. Language is intimately linked with our human reality. We are social beings who depend on the group for survival. Speech provides the means whereby group connections can be formed, strengthened and passed from generation to generation.

Members of a language community all interpret their experiences through the same language. For them these interpretations tend to be regarded as reality itself. A frequently cited example of this is the large number of words in Eskimo languages for snow. For non-Eskimos snow is snow. We speakers of English have no way of expressing or

understanding the reality of snow as experienced by Eskimos.

Language is bound up with world view. Our world view serves to free us and to bind us at the same time. It frees us by giving us predetermined ways of dealing with our environment. We do not have to weigh an unlimited number of options when faced with new situations. This allows us to direct our energy where we feel is necessary. Stereotypes are a predetermined way of viewing people which free us from having to evaluate each new individual we meet. We are also freed by knowing more or less what to expect from other members of our culture in social situations.

Culture binds us by limiting our vision to these same packaged solutions. By forming stereotypes we blind ourselves to the fact that individual members of a culture are just that: individuals. Culture facilitates living in groups and does not always serve the needs of the individual. This is especially true when the individual comes in contact with members of other cultures either directly or in a language classroom. These characteristics of language, culture and the individual pose unique problems and opportunities for the language teacher.

Since we tend to believe that our world view is the world and not just our interpretation of the world, other interpretations are often seen as threatening or foreign. This foreignness exists on several levels for the student.

On one level foreignness results from the newness of what is to be learned. Here language learning is no different from learning music or mathematics. This is the foreignness that must be eliminated through effective teaching as mentioned elsewhere in this chapter.

On another level is the foreignness that results from the cultural or world view differences reflected through the language. The flexibility or adaptability of the learner will influence how easily he overcomes foreignness and takes on the new language. Children seem especially adept at soaking up language, possibly due to the willingness with which they accept new ways of being. Gattegno writes of the teacher's role as one who helps the learner rediscover the child within. Many effective language teachers use learning activities that require the student to "play" with the language, thereby drawing on our innate adaptability.

To further decrease foreignness and increase understanding it is important to understand the effects of stereotyping. I saw a good example of the effects of positive and negative stereotyping teaching English in Mexico and later teaching Spanish in the U.S.

The students I worked with had a range of views toward the target language and culture. Those with very strong positive images of the U.S. or Latin America seemed highly motivated to learn and identify with the culture, sometimes at the expense of their native culture. They sought out native speakers to practice their language skills and at times berated their native culture.

Negative stereotypes on the other hand tended to limit involvement with the language and its speakers. This way of thinking was self-perpetuating. Their stereotypes remained unchallenged through lack of contact with the "foreigners". This condition provided an ideal environment for prejudice to grow. My conclusion was that positive stereotypes, if not carried to the extreme, were healthy because they promoted interaction. Negative stereotypes were unhealthy because they limited interaction and permitted prejudice.

Language learners are in an excellent position to make some very positive steps toward a clearer vision of other cultures. They have already taken a first step which is to learn another language. The teacher's role in increasing understanding is first to help students become aware that they, and everyone else, hold stereotypes. Students should then identify their stereotypes and explore the effects of holding them.

The student is the one who has the power to revise his attitudes. The teacher does not enter planning to change peoples' minds. The teacher presents the issues of stereotypes and prejudice as two stumbling blocks in the way of learning. All the time she gives the students the message that what they ultimately do is their decision.

I think the best way to help show the inaccuracy of stereotypes toward a language community is to increase the awareness of the diversity within the community. The teacher can bring in members of the language community that contradict students' stereotypes. As an understanding of diversity grows the student may begin to revise and clarify

his image of the community. These tactics are defensive. I think the most effective way a teacher can foster understanding and later affiliation is by going on the offensive.

By going on the offensive I mean that there are attitudes toward cultural diversity that the teacher can develop which I believe have a profound impact on students. These attitudes center around the concept of the oneness of the human family. Armed with a firm belief in the oneness of mankind a teacher can act as a peace-maker breaking down the artificial barriers of stereotypes.

There are threads that run through all the cultures on the planet. I think this realization comes to everyone who has had the chance to look at outwardly differing cultures with a degree of openness. Our basic human needs for safety, security and affection are the same. Our response to these needs is diverse. The teacher, by first moving toward the elimination of prejudice in her own mind, is then in a position to aid students to focus on the common threads as well as the differences that exist in diverse cultures. She can help her students enjoy and celebrate the differences and also help them see past these differences to the underlying fundamental oneness that unites us all. Understanding and appreciating this unity in diversity is, I think, the key for overcoming prejudice and promoting a world view that encourages affiliation.

TEACHING FOR MEANING

So far in this chapter the teacher's role in working with the student's inherent motivation to feel successful and to find affiliation has been discussed. The teacher's role in working with the student's motivation to find meaning is the subject of this next section. This type of motivation is a rich source of energy within the student waiting to be tapped. I see the teacher's role as one who creates an environment that increases the chances for the student to tap into this source. I think successful teachers discover and communicate meaning from a cognitive, an existential and a spiritual level. To clarify what these levels are and how they are related I am offering the following assumptions. My assumptions are based on my investigation of the Baha'i Faith and my teaching experience.

First, I assume that truth exists. Furthermore, I believe truth exists independent of our understanding. We are motivated intrinsically to investigate, discover and decide what we believe to be true. Meaning is our individual perception of the truth. Discovering truth is the same as constructing meaning. The shape of the new meaning we construct appears to be determined to a large extent by the past meanings we have constructed.

The basis for this discovery of meaning is independent investigation. This implies not blindly accepting another's meaning. The balance Stevick talks about between teacher control and learner freedom applies here.

My assumption is that we are motivated to discover truth on a physical plane and a spiritual plane. We have two important tools to discover truth: our minds and our hearts. Our minds work to put pieces together, take them apart, to compare, contrast and evaluate our experience. This is the domain of science. Scientists are trained to use their intellectual powers to investigate and discover the truths of the material world. The first chapter's discussion of the empirical approach to motivation, plus the sections on teaching for success and the following section on cognitive meaning address this aspect of the student and the how the teacher can work with the student on this level.

On a spiritual level, our hearts work to discover truth or construct meaning intuitively, through feeling and the power of faith. This is the realm of spiritual truth. Religion and art function within this domain. The humanistic approach discussed in chapter one and the section dealing with affiliation in chapter two relate to this aspect of the student's nature and how the teacher may relate to it.

On an existential level both our intellect and our spirit work to uncover basic existential meaning. On this level we rank our meaning according to its importance to us. Our goals in life and the questions we ask help clarify what is important and unimportant. The questions we ask change as we learn and grow. In the classroom students are searching for meaning on cognitive, spiritual and existential levels. Each of these

levels has important implications for the teacher.

Cognitive Meaning

To help students in their motivation to encounter meaning on a cognitive level the teacher needs to be aware of the way new experiences or information is dealt with by the student. Our tendency upon encountering unfamiliar information is to try to fit it in with our past experience. This tendency has been the subject of the research of schema theorists. Schema theory states that meaning is an interactive process between the learner and his environment. Every act of comprehension involves the student's knowledge of the world. Therefore, what the learner brings to the learning task determines to a large extent what he will take out of it. The teacher serves as an intermediary between the learner and the learning task.

There are two types of schema: formal or contextual and content schema. Formal schema are the ways ideas are put together. In written texts the organizational structure differs according to its genre. Fairy tales and poetry and research reports in medical journals all have their own formal schema. These schema can be taught to give the student more tools with which to comprehend. The other type of schema is based on the content or the facts and details of the learning task.

Facts or details, once understood, become cognitive "pegs" on which to hang new information. The teacher determines if

these pegs exist. If they are present, the teacher draws the student's attention to them. The teacher works to raise the student's awareness that what he brings to the task is a key element and must be drawn upon for comprehension to take place. The teacher encourages the student to make inferences about the content. These inferences or predictions are then revised by the learner as more information is gained.

It seems clear that the teacher must be aware of the knowledge and skills the learner brings to the task. She must also be aware of the specific task demands. When faced with a reading task that is above the level of comprehension of the learners, either the text or the learner must be modified if comprehension is to occur. The text can be modified by summarizing it using vocabulary within the reach of the learners. Key vocabulary can be highlighted and defined before the reading. The teacher can direct the students' attention to the task ahead by having them construct a graphic representation or map of the material they will be reading. This technique can also be used after the reading task to determine what they have learned.

The habit of making predictions about the content and using one's background knowledge is a basic skill in constructing meaning. Teachers can give students practice in this skill through effective questioning. Open ended questions demanding higher levels of thinking and predictions of future events give students practice in the use of their past

experiences. Minimal information puzzles also provide practice in this area. In this technique the student is presented with an unfinished drawing or story. They have to fill in the gaps through asking questions and making educated guesses.

On a cognitive level we strive to reconcile new challenges from our environment with our existing mental framework. Put another way, we try to master the unknown by making it known. Teaching to this type of learning is more quantifiable, more scientific than artistic. Research done on schema theory sheds light on how the student creates meaning. The search for cognitive meaning, if successful, results in the learning of skills necessary for healthy intellectual growth.

Spiritual Meaning

Before starting the school year last fall, I had the opportunity to listen to a talk given by the National Teacher of the year, Guy Dowd. He was scheduled to speak for an hour and a half at a district-wide year opening "kick-off". From the moment he started, to the moment he finished one hour over his allotted time, he had his audience spell-bound. His speech was unforgettable. I am bringing it up here because I think this man best summarized what I want to say about spiritual meaning in the classroom.

His central message was love. He told stories about the love that he felt from his teachers as he grew up a child of

alcoholic parents. He told how it was this caring and extra attention that proved to be the key for him out of a lonely and dark childhood. As he spoke we saw why he was so honored out of all the teachers in the country.

One of the themes he stressed was that what he was doing was no more than all of us in the room were doing already. I agreed with this to a point. The difference as I saw it was his willingness to accept the whole student unconditionally. This openness of feeling and acceptance is something that distinguishes outstanding teachers. I do not think this means doing remarkable earth-shattering things. I believe it means rising to the numerous occasions every day when we are faced with the choice of doing what is easy or doing what we know to be right.

He was able to communicate the caring he felt for his students so that they had no doubt he was sincere. He was able to see beyond the walls his students put up to protect themselves. He saw that no matter how hard we deny or try to hide, all of us need and want to feel cared for. He spoke of teen-age suicide. That he had been to seven student funerals during his career. I think his strength was that he could really feel the pain his students felt and was able to reach out to offer them his love. His students' search for spiritual meaning was satisfied and strengthened through being in his classroom.

Existential Meaning

As we construct meaning on a cognitive and spiritual level we experience the need to attach importance to this meaning. As stated earlier, personal goals help determine the relative value we place on cognitive and spiritual meaning. These goals change all the time. I look at these goals as short term or long term. Short term goals get us through daily living. Taking a minute to thank someone or remembering to take a book along on a train ride are the successful completion of short term goals. They come, and after they are met they are replaced by new goals. Long term goals relate to deeper questions about the meaning and purpose of living. "Do I want to get married?" or "Where will we send our kids to school?" are long term goals that come and are not resolved so easily.

I see the role of the teacher as first clarifying in her own mind the value she places on the different aspects of teaching. She ranks meaning according to its importance to her. She decides what her goals are in the classroom. Clarity of what is important and what is not is the first step toward good decisions. She can then work toward fulfilling her personal meaning through making decisions that reflect her values. By doing this she is providing an example that helps her students clarify and fulfill their own meaning.

During my year teaching Spanish I worked and shared office

space with about 10 other language teachers. During office hours throughout the year we were visited occasionally by former students. The interesting thing to me was that these visits were not equally distributed among all the teachers. Well over half the returning students came to see one teacher in particular. The impact he had had on these students was evident by the fact that they came back. Many came back to talk about their Spanish experiences after high school, but an equally large number were no longer studying Spanish and just wanted to talk. Even though I had heard from other faculty that this teacher was outstanding, I was surprised by this show of affection on the part of his former students.

Throughout the year I had a number of discussions with him about what was important in teaching. I wanted to discover the secret of his success. What I learned boiled down to one key element. This teacher had a very clear idea of what was meaningful for him and was able to communicate this meaning in a way his students could understand. This teacher was able to find a balance between the cognitive or academic goals he had for his students as learners of Spanish and the spiritual goals he had for his students as young adults. He was committed to both. He was excited about both. His excitement must have been getting through because his students felt they were learning Spanish and they were feeling his caring. He manifested his caring through fairness and his strict enforcement of the rules. Teaching responsibility and courtesy were as high on his list as verb

conjugations.

To teach to existential meaning implies clarifying why we are doing what we are doing on a short and long term basis and then striving to fulfill these "whys". Creating a classroom environment that promotes the fulfillment of what is important is, I think, our most important job. The role of the teacher here is to clarify and listen to her own values and then to those of her students, to model an attitude of excitement and commitment to intellectual and spiritual growth and to offer hope to the student that his search is not in vain.

Summary

In this chapter I have looked at the relationship of the teacher to three areas where I feel the student is intrinsically motivated. The role of the teacher is not to motivate students but to create an environment that encourages students to use whatever motivation they bring with them. The type of environment that encourages motivation for success is characterized by effective pedagogy. This means teaching to an objective, teaching to the correct level of difficulty and monitoring and adjusting learning activities according to the efforts of the learner.

The student has affiliation needs that can be broken down into the areas of affiliation with peers, with the teacher and with the target language and culture. Cooperative learning

strategies provide a way to channel the needs students feel to be connected with peers into better learning, improved self-esteem and improved peer relationships. Quality teaching/learning relationships between the teacher and the student are encouraged when the teacher combines effective pedagogy with a caring attitude, clear expectations for academic and social behavior and the right amount of learner freedom. Affiliation with the target language will happen as the student deepens his understanding of the target language and culture, the principles of unity in diversity and the oneness of mankind. This affiliation can speed up the learning process by increasing motivation.

Students search for meaning on a cognitive level, an existential level and a spiritual level. Teachers can be more effective cognitively if they are aware of the student's prior knowledge and prepare the student or modify the new input to assist him in forming schema. On a spiritual level, students respond to sincerity, caring and empathy. Existentially, teachers need to decide where they find meaning in the spiritual and cognitive areas and then communicate this to their students. Students bring with them the motivation to feel successful, to find meaning and to feel affiliation. The teacher's role is to consider all three areas in order to deal effectively with the student.

CHAPTER THREE

In chapter one I raised some questions regarding human motivation. I suggested three types of intrinsic motivation that appear to be operating in our students. I further stated my assumption that this intrinsic motivation could be used by the teacher to encourage intrinsic motivation to learn. In the second chapter I offered some suggestions as to how teachers could do this. In this chapter I look back on a year of teaching high school Spanish to detail what I learned about motivating students to learn a foreign language. I feel I must preface my observations with some thoughts on life as a First Year Teacher.

Even though I had taught for a number of years before starting as a high school Spanish teacher, I had little experience teaching high school and little experience teaching Spanish. So I was, I admit, an official First Year Teacher. Having this status entitled me to certain privileges not shared by any other members of the profession. Among them were the chance to attend a free district-sponsored lunch at the beginning of the year, to stand up in front of large groups of people and be introduced as a New Teacher and, most importantly, to be forgiven for blunders. On the less positive side were the hours spent every day planning the next day's lessons and the time spent coming to grips with new attendance, grading and discipline procedures. These by themselves were a

problem only in that they took away from the time I would have liked to have spent doing more long range planning, refining my methods and experimenting with motivation strategies.

My point in mentioning this is to state that so much of my time and energy was spent dealing with the newness of the content I was teaching and developing my approach to the public high school environment that most of what I learned had to do with newness rather than with motivation. I classified last year as a year to learn from mistakes and to build a foundation for future years. Given this I still feel that last year I grew more professionally than in any other year I have taught.

TEACHING FOR SUCCESS

I discovered that teaching to an objective is an important element of effective instruction. To develop this aspect of my teaching I adopted the goal of writing the objectives for each day's lesson on the chalkboard before starting to teach. My purpose in doing this was to help me focus better on what I wanted to do and also to help my students do the same. This goal was especially useful to me because in previous teaching assignments I had the tendency to concentrate on what my students would be doing more than

what they would be learning. Two questions I asked myself as I began planning a lesson were, "Why are we doing this?" and "What will they learn?" I discovered that clarifying my learning objectives made evaluating their performance much easier and the learning activities more meaningful.

Teaching to an objective involves knowing precisely what skills and knowledge are required for success. I learned not to assume that my students would possess all the skills necessary to meet my objectives.

When working on learning the meanings of new vocabulary contained in a song, I divided up the lyrics among the class, gave them all Spanish-English dictionaries and told them to look up words they didn't know. Some students launched into the task and finished it in a few minutes. Others were stuck. When I asked them what the trouble was they told me they had never used a dictionary to translate and didn't know where to begin.

From the above example I learned the importance of not only determining my students' prior knowledge, but also the level of difficulty or complexity of the task. My feeling is that experience is the best teacher here. I often thought that my classes later in the day benefited from the mistakes I made in the morning.

Another area that is part of teaching for success is checking students along the way as they move through the toward accomplishing the learning task. As I had discovered from my previous experience working with high school age students, it is vital to plan activities that require active

participation to guarantee involvement and to facilitate monitoring progress.

I learned to use "response cards" during some practice sessions to ensure active participation. In practicing the distinction between the familiar and formal forms of the pronoun "you" in Spanish, I had my students make cards with the words "tu" and "usted" written on them. I then gave them a scenario between two speakers and had them make up their minds which form to use. These procedures simplified the problem of checking students' efforts.

My experience confirmed the idea that immediate feedback is a good source of motivation for students. The biggest problem I had was correcting the work of 150 students. I experimented with having the class do self-correction and correct each other's tests. I found each of these had problems. Grades play such a big part in students' minds that most of them would not hesitate to cheat to improve their own score. When they corrected each other's work they made frequent errors both for and against the owner.

What I finally discovered was that the most effective way of providing immediate feedback as a motivational tool was to give many short, semi-formal quizzes immediately following a learning activity. These could be either self-corrected or neighbor-corrected with fewer problems because they were less threatening. The threat was reduced by the small number of points they were worth and by their proximity to the actual learning. I found students did not

want to cheat if they felt they were prepared for a test. What follows is an account of an experiment in teaching achievement.

The first day of class I planned a goal setting activity with all my students. We went over the process of goal setting as described by Johnson and McClelland and they filled out forms which I collected. On the form my students listed goal ideas, set goals and recorded strategies for achieving their goals. They were to keep a copy of their goals. At midquarter I returned their sheets to them they evaluated their progress toward their goals. Again at the end of the first quarter they evaluated their goals to see if they were still realistic.

I learned several things from this goal setting exercise. In reading through the goals my students chose I now think the class needed more structure from me in every step of the process. Many students had trouble setting realistic goals for themselves. They set goals that sounded like responses to teacher or parent lectures. "I will get an A-." "I will improve my listening comprehension." The first step of the process was to think realistically about yourself. This is a key to the later steps to goal setting.

I believe a questionnaire could be developed to raise students' awareness regarding the problems of achieving some of the goals that they chose. For example, many students stated they would complete all homework assignments, even if they had never done this before. Another problem I saw was with planning achievement strategies that could not be tracked, such as "to listen more carefully in class."

Evaluation, the last step in the process, will be on-going the next time I lead this activity. Possibly students could maintain daily or weekly records of their efforts to achieve their goals.

Goal setting is a valuable way of increasing students' motivation to achieve due to its relationship to clarifying what is meaningful to them. By clarifying their own meaning students can use this intrinsic force (search for meaning) to achieve their goals and be more successful.

TEACHING FOR AFFILIATION

Peer Affiliation

The idea of getting students involved with one another working on a common goal fit in with my assumption that students' affiliation needs could be channeled toward instructional goals. I also felt that small groups were a way to achieve more and give more students more time practicing language. Based on these assumptions, plus the positive results I saw coming from past small group work, I used small learning groups with my high school students.

I soon started seeing some problems with these groups. I noticed a large amount of off-task behavior and also a

great deal of non-participation. The quality of the work that these groups turned in varied widely. During the school year I learned of the work done by the Johnson's in "cooperative learning" which I briefly described in chapter two. Their work helped explain why my groups were not achieving all I had hoped. First, I think that I had assumed the small group setting would boost intrinsic motivation to succeed at the task. I found this not to be the case. I discovered that feeling positive interdependence within the group was vital for cooperation to occur.

I passed out a worksheet to each student and split the class up into groups. I asked that they help each other solve the problems on the sheet and hand them in 15 minutes. They started working independently with little cooperation. After a few minutes I announced that the group's grade would be the that of the lowest score of the group. I noticed a marked increase in helping and some heated arguments over grammar points that suddenly became more important.

I believe that cooperative learning has a real place in the classroom. With my students' needs for peer affiliation and high grades so strong it seems like a natural step to combine the two needs in learning cooperatively. I am attracted to the principles of interdependence and team work. The cooperative skills involved seem to me to be very relevant not only in language learning but in interpersonal relationships on all levels. I hope to continue in this area of teaching cooperative skills.

Teacher Affiliation

Students develop feelings of affiliation in an atmosphere of success and meaning. An aspect of effective teaching that relates to this affiliation are appropriate academic and social expectations. I feel this is an area of my teaching that experienced growth. I think that what I learned about academic and social expectations was that effective teaching, e.g., teaching to an objective, teaching to the correct level of difficulty, etc... would eliminate management problems and clear the way for quality teaching/learning relationships to develop. Students who are given clear objectives that are within their reach will experience success and feel good about themselves and the class.

I also learned that there are some students who do not respond to effective teaching. These students have learned to respond only to clear, firm limits and demand that adults place these limits on them. I learned that behavior problems like these do not go away by themselves. The earlier these students can be identified the easier it is to establish limits on their behavior. I feel that the most effective way of dealing with this behavior is not to come down hard with

both feet, but to come down immediately with the minimum amount of control necessary.

A first step is notify the student that his behavior is unacceptable. Minimum notification is a direct stare or a light touch or a mention of his name that will not draw unnecessary attention from his peers and will require the least energy and time from the teacher. The lesson is not interrupted. If the behavior does not stop or it stops and then starts again the next level of notification is more direct. The lesson stops. Look at the student, say his name and begin walking towards him. The lesson continues as soon as the behavior is corrected. If the misbehavior continues, walk to the student maintaining eye contact and quietly tell the student what he should be doing. Levels of control beyond this are moving the student to a different seat in the room or asking the student to leave the room until a private conference between you can be held in the hall. Parental or administrative involvement is necessary if these earlier steps fail.

Minimum control assumes that the student really wants to do well. It sends the message that misbehavior will not be tolerated and that student self-respect will be preserved. This leaves all the stronger control measures available if they are needed.

I discovered that the first thing students need to learn in the classroom is not page one of the text. I think the tone for the year is established in the first week. Once established, it is hard to change. I think expectations for academic performance, social behavior and procedural details are key lessons in this first week. The final area under this heading is affiliation with the target language and

culture.

Target Language/Culture Affiliation

My assumptions in this area are that understanding of the target language/culture encourages affiliation and that teacher attitudes toward language and culture can influence student attitudes. The areas I worked on were the reduction of foreignness through playing and communicating with the language and the reduction of stereotyping and prejudice through teaching unity in diversity.

Even though I felt under pressure to stick closely to the material presented in the text, which was almost exclusively grammar-based, I presented this material in game-like settings whenever possible. I felt responsible for the vocabulary and the structures but not for the text itself. We played overhead transparency "Concentration" matching vocabulary with drawings taken from the text. We used "Scrambled Sentences" to practice word order.

I spent a great deal of time developing activities that got my students using the language to communicate in meaningful ways. My students wrote dialogs, skits, and telephone conversations. We wrote letters and got answers back from Mexican junior high students. These activities did

get my students using the language. These were steps toward a decrease of foreignness and an increase of understanding.

To reduce stereotypes and prejudice I drew heavily on my experience living in Mexico and any contact my students had with the culture. The contact my upper Midwestern students had with the Latin American community did not occur on a day to day basis. A number of my students did have the opportunity to take vacations with their parents to Mexican resorts. I interviewed returning students in class with the idea of exploring their attitudes and impressions of Mexican culture. These interviews were always interesting, providing us with a chance to talk about Mexican attitudes toward American tourists. The opinions that carried the most weight were those from the returning students themselves. I would like to develop this further by setting up more formal pre- and post-trip meetings with these students. During the actual visit I can see possibilities for exploration such as taping interviews with native speakers and visiting parts of the city off the tourist circuit.

To build understanding of cultural unity in diversity I compared U.S. and Mexican solutions to linguistic and cultural problems. I did this by sharing stories of my personal adjustment to Mexican culture. For example, I related to them the story of my first date with a Mexican woman and how we ended up having her mother as our chaperone. I was not certain of the effect my anecdotes had

on my students. I did note that they were very eager to hear more and I held their attention during a story. My objective was to show that cultural solutions to problems are best understood in their own context and that we all share the same cultural problems. By holding a non-judgemental attitude and by showing affection for the culture I tried to give them insights into the culture, to breakdown stereotypes and to deepen their understanding of the underlying unity of all cultures.

TEACHING FOR MEANING

In the last chapter I presented two facets of teaching for existential meaning. One was the need for the teacher to be aware of what is important to her students and the other was for the teacher herself to clarify her own values and to communicate these to her students. I believe I learned some important lessons regarding these two aspects of teaching for meaning.

The first thing I learned was that the most important issues facing my students were 1) their need to establish secure peer relationships and 2) their need to get good grades. Grades were important due to their perception that their future entrance into a good college and then a good

career hung in the balance. Many students felt pressure from their parents to achieve high grades. "'How many points is this worth?' and, 'Will this be graded?'" were frequent comments. I also had to compete with my students' needs for peer approval. Much of their mental and emotional energy was devoted to their insecurity. These two facts plus the realities of teaching 150 students in a public school made it clear that to be effective I would have to find a balance between my ideals and the context I would be in. My year teaching high school Spanish could be summed up as a search for this balance.

To teach Spanish the way I wanted involved students with a high degree of intrinsic motivation to learn and a level of maturity and social skills that allowed me to teach language and not good conduct. I knew that with high school students this intrinsic motivation to learn could not be counted on. Even though Spanish was an elective, I realized that I had a "captive" audience, with a mind set that relied on extrinsic motivation: grades and a highly structured environment. I also knew that my students were not grownups yet and would require instruction in responsible behavior.

The importance put on grades by the administration, parents and students made it necessary for me to develop a balance between the oral communication, learner-based approach I favored and the reading-writing, grammar-based approach they favored. The emphasis on reading, writing and

grammar was hard to resist because it lent itself to a grading system based on earning points. Class participation and effort do not translate easily into points. Since grades were so important I saw how developing a clear, fair and rapid grading system was a powerful tool that could have positive effects on the development of intrinsic motivation.

My solution to the grading problem was to get away from the big pre-packaged tests that came with the text. These put heavy emphasis on memorization of grammar rules and vocabulary. I chose shorter, more frequent quizzes and tried to play down their importance. My quizzes put more emphasis on the communication activities we did in class. My students were still able to earn points through working hard and I felt more in control of the grading system.

Another area of growth for me was that of teaching responsible behavior. One of the things I value in teaching is helping students become more responsible. On the first day I passed out a list of my expectations. Expectation number two read, "Show courtesy to one another." At the beginning of the year I had an ill-defined idea of what courtesy meant in the context of the high school classroom. I had no idea if I would even have to teach courtesy or how I would teach it if I had to. Courtesy was and is meaningful to me. The difficulty arose in trying to clarify for myself and for my students how courtesy would be translated into a reality in my classroom.

The key here for me after deciding that courtesy was

important was to arrive at a definition of courtesy with the class. I realized that it was more effective to concentrate on what courteous behavior was rather than on what it wasn't. To challenge all my students I put this discussion in the framework of learning an important aspect of Mexican culture. Using their input and mine we defined courtesy in Mexican and American terms, arrived at a definition for our classroom and made this a goal to strive for. I told them how Mexican students always say "Buenos dias" to the teacher when they enter the room. If they were late they had to ask permission to enter the room. This meant they had to learn how to ask permission. All my students could be involved because they were all learning something new. They perceived it as important because I was putting importance on it at the beginning of the year, it was part of Mexican culture, and I also told them they could earn points by learning it.

Teaching for meaning involves having some awareness of the nature of the student and the nature of the teaching assignment. It means clarifying a personal philosophy of teaching and then making it come alive in the classroom. My year of teaching Spanish helped me clarify what I think is important about teaching. My meaning in teaching came from helping my students feel successful communicating in Spanish. I also felt it important to help them understand Mexican culture and unity between all cultures. Finally, I got satisfaction seeing them become more responsible people.

Summary

What I learned centered around two areas, motivation and first year teaching issues. The first year teaching

issues involved clarifying my approach and developing my methodology in the face of the newness of the content I was teaching, the newness of the setting where I was teaching and the newness of the student population.

What I learned about motivation related to deepening my understanding of how the needs for success, affiliation and meaning operated in the student and how I could work with the student from this viewpoint. My work confirmed many of my assumptions about the nature of the student. I believe I am now better equipped to understand student behavior and thus to work with my students. I found the three motivational components of success, affiliation and meaning useful in planning objectives, developing activities and in evaluating performance.

CONCLUSION

My reading of the literature indicates that human motivation is not completely described by any one theory. The views held by behaviorists, cognitive theorists and humanistic psychologists all shed light on our make-up. I see each theory operating in a separate sphere.

Behaviorists seek to describe our physical side. They view human behavior as mechanical and controlled by the environment. The influences of the intellect on motivation are described by cognitive theorists. They state that we use our intellectual powers to achieve success or avoid failure. Our spiritual nature is the subject of some humanistic psychologists. They describe the motivation to develop our potential and discover personal meaning in life. I concluded in chapter one that all three of these conceptions of motivation are valid.

They do not conflict because I feel they are talking about different aspects of human reality. We do respond in mechanical ways as the behaviorists said. We also use our cognitive powers to make decisions that do not always fit into a stimulus-response model. We are also motivated to grow and be more than before and to sacrifice in ways that defy reason. Looking at our motivation from all of these vantage points is useful in explaining our behavior.

From this framework I see three threads emerge that help to do two things. They offer a starting point for

understanding motivation and they offer a beginning for understanding the role of the teacher. The three aspects of motivation that stand out are: the motivation to be successful, the motivation to feel affiliation and the motivation to find and fulfill meaning.

THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER

My hypothesis is that if teachers work effectively with the three intrinsic forces mentioned above, students will experience more success, they will feel more affiliation with their peers, their teachers and the target language and culture and they will be more likely to find cognitive, spiritual and existential meaning in the classroom. All this can then lead to a higher level of intrinsic motivation to learn. The role of the teacher is to accept that her students do enter her classroom with an abundant supply of motivation. All that is necessary is to understand it and tap in to it to develop motivation to learn. The "low motivation" student does not exist. Once the teacher arrives at this conclusion, she then may work with the student.

The teacher's job is to strike a balance among success, affiliation and meaning. If she ignores any of these three areas, I believe motivation problems can result.

The emphasis today on the behaviorist model of motivation may account for some of the motivation problems we find in our students. From my experience, students seem to be so concerned with the extrinsic rewards they receive for achievement such as grades (or money) that they often lose sight of the meaning of what they are doing. The teacher that focuses too heavily on extrinsic motivation thwarts students' needs for feeling affiliation and finding meaning.

Within the area of motivation for affiliation are two very important roles of the teacher. These have to do with the teaching of cooperative skills and the broadening of the awareness of unity in diversity. The traditional types of classroom interaction that teachers promote are individualistic or competitive. These patterns encourage the student to adopt a "me versus them" attitude. The student that believes that "I can succeed only if you fail" is not developing healthy feelings of affiliation with his peers. The teacher's role here is to first become aware of the potential of student growth through cooperation and then to provide relevant activities that teach cooperative skills. When the teacher shifts the focus to "We can only succeed if we cooperate," peer affiliation is enhanced. This, I think, will not only have positive effects on the students' academic performance and self-esteem, but also on society at large.

To encourage affiliation with the target language and culture the teacher's role is to develop in herself an appreciation and understanding of unity in diversity. Students often arrive with inaccurate or prejudicial attitudes toward other cultures. The teacher, by the dynamic force of her example in working toward eliminating prejudice in her own thinking, is in a position to broaden students' awareness. This understanding is a beginning toward confronting and eliminating the problem of prejudice. In effective language teaching teachers cannot ignore these attitudinal barriers that stand in the way of student learning.

A further area that teachers cannot ignore is their students' search for meaning. I think the need to find cognitive meaning is understood and appreciated. I question whether students' needs for spiritual and existential meaning are often consciously addressed in the classroom. To work with this part of the student, the teacher first discovers her own meaning in teaching and then brings this to life in her classroom. She does this by communicating to her students her love and enthusiasm for what is important to her. The teacher best communicates this love through sincerity and striving to look at the whole student, possibly looking past his surface behavior to his real self.

I believe the teacher's role in working with the student in these ways implies only a broadening of awareness of the nature of the student and a shift of attitude toward the student. In dealing effectively with student motivation the role of the teacher changes from instructor to educator. Instructors impart knowledge. They put things in the student. They are in control of the agenda. Educators draw things out of the student. They facilitate the unfoldment of student potential. Educators affirm the students' motivation in all areas in a balanced way. Achieving this balance is what makes teaching an art as well as a science. To be effective, teachers work with the whole student, his heart as well as his body and mind. They still are in control of the agenda, but are willing to share it and modify it if necessary to help students learn.

If we label our students as "unmotivated" we deny them their true nature. By accepting the existence of students' intrinsic motivation for success, affiliation and meaning, we can see them more clearly. This clear vision makes it possible for us to create learning objectives and activities that meet their intrinsic needs. When these intrinsic needs are met, meaningful, healthy and productive teacher-learner relationships develop. Relationships such as these can make a real difference in our students' lives.

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