THE POWER OF THE FL TEACHER'S
MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES

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ABSTRACT

In the first part of this paper, we review the concept of motivation under the perspectives developed by the major theories on this topic. We analyse the role that motivation plays in some second language acquisition theories and focus our attention on the multidimensional nature of this construct by reflecting on its main constituents. A special importance is given to extrinsic motives as the first step to incentivate amotivated students and some key principles are given to turn them into intrinsic motivation. As a conclusion, we present a dynamic, cyclical and process-oriented model of motivation which takes into account three motivational phases (preactional, actional and postactional) and the main components of each phase.

In the second part, we present a research study which aims to find out how powerful eighteen motivational classroom strategies are, according to the perception of a sample of 319 students from Primary, Secondary and Upper-Secondary education and 18 teachers of the same educational levels. Besides that, we have studied the perception students have on their degree of global motivation. Our results show that the students' average motivational state is high, although it decreases with time and that certain strategies are much more efficient than others to enhance the global students' motivation.

RESUMEN

En la primera parte de este artículo, revisamos el concepto de motivación bajo el punto de vista de las principales teorías al respecto. Analizamos el rol que desempeña la motivación en las principales teorías sobre la adquisición de segundas lenguas, reflexionamos sobre la naturaleza multidimensional de

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este constructo y analizamos sus componentes. Le damos especial importancia a la motivación extrínseca como paso previo para interesar al alumnado poco motivado y damos algunas claves para transformar la motivación extrínseca en intrínseca. Concluimos esta parte presentando un modelo sobre la motivación de carácter cíclico y procesual que contempla tres fases (motivación inicial o preactiva, accional o procesual y postaccional o final) y los elementos constitutivos de cada fase.

En la segunda parte, presentamos un estudio que se propone demostrar la percepción de 319 alumnos de Primaria, Secundaria y Bachillerato y de 18 profesores de los mismos niveles sobre el potencial motivador de varias estrategias didácticas del profesor de idioma. Además, estudiamos la percepción del alumnado sobre su motivación global.

Los resultados demuestran que el estado motivacional del alumnado es alto, aunque va disminuyendo con el tiempo y que ciertas estrategias didácticas son mucho más eficaces que otras para aumentar la motivación global de los estudiantes.

RÉSUMÉ

Dans la première partie de cet article, nous révisons le concept de motivation selon les principales théories. Nous analysons le rôle que joue la motivation, d'après les principales théories de l'acquisition d'une seconde langue, nous réfléchissons sur la nature de ce processus et nous analysons ses composantes. Nous attachons de l'importance à la motivation extrinsèque comme démarche préalable pour intéresser l'élève peu motivé et nous offrons quelques clés pour transformer la motivation extrinsèque en intrinsèque. Nous concluons cette partie en présentant un modèle de motivation à caractère cyclique et de processus qui aborde trois phases (motivation initiale, motivation de processus et motivation finale) et les composantes de chaque phase.

Dans la deuxième partie, nous présentons une étude qui prétend montrer la perception que 319 élèves de l'enseignement Primaire et Secondaire et de 18 professeurs des mêmes niveaux ont de la potentialité motivationnelle deplusieurs stratégies didactiques du professeur de langue étrangère. En plus de cela, nous étudions la perception que les élèves ont de leur motivation globale.

Les résultats nous montrent que la motivation des élèves est élevée, quoique avec le temps elle diminue et que certaines stratégies didactiques s'avèrent plus efficaces que d'autres afin d'augmenter la motivation globale des élèves.

1. INTRODUCTION

Even though human motivation enjoys a long tradition of research from psychological and educational viewpoints, it is still a complex area to approach and be defined (cf. Brown, 1987 and Burstall, 1975). The term motivation is usually defined as the set of processes which involve

the arousal, direction, and sustaining of behaviour. When we employ the term "motivation", we should be aware of its limitations and problems (cf. Madrid, 1999). For example, we cannot directly observe a person's motivation; all we can observe is that person's behaviour and the environment in which (s)he acts. Motivation is something inside the individual, and it acts reciprocally with the environment. In general, we consider that it stimulates, directs, and sustains behaviour. We can only describe individuals' behaviour with the help of certain instruments of control: direct observation, questionnaires, interviews, reactions to certain stimuli, etc. (Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2001).

We think that, by manipulating and controlling the students' motivation in the classroom, the teacher is helping to shape the child's personality. The teacher's behaviour as well as his / her way of organising the class causes changes in the student's motivation (cf. also Alonso Tapia and Caturla Fitos, 1996). We can deduce that an individual is motivated in a certain way when (s)he pays attention to something and spends a considerable period of time with it. So, *choice* and persistence are indicators of motivation. In addition to that, we will see that another component of motivation is *effort*. Observers deduce the existence of a greater or lesser degree of motivation when an individual focuses his/ her attention on the same activity for a longer or shorter span of time. In the classroom, it is the student's tendency to persevere with an activity without getting distracted which leads us to deduce that (s)he is motivated. Many authors have termed this model "continuous" or intrinsic motivation. Differences in the degree of motivation can be appreciated in the variation of performance. Although the level of attainment is not a pure measure of motivation, it does seem to be the product of combination of motivational factors. In other words, it may well be that choice, persistence, and continuous motivation are reflected in the level of performance (Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2001, p. 322).

2. CONCEPTS OF MOTIVATION

It is clear that different theories have attempted to define and explain the construct of motivation from diverse points of view. These theories can be grouped into three main categories. In first place, we should mention Freud's psychoanalytic theory and Hull's drive theory, both of which consider that stress reduction exerts a considerable influence on behaviour. A second group of theories established by Weiner

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(1989) includes Lewin's field theory, Atkinson's achievement theory, and Rotter's social learning theory. According to the three of them, behaviour is dependent on the individual's expectations of attaining success, as well as on his / her incentives to reach the goal. The third and final group comprises the theories of attribution and humanistic psychology. Although these differ on considerable counts, they both maintain that human beings struggle to understand themselves and their surroundings and that growth processes are an integral part of human motivation (see Ames & Ames, 1984; Weiner, 1989; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996).

The *psychoanalytic theory* stems from Freud's (1915) conception of individuals, who live in permanent conflict between their instinctive drives, on the one hand, and the restrictions imposed by society and their ideals, on the other. The laws of motivation emerge from the analysis of this dilemma between their instinctive needs and their inhibitions. Freud's theory is based on two central concepts: *homeostasis* and *hedonism*. The former refers to all organisms' tendency to remain in a state of internal balance. If any one need (such as hunger) is not satisfied, an imbalance results. The latter, that is, *hedonism*, in turn, refers to the individual's inclination towards the search for pleasure and happiness in life. According to Freud, a satisfied individual does not look for any sort of stimulus. The great majority of this type of studies has linked the expression of these drives (instincts, aggression, sex, dreams, etc.) with the subjects' inhibitions (defence mechanisms, cognitive controls, etc.). Although there are studies which do not confirm the Freudian view of instinctive acts, the primary processes of thought and functioning of the "ego" have nevertheless generated important hypotheses which are still being verified.

The *drive theory* explains individuals' behaviour by means of sequences of *impulses* which form *habits*. The subjects' conduct is explained by a series of impulses or learnt behaviours which are unleashed due to the action of certain incentives or *stimuli*. Hull (1943, 1951) is one of the most well known representatives. The major factors or components of this theory are the following (Weiner, 1989, pp. 137-138): 1) *Anxiety*. It is an emotional reaction which works by generating rejection of the agent which causes stress. The learning process of those individuals who are affected by this type of behavioural forces is reinforced by tasks of adequate difficulty and minimised by complex tasks. 2) *Conflict*. The "gradient of avoidance" is more marked than the "gradient of approximation", which facilitates motivational processes. 3) *Frustration*. This occurs when the goal is not attained. 4) *Principle of social facili-*

tation. This refers to the presence of other individuals (e.g. the teacher and classmates) in the subject's behaviour and performance.

Research on drives has been successful in explaining the behaviour of animals with basic needs (e.g. thirst or hunger), their reaction to stimuli, and their mechanical learning to satisfy those needs, however, in other fields, it has not met with the same acceptance. In this sense, it seems evident that the most outstanding contribution of this theory has been the precise and systematic investigation of motivated behaviour from a purely mechanical perspective (Weiner, 1989, p. 138).

The *achievement theory* is based on the importance of environmental factors such as the students' experiences or their struggle to attain a good performance. Its theorists (Stipek, 1984; Atkinson, 1964; Nicholls, 1984) suggest that learners value their academic performance as they progress, but that their prospects of success and their impressions of their competence for L2 learning vary, increase, or decrease depending on their experiences of success or failure during the teaching and learning process. Two figures of this theory are Murray (1938) and Atkinson (1964). The first of these two authors drew up a taxonomy of basic human needs, within which he included achievement, defining it as the desire to achieve something difficult; to manipulate or organise physical objects, human beings, or ideas; to attain all this as rapidly and independently as possible; to overcome obstacles; to excel oneself; to compete and surpass others and to increase self-esteem by exercising individual talent (Murray 1938, p. 164, cited by Weiner 1989). These desires, according to Murray, are accompanied by such actions as: Intense and prolonged efforts to achieve something difficult; working earnestly towards a certain goal; being willing to win; trying to do everything well; being motivated to outdo oneself before others; enjoying competitive events; overcoming boredom and fatigue, etc.

According to Atkinson (1964), students motivated by need achievement (García Sánchez, 1999; 2001) tend to select problems which pose a reasonable challenge, make an effort to solve difficult problems before giving up, normally lose motivation if they achieve success too easily, respond more positively to more challenging or innovative tasks, and usually obtain better marks than other students with similar iqs. On the contrary, students motivated by the need to avoid failure generally: opt for easier or unreasonably difficult problems, become discouraged by errors and stimulated by success, prefer to work with friendly classmates, and respond best to tasks which pose less of a challenge.

It seems that in the initial years of development, children are more intrinsically motivated and hence inclined to engage themselves in

achievement-related conducts. However, as they mature and reach higher educational levels, they tend to exhibit greater extrinsic motivation due to the increased importance of external rewards. Despite its valuable contributions, the achievement theory has also clear limitations. Indeed, it fails to take into account the underlying values of the individual, focusing solely on need achievement and disregarding his/her preferences as decisive factors in task involvement (Parsons & Goff, 1980). Schiefele upholds this claim when he states: "Researchers of achievement motivation have overlooked the content to be learned. Specific emphasis on student performance neglects the possibility that students come to like their subjects and learn because they value the process of being engaged in certain fields of knowledge" (Schiefele, 1991, p. 301).

As opposed to behaviourism, the *social learning theory* maintains that the mental processes of cognition influence our conduct. Its adherents believe that individuals learn through imitation, that they distinguish between motivating and non-motivating environments, that they build up expectations related to achievement and that they construe the world in a subjective manner. Amongst the most outstanding and influential figures within this theory are Bandura, Walters, Mischel, and, above all, Julian Rotter. The latter (1954), considers that behaviour is determined by the expectation of attaining achievement (Brophy, 1983; Brophy and Good, 1970, 1974; Darley & Fazio, 1980). He also emphasises the notion of the *locus of control* (Dweck & Goetz, 1978; Findley & Cooper, 1983, Stipek & Weisz, 1981), as well as that of socially learnt behaviour (as opposed to Freud's biological determinism). According to Rotter, the key to investigating personality is to be found in the individual's interaction with his /her environment (Rotter, 1954, p. 85). The theorists of this school maintain that behaviour will be more or less motivated depending on the external situation of the individual. According to this theory, the most important elements of behaviour are learnt and our perceptions of other individuals' actions influence the learning process. These two hypotheses are of considerable relevance for language classroom research.

A further idea held by theorists of social learning (Johnson & Johnson, 1985) is that the primary source of motivation is *our thought*, which affects our actions (see fig. 3). A second source of motivation is the attainable objective and *goal* setting. Goal achievement brings about internal well-being and satisfaction (Rotter, 1975; Weisz & Cameron, 1985; Ashton, 1985; Skinner & Chapman, 1983) and, thus, we can say that, in the teaching and learning area, students will be self-motivated to attain academic achievement. Oxford and Shearin (1994, p. 19) have also

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highlighted the study of objectives as essential in ensuring the successful catering for different language learning styles. In this sense, the afore-mentioned authors advocate the existence of several learning routes which develop different objectives in the curriculum, so that all learners have the possibility of improving their performance and their expectations of success according to their capacity.

Rosenthal and Jacobson's (1968) studies have revealed that teachers treat students in accordance with the stereotypes they have formed about them (whether "dumb" or "intelligent"), thereby affecting the students' progress negatively or positively, according to the *teachers' expectations* of their performance.

Conversely, it has also been shown that the way in which students perceive teachers also influences the attainment of learning objectives. Hence the relevance of the teacher's social function in class (Bandura, 1978; Ashton, 1985; Spradley, 1980; Doyle, 1983; Nicholls, 1984; Corno & Rohrkemper, 1985). Among the latter functions, we should stress those of leader and power wielder. Further functions include: 1) *Expert*. This function stems from the teachers' special cognitive or technical skills in their subject, which demand or require the students' respect. Students with great achievement needs tend to perform successfully under the influence of this type of function. 2) Since the teacher also acts as mediator of the students' work, (s)he has the additional functions of rewarding or punishing authority. In this sense, they are viewed as *referees*. 3) A further function is that of *referent*. Indeed, given the teachers' greater experience and knowledge in class, they can act as models or referents for their students. 4) Due to the teacher's responsibility for the class, (s)he will often be compelled to force his/her students to do as (s)he says, thereby exercising his /her *coercive power* and establishing an autocratic atmosphere. 5) A final function involves the *legitimate power* which the students believe teachers should exercise. Sure enough, most students acknowledge that teachers have the right to assign tasks, judge the quality of their work, and enforce punishments in class.

Weiner's (1972, 1974, 1979, 1984) development of the *attribution theory* stems from two socio-psychological theories, namely, those of Heider (1958) and Rotter (1966). It employs three dimensions to determine how people feel about their successes and failures: place, constancy, and responsibility. 1) *Place* refers to whether the cause of a person's behaviour is inherent or external to him/her; 2) Within *constancy*, we distinguish between stable causes (which do not undergo modifications; aptitude is an example) and causes which vary in terms of time or

situation (such as effort); 3) *responsibility* concerns both the degree of control which the individual has over a certain event and the deliberate nature of his/her acts/actions.

Attribution theories reflect: the causes of an event, the information which influenced its causal deduction, and the consequences of the causal attribution. *Internal* causes include intelligence, physical beauty, personality, aptitude, effort, and health, while *external* causes comprise the objective difficulty of an activity, external help, and luck. Ability is considered more constant than effort.

The most outstanding distinction by Heider (1958) is that between internal and external factors which determine behaviour:

A) *Strongly motivated individuals:*

1. Ascribe their achievement in certain activities to great capacity and outstanding effort.
2. Persevere when facing failure, attributing it to lack of effort, something which is modifiable.
3. Choose activities of average difficulty as they produce more self-assessable feedback.
4. Make a considerable effort, as they believe that it is what determines the result.

B) *Individuals with weak motivation:*

1. Get involved in few activities, as they attribute success to external rather than internal factors and do not consider effort as its cause.
2. Give up tasks when facing failure, as they regard the latter as being caused by lack of capacity, something which is uncontrollable and invariable.
3. Choose easy or excessively difficult activities, as they result in feedback which is less self-assessable.
4. Make little effort as they do not consider it has anything to do with the final result.

The attribution theory is a clear exponent of cognitive functionalism and it highlights the individuals' causal perceptions of their motivational states. Sometimes those causes are put down to the subject (intelligence, effort, personality, etc.) and on other occasions, they are imputed to external environmental factors (task difficulty, school and parental influence, etc.). Weiner distinguishes various types of causes which have a notable incidence on the subjects' behaviour (1984, pp. 24-34): causal

antecedents, causal attributions, causal dimension, (constancy), prospects of success, motivational behaviour.

The perception of causal dimensions: In formal classroom contexts (see achievement motivation) the following dimensions are of special relevance (Brophy, 1983, 1985): prospects of success, high *self-esteem*, and conscious awareness of one's high intellectual capacity to cope with academic tasks. Quite on the contrary, failure is perceived as lack of capacity and effort. In addition, Weiner foregrounds the degree of *constancy* and *responsibility* as yet another causal dimension.

The perception of causal antecedents and attributions: Weiner identifies certain "schemata" or rules which have been internalised and which relate causes with their effects. Among the psychological processes, he highlights the importance of *attention* and *interest*. Finally, this author emphasises all subjects' tendency to seek pleasant experiences and success and to reject guilt and failure.

Expectancy of success: Several research studies (Tolman 1932; McMahan 1973; Weiner *et al.* 1976; Dweck 1985) have shown that the subjects' prospects of success exert a considerable influence on their degree of motivation. In this sense, Weiner (1984, p. 25) claims that "if success (or failure) has been attained and if the conditions or causes of that outcome are perceived as remaining unchanged, then success (or failure) will be anticipated again with a reasonable degree of certainty". According to this paradigm, the subjects' actions are motivated by a) the value they attribute to the consecution of a goal and b) the success expectations that they had previous to overcoming the difficulties, which, in turn, are reinforced for future occasions, thereby creating a climate of confidence, self-esteem, and self-efficiency (Ames and Ames, 1985; Brophy, 1983, 1985; Lepper, 1973; Miller, Brickman & Bolen, 1975). Such a climate is essential in maintaining motivation in future tasks. Of equal relevance are the students' self-concept, self-esteem, sense of efficiency, and perceptions of their capacities for FL learning. The way in which the learner perceives him/herself and his/her learning environment constitutes the student's *self-concept.* Several studies have underlined the fundamental role played in the human psyche by the individual's opinions, beliefs, and perceptions. As scholars of this field have pointed out, it is essential to have a positive vision of oneself and of the learning situations in order to attain an efficient performance. In a school environment, learners experience diverse successes and failures which shape their system of beliefs and expectations, as well as their cognitive structures, thereby modifying their frame of reference to interpret, understand, and organise the information they possess of them-

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selves and of others (cf. Solé, 1993 and Fierro, 1990). Therefore, it seems that studying the students' *beliefs* can provide us with useful insights into their behaviour and academic performance in the language class.

An obvious practical implication deriving from such studies is that we should teach our students to attribute their success to controllable factors such as *effort*, to the detriment of uncontrollable ones such as *ability*. This will undoubtedly break the vicious circle of failure caused by the learner's perceived impotence. This notion of re-educating students has led teachers to modify the type of input with which they provide their pupils. Indeed, such feedback should include information about the efforts the student has made in order to complete the activity. It has been demonstrated that comments such as "your work has improved because you have made an effort" or "I can see you have studied a lot for the exam" help the learner to establish links between his/her actions and their results (García Sánchez, 1999).

Another aspect to be mentioned within this theory is the problem of *anxiety* suffered by students during exams, and which prevents them on many occasions from showing what they have learnt (Hill, 1980). Both children and higher-level students with a high degree of anxiety in exam-taking normally perform less well on such examinations, on aptitude tests, and on other educational evaluations (cf. Sánchez Herrero, 1990 and Rubio Alcalá, 1999). It seems that individuals with a certain degree of anxiety do best on easy tasks, whereas more complex tasks are best undertaken by those subjects who are more relaxed.

The *humanistic theory* and its emphasis on personal constructs stems its roots in the humanistic psychology, whose origins date back to the sixties. Human beings are subjects and not merely objects of study. Each person should be examined in terms of personal conscience, which includes a) subjective experience and b) the way in which the individual sees and evaluates him/herself. The most prominent humanistic psychologists (e.g. Maslow and Rogers) consider that everyone strives to reach a state of self-realisation. However, the latter can be helped or hindered by our interactions with others. Indeed, on the one hand, the approval of others facilitates self-realisation. On the other, our opinions about ourselves and our attitudes towards others are closely connected.

Maslow (1943, 1971) proposed a hierarchy of needs theory which maintains that there is a system of *needs* within each human being that propels us onward and upward to higher and higher attainment, progressing from the satisfaction of purely *physical needs* (air, water, food, rest, exercise), up through safety, security, and protection, to *communal*

needs (love, belongingness, affection), needs of self-esteem (strength, status), and finally to *self-actualisation*, a state of reaching your fullest potential. Only when the lower-level needs are satisfied do we feel motivated to fulfil those of superior levels. Thus, humanists consider self-realisation as an innate tendency which can be prevented by certain social experiences or by the existence of unfulfilled needs, and supported by the adequate environmental reinforcements.

Similarly, Kelly's theory of *personal constructs* examines the way in which individuals organise their surrounding world, that is, the way in which events are constructed or interpreted. However, as opposed to humanistic theory, it emphasises thought instead of feelings. According to Kelly, each person develops his/her own group of theories which (s)he uses to convey meaning to the world. These theories are used to predict people's behaviour and to direct our actions, and they clearly influence our conduct, thereby also having a direct repercussion on our motivation. In this sense, we all act as a "scientist" would in our daily activities and experiences. We do not merely accept what happens to us, but instead, we construct theories in order to understand and interpret it. Similarly, we try to explain the behaviour of others by applying to it the theories we have developed. Consequently, exploring our students' system of beliefs and analysing their perceptions of the teaching-learning process can provide us with useful insights into their behaviour: attitudes, motivation, performance, etc.

The theory of personal constructs is related to humanistic theory due to the following reasons:

1. Both accept a phenomenological approximation to psychology.
2. Both have to do with our perceptions of ourselves and of others.
3. Both assume that human beings are responsible for their destiny.
4. Both place the subject and the therapist on the same level.

Both the humanistic and Kelly's theories are relatively new; their potential is still to be determined, as they have not as yet generated many verifiable experimental studies. However, both have contributed greatly to the study of motivation, in different ways: To begin with, by devoting attention to problems (such as the striving towards self-actualisation and the causes of self-esteem) which were not considered by more traditional approaches to motivation. Secondly, by proposing new theories for the understanding of human behaviour and by generating new scientific terms. Finally, by granting the studied subjects greater prestige and dignity, something which has paramount ethical and methodological implications.

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In sum, the key aspects of motivation and its basic components, according to the theories we have presented in the previous pages, are the following (Madrid, 1999, pp. 26-27):

Theory	Basic aspects
Psycho-analysis (Freud, 1915)	– Drives and instinctive needs: homeostasis and hedonism – Instincts, agression – Sexual motivation, dreams – Defence mechanism
Drive (Hull, 1943, 1951)	– Stimuli and incentives – Subjects' response, reinforcement – Habit formation, mechanical learning – Anxiety, conflict, frustration and failure – Social facilitation
Achievement (Atkinson, 1964)	– Need achievement – Desire and effort to attain something difficult – Overcome obstacles, excel oneself – Personal challenges, self-esteeem – Competing and surpassing others
Social learning (Rotter, 1954)	– Cognitive and mental processes – Expectations of achievement and success, locus of control – Perceptions of the behaviour of others (teacher, classmates) – Subjects' thoughts and beliefs – Goal-setting, social learning context, teachers' social functions
Attribution (Weiner, 1972, 1984, 1989)	– Place of causal ascriptions: internal, external – Stable causes: aptitude; unstable causes: constancy, interest – Degree of control over events: responsibility, constancy – Perception of causal dimensions: prospects of success, self-esteem – Perception of causal antecedents: appraisals, opinions, concepts, previous information; expectations; effort and ability – Personal appraisals: as regards the degree of attainment of the goal, success, and failure; effects of anxiety
Humanistic (Rogers, 1961) **Personal constructs** (Kelly, 1963)	– Personal conscience, subjective experience – Individual potential, self-realisation – Subjects' interpersonal and social needs – Personal constructs, individuality – Psycho-philosophical nature of constructs – Alternative constructivism; determinism and freedom

Fig. 1. Basic aspects of motivational theories.

3. MOTIVATION IN SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION THEORIES

The study of motivation in connection with FL learning in formal classroom contexts compels us to focus on the topic in a more restricted manner, taking into account the main factors in the teaching-learning process of the FL/L2, namely, the students, the teacher, the curriculum, and the teaching-learning processes which develop when implementing it.

Several theories of L2 acquisition have acknowledged theimportance of motivation. For example, Krashen's *Monitor Theory* (1981, 1982, 1985; Dulay, Burt, and Krashen, 1982), includes the Affective Filter Hypothesis, based on the significance of emotional factors and motivation as key elements which control language acquisition processes (Dulay, Burt, and Krashen, 1982, p. 4): "When a student is exposed to a new language, the first internal hurdles are posed by the individual's emotional state and motivations ... filtering sources are the individual anxiety levels, peer identification, and general motivation to learn a language. Together, they make up what we have called the "Affective filter" or simply "Filter". The Filter acts to control entry to further mental processing".

Carroll's *conscious reinforcement model* (1981) uses *reinforcement* as an efficient motivating resource which facilitates learning through successive habit formation: "... reinforcement involves an increment to an individual's perception of the appropriateness of the behaviour to a specific context" (Gardner, 1985, p. 128). Reinforcement has two consequences: on the one hand, it increases the probability that the response be repeated in similar situations and become habitual, and, on the other, it provides information on the suitability of the responses in the situations in which they are used.

In Bialystok's (1978) model on the role of *strategies* in second language learning, motivation once again has a key role in the transformation of explicit linguistic knowledge into more intuitive, spontaneous, and automatic implicit linguistic knowledge. Such a transformation is intensified in motivated subjects, as they seek out more communicative situations in which to participate.

Schumann's (1978a, 1978b) *acculturation theory* considers that social and affective factors, such as the degree of assimilation of the foreign culture, personality, and motivation, affect the level of competence in the L2. Amongst the most relevant social factors, Schumann also cites motivation, defined as " the reasons the learner has to try to learn the L2" (p. 32).

4. COMPONENTS OF THE MOTIVATION CONSTRUCT

Several authors have pointed out that motivation is a complex concept which integrates various components. For example, Gardner (1985, p. 10) considers motivation as the combination of *effort* plus *desire* to achieve the *goal* (learning the language) and *favourable attitudes* towards it. Dörnyei (2000, p. 520) sees three interrelated aspects in motivation: the *choice* of an action, *persistence* with it and also *effort* to achieve it.

Gardner awards great importance to the individual's integral orientation in his *socio-educational model*, where he seeks to interrelate four aspects of L2 learning: 1) the social and cultural milieu in which the learner grows up; 2) individual learner differences such as a) intelligence b) language aptitude c) motivation and d) anxiety; 3) formal or informal learning contexts; and 4) final learning outcomes. In short, the socio-educational model components are the following (1985, pp. 146-149):

1) *Cultural beliefs.* Gardner posits that L2 learning takes place in specific cultural contexts. The subjects' beliefs as regards the relevance of L2 learning, together with their attitude towards the community of L2 speakers exerts an important influence on those subjects' IDs and on the results they obtain.

2) *Individual learner differences.* Gardner highlights the direct influence of four personal features on final performance in the L2. These differences are determined by the degree of:

   a) *Intelligence*, which establishes the efficiency and rapidity with which subjects perform tasks in class.

   b) *Language aptitude.* It includes several verbal and cognitive capacities which facilitate learning, such as the capacity for phonetic codification, grammatical sensitivity, memorisation of linguistic elements, inductive capacity, verbal intelligence, auditory capacity, etc.

   c) *Motivation*, which involves the subjects' degree of commitment to L2 acquisition. It integrates three basic components:

   – *Desire* to learn.
   – *Effort* towards a goal (L2 learning).
   – Greater or lesser *satisfaction* in learning (affective component).

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3) *Learning contexts:*

- *Formal:* when L2 learning takes place in the classroom.
- *Informal:* it occurs in more spontaneous and natural situations where there is no formal instruction.

4) *Outcomes:*

- *Linguistic:* they refer to linguistic competence: knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, etc.
- *Non-linguistic competence:* this involves the affective component, that is, the subjects' attitudes and values.

In an educational context, Skehan distinguishes four main sources of motivation (1989, pp. 49-50):

1) Learning and teaching *activities*, which are related to the student's intrinsic motivation (Corno & Mandinach, 1983; Weiner, 1979). In this case, the student's interest to learn would generate motivation, due to the types of tasks (s)he is offered, as such tasks can generate a greater or lesser degree of motivation.

2) Learning *outcomes*. The learners' successes or failures are the basis of what is termed resultative motivation (cf. Ellis, 1994, pp. 514-515). Good results act as a reward and reinforce or increase motivation, whereas failure diminishes the students' expectations, sense of efficiency, and global motivation. In this sense, motivation is a consequence –and not a cause– of the learning outcomes.

3) *Internal motivation.* This dimension is closely related to the first point in that extrinsic motivation is present in both cases. The difference lies in the origin of that motivation: whereas in the first case it was to be found in attractive tasks, in this instance, the learner already has a certain degree of motivation upon arriving in class, developed due to the influence of other motivating agents (e. g. importance of languages in present-day society, parental influence, etc.).

4) *Extrinsic motivation.* Finally, Skehan highlights the influence of external incentives (such as rewards or punishment) on the learners' behaviour.

The afore-mentioned four sources of motivation are presented in the following table (Skehan, 1989, p. 50):

	Learning contexts	Learning outcomes
Outside individuals (*extrinsic motivation*)	– Materials – Teaching/learning tasks	– Rewards – Success and failure
Inside individuals (*intrinsic motivation*)	– Success and failure throughout the process	– Goals

Fig. 2: Sources of motivation in an educational context (Skehan).

Crookes and Schmidt (1985/1991) hold a perspective which is less centered upon social factors and more focused on the classroom. The model they suggest relates motivation with L2 learning on four levels (1991, pp. 483-496):

1) *Microlevel.* At this level, the relationship between attention and motivation is especially noteworthy. The former is a necessary condition for L2 learning to take place. In turn, attention is closely tied to interest and to the subject's disposition, goals, intentions, and expectations (cf. also García Sánchez, 1999).

2) *Classroom level.* The events which take place in the classroom are likely to increase, maintain, or decrease the students' motivation. Classroom tasks, the methodology followed, the type of interaction between teacher and students, possible anxiety states, and many other factors, all have an important bearing on the learners' motivation. Crookes and Schmidt also establish a relationship between classroom dynamics and the students' needs for "affiliation". With the generalised use of communicative methodologies, learning is increasingly viewed as a collaborative enterprise, and group work is more frequently employed, thereby satisfying the students' needs of socialisation. The effects of the students' perceptions and their expectations should be placed at this level.

3) *Curricular level.* With the advent of the communicative approach, it has become essential to explore the learners' needs as a step prior to curricular planning and implementation. As Munby (1978) has shown, a programme whose objectives and contents match the students' needs and interests is highly motivating.

4) *Long-term learning outside the classroom.* This level comprises those learning contexts which are outside the classroom. Cer-

tain studies have revealed that motivated L2 learners seek out opportunities in which to practice the language outside the classroom, such as informal situations with natives or other contexts.

Bearing these four levels in mind, Crookes and Schmidt propose extending the construct of motivation to 1) facilitate an adequate description, b) include conceptual, analytic, and methodological aspects in relation to L2 learning, and c) lead to generalisations based on intervention and comparison of motivational situations (1991, pp. 497-498).

Among other models which attempt to explain motivation in an educational context, Dörnyei's (1990 and 1994) is worthy of mention. In this model, the components of motivation are organised in three levels which are somehow related to L2 learning processes (1994, p. 280):

1) *Linguistic level.* At this level, we find the reasons why the students are interested in the L2 and why they study it and make an effort to learn it. Here, we should mention two subsystems:

   – the subsystem of integrative motivation,
   – the subsystem of instrumental motivation.

2) *Level related to the learner.* It includes the learners' needs and beliefs, such as:

   – need achievement
   – self-confidence and security: anxiety, self-esteem, causal attributions, self-efficiency, etc.

3) Level related to the *learning situation.* Several factors are operative at this level:

   – Motivating potential of the subject: interest, relevance, expectations, and satisfaction.
   – Motivating potential of the teacher: personality, behaviour, teaching styles, ...
   – Group-related motivational factors: group cohesiveness, class structure, ...

Lorenzo Bergillos (1997, pp. 61-81) offers yet another model for the study of motivation. It integrates three phases in the motivational processes at work in school:

1) *The preaction phase*, which includes basic psychological needs, the internalisation of learning objectives, and the formation of expectations in the classroom environment.

2) *The action phase,* where motivation is fully realised. At this stage, the individuals' motivated behaviour displays the following properties:

   a) *Self-regulation of behaviour:* the motivational processes activate several specific behaviours: perseverance and constancy towards the goal, self-regulation, and control of processes, etc.

      – *Behavioural vigour* towards the objectives which the subjects seek to attain
      – Constant and persistent *behavioural direction* towards the goal
      – *Behavioural reinforcement* and risk-taking in the progress towards the goal.
      – *Weakening of behaviour*, if there are partial failures, unpleasant stimulations, or standstills.

   b) *Learning self-regulation.* At this point, motivation acts as a guide for strategies and merges with cognitive processes.

3) *The post-action phase.* Rewards are operative in this phase, provided that the initial objectives have been achieved. If there have been positive experiences, gratifying feelings are generated, exerting a beneficial influence on the preaction phase. On the contrary, if the experience has been unsatisfactory, frustration and despair occur, deteriorating the intial motivational states.

5. A DYNAMIC AND CYCLICAL PROCESS MODEL OF MOTIVATION

Several studies have been based on the assumption that the individuals' opinions and beliefs influence their motivational states (cf. Madrid and Alcalde, 1989; Madrid and Ortega, *et al.* 1993; Madrid *et al.*, 1994; Madrid, 1996; Manzaneda and Madrid, 1997; Lorenzo Bergillos, 1997; Navarro Biescas, 1998; García Sánchez, 1999; Uribe, 1999). Along with Kelly (1967) and Weiner (1989), we are of the opinion that exploring the teacher's and students' system of beliefs on

motivation can provide us with essential clues to understanding their motivational states. Besides that, and following Heckhausen (1991) and Dörnyei (2000), we believe that the process of motivation begins with the awakening of people's wishes prior to goal setting and continues through the evaluative thoughts, along a temporal axis, after striving has ended (Gollwitzer, 1990, p. 55; Dornyei, 2000, p. 521). A central feature of this view is the separation of a predecisional or preactional phase, an actional phase and a postdecisional or post-actional phase. This dynamic and process-oriented dimension of motivation is influenced by the individual's motivational maintenance and volition, and his/her motivational evolution and fluctuation (Dornyei, 2000, p. 522). It is assumed that constancy and persistence is necessary to maintain motivation. As Dornyei points out (2000, p. 521): "motivation does not remain constant but it is associated with a dynamically changing and evolving mental process, characterised by constant (re)appraisal and balancing of the various internal and external influences that the individual is exposed to". So, in our model, motivation becomes a complex mental process that evolves gradually from an initial planning and goal setting based on needs, beliefs and innate capacities, through an intention formation and task generation phase to end with a final action implementation, whose evaluation of results provides the individual with a feedback that may modify the previous sequence. Dörnyei also integrates these dimensions in the following definition of motivation (2000, p. 524):

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

Our model is based on a concept of motivation which integrates the following components (Madrid and Pérez Cañado, 2001, p. 333):

> Motivation is an *internal state* of the individual influenced by *needs,* and/or *beliefs* which generate an *interest* and *desire* to achieve a *goal,* and moves the individual to attain it with a *continued effort.*

So, the model which derives from the previous definition of motivation is dynamic, cyclical and process-oriented and can be represented as follows (based on Madrid and Pérez Cañado, 2001, p. 335 and Dörnyei, 2000, p. 525):
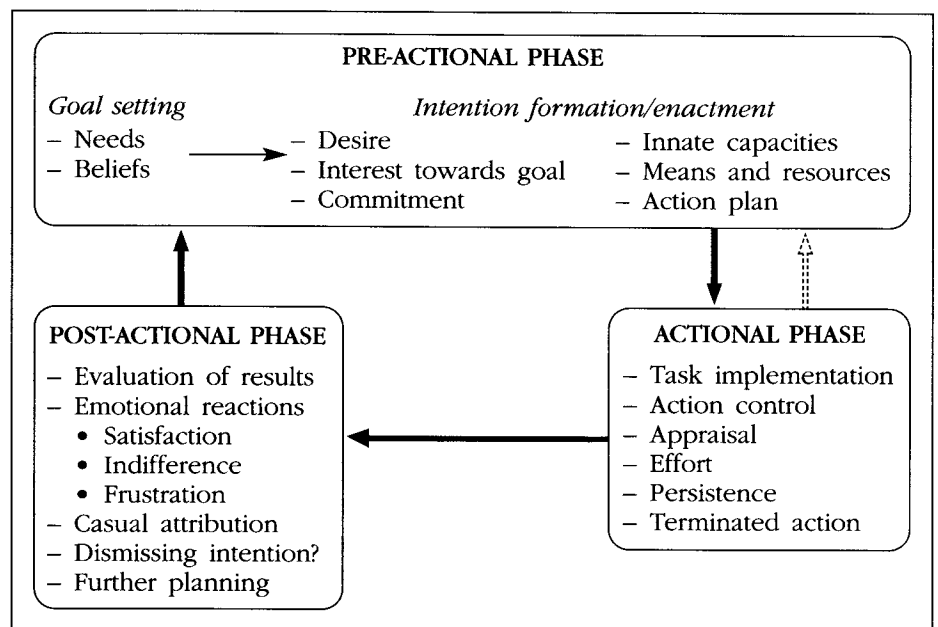
Fig. 3. A dynamic, cyclical and process-oriented model of motivation.

This model attempts to integrate 3 phases of the cyclical motivational process: initial or *pre-actional* motivation (previous to action); *actional* motivation (which exerts its influence on the teaching-learning process), and final or *post-actional* motivation (which reflects the individuals' final emotional reaction when they have attained the goal more or less successfully).

a) *Pre-actional* or *initial* motivation reflects the subject's mental state when (s)he is affected by possible personal needs (whether biological, psycho-social, or of any other type), and by his/her previous experiences, beliefs, opinions, and perceptions. These personal factors generate certain attitudes and interests towards the goal, which are stronger or weaker depending on the significance of the objectives which the individual seeks to attain in order to fulfil his/her needs. According to Dörnyei (2000, p. 526), this stage is made up of three sub-phases: goal setting, intention formation and initiation of intention enactment. He also considers that the antecedents of goal setting are the individuals'

wishes, hopes, desires and opportunities. It is in this preliminary phase when personal commitment is formed as the antecedent of intention and in connection with the individual's action plan.

b) *Actional* motivation depends on initial motivation and exerts its influence on the teaching-learning processes. At this stage, the motivational states undergo the greatest changes, increasing, sustaining themselves, or diminishing, depending on the types of teaching-learning processes which the individuals experience. If they are favourable, dedication, effort, constancy, and persistence in attaining the goal will either be increased or maintained. On the contrary, if they are negative and the individual does not feel satisfied because (s)he has not achieved the desired-for objectives, his / her interest and effort may disappear and (s)he may give up the task, entering the third phase of the cycle. According to Dörnyei (2000, p. 527), during the actional phase three basic processes come into effect: a) subtask generation and implementation, b) the appraisal of the process and c) the application of a variety of action control mechanisms. Depending on this interplay of the appraisal and control processes, the action undertaken leads to an actional outcome which can be more or less satisfactory. If the individual considers that it was not satisfactory enough, the process may arrive at a dead end and the individual may decide to continue or abandon the activity.

c) *Post-action* motivation is to be found precisely in this third stage. It is present when the subject has accomplished the goal to a greater or lesser extent. An emotional reaction –positive, indifferent, or negative– is originated at this point, satisfying or frustrating initial needs, beliefs, and feelings, and, consequently, increasing, maintaining, or diminishing motivation.

These three motivational processes can also be analysed in terms of *presage, process,* and *product* variables (cf. Dunkin and Biddle, 1974). The components or variables in the first box of fig. 3 (needs, beliefs, opinions, capacities, means, resources, ...) function as presage variables (cf. also Stern, 1984) which condition process ones (attention, interest, constancy, persistence, etc.). Product variables (emotional reaction) result from the interaction of the previous two types of variables.

So, in this model, motivational states are dynamic, since they may change with time and are the result of the sequential and cyclical in-

teraction of all those factors. The construct of motivation underlying the model has got a pluricomponential nature, as other authors have pointed out:

> "Motivation ... refers to the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes toward learning the language (Gardner, 1985, p. 10).
>
> [Motivation is] a state of cognitive and emotional arousal which leads to a conscious decision to act, and which gives rise to a period of sustained intelectual and/or physical effort in order to attain a previously set goal (or goals)" (William and Burden, 1997, p. 120).

Weiner is yet another figure who has highlighted the diversity of the phenomena which shape individuals' motivation. Therefore, a general theory of motivational processes should include many concepts:

> Psychology cannot try to explain everything with a single contract ... A variety of constructs has to be used (Lewin, 1935, in Weiner, 1989, p. 444).

5.1. Description of the model

Let us at this point describe in greater detail the components of our definition of motivation and of the model represented in fig. 3 (Madrid and Pérez Cañado, 2001, pp. 336-338):

– Pre-actional phase

   1. Motivation is an internal state: Indeed, motivation is a state which might have its origin in extrinsic factors, but once the individual has valued the stimulus positively, (s)he develops favourable attitudes towards the goal as well as a desire to attain it. Both attitudes and desire are internal operations.
   2. Motivation and human needs: Our behaviour is motivated by certain needs, which may be biological (such as the primary needs of hunger, thirst, sex, etc.) or, particularly in the field of foreign language, psycho-social (instrumental, integrative, recreational, educational, formative, communicative, etc.). Several other theories have explained human motivation by taking needs into account. Such is the case of Hull's drive theory (1951), which explains motivation as the tension towards homeostasis. This theory equally upholds the idea that behaviour is determined by drive and habit formation, through the repetition of the sequence *stimulus (incentive)* + *response* + *habit (direction)* + *effort*. Maslow (1954)

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has also considered the role played by needs in motivation as essential. In his hierarchy of needs theory, motivation is the force which propels us onward and upward in a pyramid of needs, progressing from the satisfaction of purely physical needs up through safety and communal needs, to needs of esteem, and finally to "self-actualisation".

Nevertheless, it is evident that behaviour is not solely motivated by primary instincts and needs. Cognitive psychology has stressed the importance of internal thought processes, of beliefs, and of mental representations in determining how and why individuals behave in a certain way. In fact, we believe that the greatest part of the needs generated in the field of foreign languages are *psychosocial* in nature, due to the sociolinguistic dimension of language. Hence, we can expect motivation to be generated in order to satisfy particularly communicative needs, and to depend on the subject's internal thoughts and cognitive processes.

Beliefs, opinions, desires, opportunities and values: From the cognitive point of view, individuals' beliefs and opinions about the relevance of the goal influence their initial motivation. An individual's orientation towards the goal can be determined by studying the personal reasons or motives due to which foreign languages are studied. This is the construct which Gardner (1985, p. 54) terms *orientation*: "Orientation refers to a class of reasons for learning a second language". In our case, the individual's goal or end is foreign language learning. This movement towards the goal is motivated by a series of needs and beliefs which influence each individual's orientation. Gardner (1985) subdivides orientation into two general categories, namely, *instrumental orientation* (to benefit from greater and better employment opportunities, promotion, social recognition, etc.) and *integrative orientation* (to understand the foreign community better and to become integrated in it). In addition to these types of orientation, we have included further distinctions in our classification:

a) *professional motives:* in order to progress in the world of work;
b) *integrative orientation:* to make way in the foreign community;
c) *recreational motives:* to travel abroad and understand people, TV programmes, and the cinema in the L2, etc.;
d) *communicative orientation:* to establish connections with visiting foreigners; to understand messages in the L2; etc.;
e) *formative and educational reasons:* to ameliorate the individual's education.

– Actional phase

4. Interest and effort to attain the goal: Using Dörnyei metaphor, the motivated individual, once (s)he has "crossed the Rubicon" and starts the actional phase, (s)he keeps on the desire and interest towards achieveing the goal (foreign language learning), both accompanied by an effort, constancy and persistence. The desire to achieve the goal (achievement motivation) acts as a propelling force and incides on the individual's work, perseverance, and power of strife. A subject motivated to learn the foreign language works, struggles, and makes an effort to do so. However, as Gardner rightly points out, *effort* is not enough if it is not accompanied by the *desire* to learn and by *favourable attitudes*:

> "Effort alone does not signify motivation ... Many attributes of the individual, such as compulsiveness, desire to please a teacher, ... might produce effort ... When the desire to achieve the goal and favourable attitudes toward the goal are linked with the effort or the drive, then we have a motivated organism" (Gardner, 1985, pp. 10-11).

In this sense, the definition of motivation which we are analysing also includes certain notions of the need achievement theory (Atkinson, 1966, 1979; McClelland, 1961 and Nicholls, 1984). Motivation arises due to the need to attain set goals and objectives. If they are indeed achieved, they generate satisfaction, which, in turn, creates new motivation o reinforces already existing motivation. On the contrary, failure to accomplish goals, inhibits, diminishes, or prevents motivation due to lack of achievement. As attribution theorists have shown, the most important sources of motivation are the individuals' awareness of their effort and of their ability or capacity to execute tasks. In turn, those causes which are considered to be responsible for failure are: task difficulty, bad luck, mood, the help (or hindrance) from others. The causes of success or failure can be related to three basic criteria:

a) Locus of the cause (internal or external).
b) Degree of stability or constancy (stable – unstable).
c) Degree of responsibility or control over the situation (controllable – uncontrollable).

5. Motivation and goal attainment: The goal which the motivated individual strives to achieve continuously functions as a stimulus which activates all other components. In this phase, the subject begins to

obtain the objectives which (s)he had set for him/herself in the initial stage, whether in formal classroom contexts or in informal situations beyond the scope of the class. In this period, the success or failure of the individual in attaining the goal, that is, L2 learning, is conditioned by various factors:

a) The *attention* the subject pays to classroom explanations and tasks.

b) His/her *effort, constancy*, persistence, and dedication.

c) The individuals' *responsibility*, commitment, and identification with the teaching-learning process.

d) The *self-regulation* of behaviour and *learning*, degree of commitment with autonomous learning, etc.

— Post-actional phase

6. *Evaluation of results and emotional reactions:* In this last phase of the cycle, individuals will experience a greater or lesser degree of satisfaction, which will cause their motivation to increase, decrease, or stay the same. In other words, the learners' perception of their degree of achievement of the goal affects their *beliefs*, expectations, *desire* to learn, *attitudes* towards learning, and *effort* to learn. The subjects' mood and emotional state depend on the results of their initiatives to attain the goal successfully. If the goal was indeed achieved successfully, *satisfaction* and happiness result, whereas failure produces *frustration* and disappointment (Weiner *et al.* 1978, 1979). In addition, certain emotions are related to specific attributes of the subject. For instance, the feeling of success, can be associated to aptitude, intelligence, academic capacity, competence, effort and constancy, all key factors in the previous two phases (pre-action and action). If success has been attained with the assistance of others, a feeling of gratitude towards them arises. On the contrary, failure is linked with the lack of the afore-mentioned traits. It should be noted that all these emotional factors positively or negatively reinforce the remaining components of the model in fig. 3: the individuals' future needs, their lacks, perceptions, expectations,self-concept, attitudes towards learning, desire to attain future goals, and degree of effort applied in doing so. In other words, there is a reciprocal influence: the students' thoughts (beliefs, opinions, values) influence his/her feelings and their emotional states also contribute to and reinforce the student's future thought, modifying it occasionally.

6. THE FL TEACHER'S MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES

Once we have defined motivation and have represented the dynamic, cyclical and processed-oriented model that we have adopted in this paper, we want to concentrate on the FL teacher's motivational strategies that are often used in the classroom to incentivate the students' motivation. Given that the students' motivational state is often low –and in many cases non-existent– teachers have to resort to extrinsic motives to enhance their motivation. So, we think that the use of extrinsic motivational strategies can be the first step to generate a further intrinsic motivation.

Generally speaking, *extrinsic motivation* sees external incentives and influences as determinants of learners' motivational strength. Behaviour is performed based on the expectance of an outside reward (e.g., money, praise, bribes, etc.) The external or extrinsic rewards may bribe or coerce someone into doing something that (s)he would not do on his/her own. The type of motivation is related to the "carrot and stick" hypothesis. As we will see, neither "sticks" (punishment) nor "carrots" (rewards) turn out to be effective at helping children to become responsible people, lifelong and self-directed learners (Kohn, 1994). Extrinsic motivation contrasts with *intrinsic motivation*, which refers to "doing an activity simply for the enjoyment of the activity itself, rather than its instrumental value" (Ryan and Deci, 2000, p. 60).

Though extrinsic motivation may appear to be effective to keep the students' interest in the daily classroom activities, several studies have proved the contrary, that extrinsic rewards do not produce permanent changes. As Kohn (1993, p. 784) explains, "The fact is that extrinsic motivators do not alter the attitudes that underlie our behaviours. They do not create an enduring commitment to a set of values or to learning; they merely, and temporarily, change what we do". Leeper, Green and Nisbett (1973) have found that extrinsic rewards can reduce intrinsic interest. Deci (1975) found similar effects using money as the extrinsic reward and Kohn insists on the fact when motivating children with extrinsic rewards, the intrinsic value in the task is undermined by the task-contingent reward, since "extrinsic rewards turn learning from an end into a means" (1993, p. 785).

Though most educators agree that children need to be in supportive and friendly environments, Hitz and Driscoll (1989) have studied praise in the classroom and have concluded that it can be counterproductive or impractical as an external motivator (Brophy, 1981). Some praise

statements may have the potential to lower students' confidence and self-esteem. Meyer (1979) has also found that under certain conditions, praise led recipients to have low expectation of success at difficult tasks and decreased the performance and intensity put on them. Esler (1983) also reports that correlations between teacher's rates of praise and student's learning gains are not statistically significant. Other studies, such as Martin's (1977) and Stringer and Hurt's (1981), have concluded that praise can lessen self-motivation and cause children to become dependent on rewards.

Nevertheless, research indicates that there are effective ways to praise students if it is used as encouragement. Whereas praise is used to express approval and admiration, *encouragement* refers to a positive acknowledgment response that focuses on student efforts to specific attributes of work completed. As Hitz & Driscoll (1989) point out, encouragement presents the following characteristics:

- Offers specific feedback rather than general comments.
- Is teacher-initiated and private.
- Focuses on improvement and efforts rather than evaluation of a finished product.
- Uses sincere, direct comments
- Helps students develop an appreciation of their behaviours and achievements
- Avoids competition or comparison with others.
- Works toward self-satisfaction.

Rogers, Ludington and Graham (1999) have also written about motivation and learning and gives us some clues to build excitement for learning and ignite the drive for quality. They warn us about the powerful and sometimes undesirable effects of extrinsic motivators with the following considerations: extrinsic motivators can be very effective in producing behaviour or changes in behaviour, but they may result in lower quality performance and behaviour over time. They tend to be ineffective in improving long-term quality performance, promoting self-directed behaviours, self-confidence and intrinsic motives.

Even though there is abundant research which proves that extrinsic motives are often ineffective to change the students' behaviour in the long term, the question is how to motivate students to value and self-regulate the great variety of classroom necessary activities which appear uninteresting and dull for the students. This challenge, in Deci and Ryan's terms (1985) and within the self-determination theory, consists

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of fostering the *internalisation* and *integration* of values and behavioural regulations. This internalisation process aims to describe how one's motivation for behaviour can range from amotivation or unwillingness to active personal commitment, greater persistence and more involvement and engagement (Ryan and Deci, 2000, pp. 60-61). These motivational states can be represented in three separate levels and include different types of motivation:
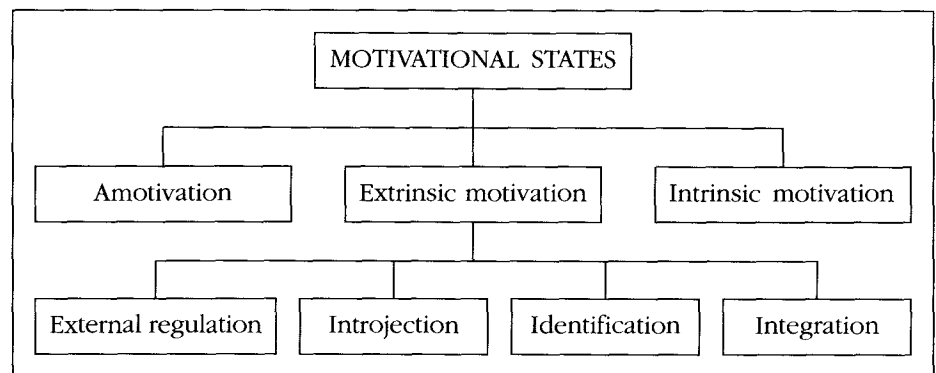

Fig. 4. A taxonomy of human motivation (Ryan and Deci, 2000).

Amotivation is the state of lacking intention to act. It results from not valuing an activity (Ryan, 1995), not feeling competent (Deci, 1975) or considering it unfeasible (Seligman, 1975).

External regulation represents the least autonomous forms of extrinsic motivation. These behaviours are simply performed to satisfy an external demand or reward, consequently, there exists an external perceived locus of control (deCharms, 1968). A second type of extrinsic motivation is *introjected regulation*, defined as a "type of internal regulation that is still quite controlling because people perform such actions with the feeling of pressure in order to avoid guilt or anxiety or to attain ego-enhancements or pride" (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 62). A classic form of introjection is ego involvement (Nicholls, 1984) to enhance or maintain self-esteem and the feeling of worth. *Identification* represents a more autonomous and self-determined form of extrinsic motivation. In this case, the individual identifies and appreciate the importance of a behaviour and accepts his/her self-regulation. Finally, Ryan and Deci (2000) consider *integrated regulation* as the most autonomous form of extrinsic motivation. This type of extrinsic motivation shares many qual-

ities with intrinsic motivation (Bandura, 1982; Corno & Rohrkemper, 1985), but it stills remains extrinsic since "behaviour motivated by integrated regulation is done for its instrumental value with respect to some outcome that is separate from the behaviour" (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 62).

At the right, we find *intrinsic motivation*, considered a prototype of self-determined activity.

As Ryan and Deci point out, these forms of human motivation are not watertight compartments, individuals may pass from one state to another: "one does not have to progress through each stage of internalisation with respect to a particular regulation; indeed, one can initially adopt a new behavioural regulation at any point along the continuum depending upon prior experiences and situational factors ... a person that has identified with the value of an activity might lose that sense of value under a controlling mentor and move 'backward' into an external regulatory mode" (2000, pp. 62-63).

Ryan and Deci (2000) have also studied the limitations of extrinsic motivation. They have concluded that "the more students were externally regulated the less showed interest, value, or effort, and the more they indicated a tendency to blame others, such as the teacher, for negative outcomes" (2000, p. 63). Nevertheless, some kind of extrinsic autonomous motivation has been associated with greater engagement (Connell & Wellborn, 1990), better performance (Miserandino, 1996), less dropping out (Vallerand & Bissonnette, 1992), higher quality learning (Sheldon & Kasser, 1995). Consequently, the key issue, as Ryan and Deci (2000) admit, is how to promote the autonomous regulation of extrinsically motivated behaviours. They suggest two procedures: increasing the sense of *relatedness*, that is, "providing a sense of belongingness and connectedness to the persons, group, or culture disseminating the goal" and facilitating the individual *perceived competence* so that individuals feel efficacious with respect to the tasks they will undertake (2000, p. 64).

7. THE RESEARCH STUDY

The previous research studies have warned us about the risk of using systematic extrinsic motives. We know that external motivators may bribe and coerce students and can be counterproductive. They only seem to produce a temporal change of behaviour, but rarely are effective in the long term. In this sense, intrinsic motivation is superior. However, the problem is that students seldom feel with intrinsic moti-

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vation to carry out classroom activities, so the only thing teachers can do is to use external or extrinsic motives to encourage, even in short periods of time, the student motivation. We believe that once a temporary motivation has been achieved, the next step, following Ryan and Deci's (2000) recommendations is to help students internalise these motives so that they consider them relevant, perceive themselves competent and feel autonomous enough to obtain satisfactory results.

As certain aspects of the teaching behaviour and specific classroom tasks exert a different degree of motivation on students, in this paper, we have aimed to find out what are the students' and teachers' perception about the motivational effects of the various teaching and learning situations and motivational strategies that take place in the FL class.

7.1. Research questions

The previous general objective can be split into the following specific research questions:

What is the students' and teachers' perception about the motivational effect of classroom events? How powerful are the teacher's motivational strategies? To what degree do the students feel that the following motivational strategies increase their motivation?

1. When the teacher encourages or *praises* the students' performance in class, when the students obtain a prize or reward for their performance.
2. When the students are *scolded* or punished.
3. When the FL classroom tasks are *easy* or when the teacher adapts difficult activities to the students' level so that they do not feel discouraged and demotivated.
4. Motivational power of intellectually *challenging* exercises.
5. Motivational effect of good results and grades; fulfilment of *expectations of success*.
6. Working cooperatively in pairs or *groups*.
7. Taking part in the *negotiation* of *curricular decisions*, that is, when the teacher and the students together decide what to study in class and what types of exercises to do.
8. Students' participation in the process of *self-evaluation* of their own work and when they express their opinion on the grades they deserve.
9. Motivational effect of individual and *autonomous* work.

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10. When they take part in class and when they *participate*.
11. What happens when the FL/L2 teacher *speaks* in the *FL/L2* in class?
12. When the class satisfies the students' *needs and interests*, when the teacher evidences the relevance of what they are doing in class.
13. Performing before an audience –be it their peers or the teacher–.
14. *Competing* and surpassing others; carrying out competitive activities.
15. When the students are provided with information about the objectives and contents of each task.
16. When the students are not asked in class and they *do not participate*, but listen passively to what the teacher and their classmates say and do.
17. What is the motivational effect of *discovering learning* and drawing personal conclusions?
18. When the teacher uses *audiovisuals and new technologies* (illustrations, photographs, recordings, computers, Internet, etc.), and not only the textbook.
19. What is the student's perception about his/her degree of motivation defined as the integration of *interest, attention, effort* and *persistence* to learn the FL as well as his/her *satisfaction* when learning it?

7.2. Variables of the study

To give an appropriate answer to the previous questions, nineteen variables have been controlled by means of the questionnaire in appendix 1 taken from Madrid (1999, p. 93). The questionnaire addressed to teachers included the same points, though the some grammatical changes were introduced in the teachers' protocols: obviously, the classroom situations described were referred to the teacher. The key aspects, considered independent variables in the study, appear printed in italics in the previous objectives. These are the following:

1. Praise and rewards.
2. Scolds or punishment.
3. Adequate difficulty of tasks.
4. Intellectually challenging exercises.
5. Good results and good grades *vs.* bad results and grades.
6. Working cooperatively in pairs or groups.

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7. Negotiating curricular decisions.
8. Taking part in self-evaluation processes.
9. Working individually or autonomously.
10. Class Participation.
11. Using the FL/L2 in class.
12. Satisfying needs and interests.
13. Acting out in the presence of classmates.
14. Competing with others; competitive activities.
15. Information about the objectives and contents of tasks.
16. No participation; listening passively.
17. Discovering things and drawing personal conclusions.
18. Using audiovisual and technological aids.
19. GLOBAL MOTIVATION.

Variables 1-18 have been considered independent, whereas variable 19, which informs about the global motivational state of the students, is the dependent variable.

7.3. Subject population

The study has been carried out in schools located in Granada. The schools and groups of students who make up the sample used to obtain our data are presented in the following table:

SCHOOLS (in Granada)	STUDENTS							
	Primary Ed.		Secondary Ed.				Bachillerato	
	5th	6th	1st S.	2nd S.	3rd S.	4th S.	1	2
"Dulce Nombre de María" (Escolapios)	25	27	26	34	29	21	30	63
IES "Fernando de los Ríos"						19		
IES "Montevives"							21	
CP "Rogelio Arasil Esteban"	24							
TOTAL: 319 students	49	27	26	34	29	40	51	63
TEACHERS	STAGE							N
	Primary Education							7
	Secondary Education							9
	Bachillerato							2

Fig. 5. Characteristics of the sample.

7.4. Data collection and analysis

The questionnaires were administered in March, 2002. The data provided by the students and teachers were processed on a computer for the correspondent statistical analysis with SPSS 10.1. As we can see in the following tables, some basis descriptive statistical procedures, such as the frequencies, means, ANOVA, T-student and some correlations were worked out. Given the pluricomponential nature of the construct of extrinsic motivation, it was necessary to carry out a multivariant analysis of a vast number of factors associated with such a construct to identify those which exert the greatest influence on the students' motivational processes. With this aim in mind, we have used Questionnaire M10 (see Appendix 1) from Madrid (1999, p. 93) which provides us with quantitative data from students and teachers using a Likert-like scale. This questionnaire enables us to explore the interrelation between certain teaching and learning situations which act as external incentives that exert a motivational effect on the students.

As we pointed out in Madrid and Pérez Cañado (2001, p. 340), despite the obvious advantages of the questionnaires in identifying the subjects' opinions, beliefs, and perceptions of their personal experience in the L2 classroom, we should not overlook the problems of validity and reliability. Oller (1981) has questioned the validity and reliability of such questionnaires, based on the effect of what he terms the subjects' "desire for social approval". This factor is a serious risk for any type of questionnaire, learner's diary, or report, as it seems individuals are not sincere when providing information about his/her personal life, but rather, modifies his/her response in order to please the enquirer, to cause a good impression, or to obtain a greater degree of social sanction (Skehan, 1989, pp. 61-62):

> "The approval motive (or the social desirability factor) is a danger for any sort of questionnaire or self-report data. The respondent may answer an item not with his true beliefs, attitudes, etc. but rather with the answer which he thinks will reflect on him ... self flattery is an important influence, even accounting for 25% of the shared variance" (Oller, 1981; in Skehan, p. 62).

> "People self-flatter by rating themselves higher on traits that they think are important, instead of attempting to be honest and objective" (Oller & Perkins, 1978, in Skehan, p. 62).

Nevertheless, we have included items which test, to some degree, the students reliability of their results and, as we will see, the data obtained are consistent enough to draw reliable conclusions.

7.5. Results

The following frequency table shows how often and to what degree the aspects indicated by each variable affect the students' motivation. It must be noted that the motivational strategies with the highest frequency of occurrence have been highlighted in bold type:

	Praises & rewards	*Scolding, Reproaching*	*Easy tasks*	*Intellectual Challenge*	*Success Expectations*
Never	19	35	46	16	20
Rarely	32	59	55	45	31
Sometimes	63	100	96	113	68
Often	113	74	83	81	87
Always	92	51	39	64	113
	Group work	*Curricular negotiation*	*Self-evaluation*	*Individual work*	*Participation in class*
Never	6	8	16	60	22
Rarely	35	23	49	95	27
Sometimes	54	114	108	101	70
Often	105	107	91	36	87
Always	119	67	54	27	113
	Use of English	*Needs & interests*	*Acting out*	*Competing*	*Informing about objectives*
Never	50	3	24	31	9
Rarely	75	12	61	43	40
Sometimes	112	79	93	71	98
Often	54	139	84	90	100
Always	28	86	57	84	72
	No participation	*Discovering learning*	*Audiovisual Means*	*GLOBAL MOTIVATION*	
Never	58	15	4	3	
Rarely	79	42	14	14	
Sometimes	108	102	49	127	
Often	42	109	67	126	
Always	31	51	185	48	

Fig. 6. Frequency table.

In fig. 6, we can see that the highest frequency of occurrence, among the controlled variables, is concentrated on: audiovisual resources and new technologies, group work, satisfying the students' needs and interests, encouraging student participation, good grades and fulfilment of the student's success expectations and praises and rewards.

In figure 7, we can see the students' average perception (mean) and the variability expressed by the standard deviation of the sample groups. It must be noted that 1st Stage ESO and 2nd Stage ESO refer to the first and second stage or phase of the Spanish Obligatory Secondary Education and Bachillerato include the two years of the Upper-Secondary:

M = Mean SD = Standard deviation	Primary Ed. (76)		1st Stage ESO (60)		2nd Stage ESO (69)		Bachillerato (114)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
1. Prizes and rewards	3,62	1,38	3,82	1,11	3,58	1,07	3,80	1,06
2. Scolds or punishment	2,66	1,43	3,30	1,13	3,29	1,12	3,31	1,06
3. Adequate difficulty of tasks	2,91	1,34	2,82	1,21	3,07	1,08	3,24	1,20
4. Intellectually challenging exercises	3,59	1,11	3,65	1,23	3,28	1,13	3,25	,99
5. Good results vs. bad results	3,07	1,37	3,80	1,20	3,86	1,14	4,14	,93
6. **Working in pairs or groups**	4,30	1,04	4,52	,65	3,91	,96	3,38	1,06
7. Negotiating curricular decisions	3,89	1,01	3,97	,86	3,59	,89	3,31	,95
8. Self-evaluation processes	3,73	1,11	3,33	1,20	3,36	,93	3,16	1,04
9. Working individually or autonomously	2,54	1,29	2,17	1,12	2,61	1,10	2,89	1,06
10. **Class Participation**	3,75	1,35	4,00	1,15	3,83	1,18	3,60	1,15
11. Using the FL/L2 in class	2,99	1,23	2,95	1,18	2,80	,99	2,59	1,16
12. **Satisfying needs and interests**	4,21	,97	4,00	,75	3,70	,86	3,82	,79

Fig. 7. Means and standard deviations of the groups.

M = Mean SD = Standard deviation	Primary Ed. (76)		1st Stage ESO (60)		2nd Stage ESO (69)		Bachillerato (114)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
13. Acting out with audience	3,67	1,21	3,58	,99	3,43	1,20	2,76	1,06
14. Competing with others	3,92	1,27	3,75	1,14	3,30	1,31	3,15	1,22
15. Information about objectives and contents	3,99	1,07	3,70	1,07	3,54	,93	3,28	1,01
16. No participation	2,60	1,49	2,90	,99	2,55	1,15	2,79	1,08
17. Discovering learning	3,72	1,21	3,60	1,01	3,41	,96	3,18	,96
18. Audiovisual and technological aids	**4,39**	**,89**	**4,45**	**,92**	**4,22**	**1,04**	**4,21**	**,98**
19. GLOBAL MOTIVATION	3,87	1,02	3,77	,64	3,61	,79	3,42	,72

Fig. 7. Means and standard deviations of the groups *(continued)*.

As we have highlighted, we can see that the motivational strategies which obtained the highest means are: using audiovisual aids and new technologies, encouraging maximum students' participation, satisfying needs and interests and introducing systematic group work. It may be surprising to notice that the use of English in class does not motivate students much. They prefer their classes to be imparted in Spanish. The older the students are, the lower motivation they feel when the teachers uses English in class. The mean scores obtained by item n° 11 were: 2.99 in Primary Education, 2.9 in the First Stage of ESO, 2.8 in the Second Stage of ESO and 2.5 in Bachillerato. The same applies to the students' general motivation (item 19): it is clear that it decreases with time. It seems to be high in Primary education (3.8), but the students perceive that it gradually becomes lower and lower: 3.7 and 3.6 and in the two stages of Obligatory Secondary Education and 3.5 in Bachillerato.

The scarce differences between male and female students can be seen in fig. 8. Though girls normally have a higher perception of their motivational state (Uribe, 1999; Burstall, 1975; Madrid *et al.* 1993a), in this study, they only surpass male students in a few items. The ANOVA values did not show any significant differences among male and female students.

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	Boys = 219		Girls = 99	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
1. Prizes and rewards	3,66	1,19	3,85	1,04
2. *Scolding* or punishment	3,15	1,19	3,17	1,26
3. Adequate difficulty of *tasks*	2,95	1,28	3,27	1,02
4. *Intellectually challenging* exercises	3,41	1,14	3,40	1,01
5. Good results vs bad results	3,80	1,22	3,69	1,15
6. Working in pairs or *groups*	3,94	1,09	3,94	,97
7. Negotiating *curricular decisions*	3,63	,99	3,67	,89
8. *Self-evaluation processes*	3,40	1,06	3,30	1,14
9. Working *individually* or autonomously	2,61	1,19	2,62	1,09
10. Class Participation	3,78	1,19	3,75	1,24
11. Using the *FL/L2 in class*	2,84	1,16	2,72	1,15
12. Satisfying *needs and interests*	3,90	,82	3,99	,90
13. Acting out with audience	3,30	1,11	3,22	1,31
14. *Competing with* others	3,64	1,24	3,13	1,29
15. *Information* about *objectives* and *contents*	3,64	1,08	3,47	,96
16. *No participation;* listening passively	2,74	1,13	2,64	1,30
17. *Discovering* learning	3,35	1,08	3,61	,95
18. *Audiovisual and technological aids*	4,28	,98	4,34	,92
19. GLOBAL MOTIVATION	3,66	,82	3,58	,82

Fig. 8.   Means and standard deviations of male and female students.

In figure 9, we can see the students' and teachers' average perception about the influence that the controlled classroom motivational strategies have on the students.

As we can see in fig. 9, the correlation between the students' and teachers' scores is weak. The strongest correlation has been found in the value given to the use of audiovisual aids and new technologies ($r = .43$, $p < = 0.05$). There's also some correlation between the scarce value assigned to 2) scolding and punishment and 16) no class partic-

MOTIVATING EFFECT OF THE CONTROLLED CLASSROOM STRATEGIES (Perception of students and teachers)					
5 = always 4 = frequently 3 = sometimes 2 = little 1 = never	Students		Teachers		Correlation (Pearson)
	M	SD	M	SD	
1. **Praise and rewards**	3,71	1,15	4,61	,60	.03
2. *Scolds* or punisment	3,15	1,21	3,44	,70	.25
3. Adequate difficulty of tasks	3,04	1,22	4,06	,72	-.18
4. *Intellectually challenging* exercises	3,41	1,10	3,17	,51	.11
5. **Good results and good grades** *vs.* **bad results and grades**	3,76	1,21	4,17	,61	-.03
6. **Working cooperatively in pairs or** *groups*	3,93	1,07	3,78	,54	.14
7. Negotiating *curricular decisions*	3,63	,97	3,94	,53	.12
8. Taking part in *self-evaluation processes*	3,37	1,08	3,56	,78	.12
9. Working *individually* or autonomously	2,61	1,16	2,94	,41	.14
10. **Class Participation**	3,76	1,21	4,39	,60	-.22
11. Using the *FL/L2 in class*	2,80	1,16	2,71	,58	-.00
12. **Satisfying** *needs and interests*	3,92	,86	4,28	,57	-.36
13. Acting out in the presence of classmates	3,28	1,18	3,00	,68	-.06
14. *Competing with* others; competitive activities	3,48	1,27	3,44	,70	-.12
15. *Information* about the *objectives* and *contents* of tasks	3,58	1,05	3,22	,87	-.15
16. *No participation;* listening passively	2,71	1,19	2,11	,83	.21
17. *Discovering* things and drawing personal conclusions	3,44	1,05	3,61	,69	.16
18. Using ***audiovisual and technological aids***	4,30	,96	4,44	,70	.43
19. **GLOBAL MOTIVATION**	3,63	,82	–	–	–

Fig. 9.   Students' and teachers' means, standard deviations and correlation of scores.

ipation. The fact that students and teachers scored item 5 (class participation) very high (mean = 3.76 and 4.39 respectively) and its opposite counterpart, item 16 (no class participation) very low (mean = 2.71 and 2.11, respectively) gives consistence and reliability to results.

The comparative graphical representation of the mean scores in fig. 10 shows that teachers gave more relevance to items 1 (rewards), 3 (easy tasks), 5 (good results), 10 (participation) & 18 (audiovisuals) than students, as classroom motivators. On the other hand, students perceive that remaining passive in class and not participating (item 16) as more motivating than teachers do:
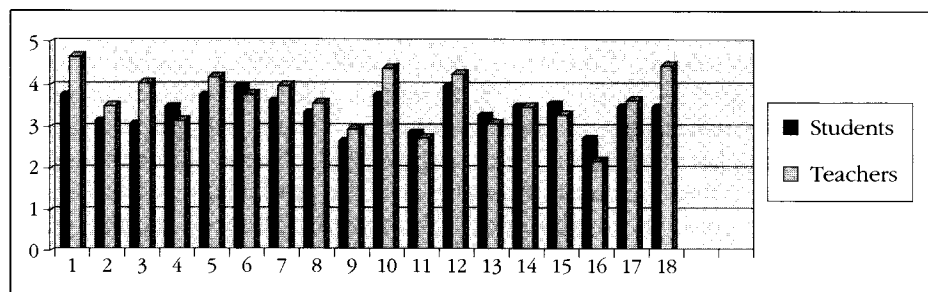

Fig. 10. Graphical representation of the students' and teachers' mean of the scores.

After we have provided information about the frequency of the scores and on the average (mean) perception of students and teachers regarding the eighteen variables controlled as well as the standard deviations, we want to illustrate how heterogeneous or homogeneous the students and teachers were with regard to their perceptions; that is, we are going to inform about the variability of results by presenting the ANOVA and t-student.

To see if the differences among the groups were statistically significant, the ANOVA has been calculated. Thus, we can see if the variability between the different groups is greater than the variability within each of the groups. A significant F occurs when the variability among the groups is greater than the variability within each group. As we know, when the F value is significant the null hypothesis of no difference is rejected, but we still do not know where the differences are, that is, between which of the groups. In order to know that, we have compared some groups by using the T-Student (or t-test) procedure. When the ANOVA values show very few significant differences, it is

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obvious that the T-Student procedure has little interest. That has been the case of male and female scores in our study.

In figure 11, the ANOVA indicates how confident we can be that the differences observed among the groups are not due to chance. The analysis of variance in the first two columns show if the difference among the groups are statistically significant at a p <= 0.05 level.

In fig. 11, we can see that the differences found in the ANOVA values, obtained with the students grouped by *gender* are not significant, but the differences appreciated between the Primary Education students and 2nd Phase of Secondary Education groups are statistically significant in items 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 12, 13, 14, 15, 17 and 19 at p < = 0.05. In addition to that, we have also found significant differences between the 2nd Stage of Secondary Education groups and those of Bachillerato in items 2, 5, 12 and 14 at p < = 0.05. It means that the students at these stages differ considerably in their perception of the influence that the controlled variables have on their motivation. These differences are strongly appreciated between Primary and the 2nd Phase of ESO students in connection to Scolds and punishment, Effect of having good and bad results, Group Work, Negotiating curricular decisions, Working autonomously, Class participation, Self-valuation processes and the Difficulty of task. Similar differences have been found between the 1st Stage of ESO students and Bachillerato as regards to Working in pairs or groups, Negotiating curricular decisions, Acting out with audience and Competing with others. It is important to notice that there is also statistical significance in the T-Student values assigned to Global motivation in the comparison made between 1st Stage of ESO and Bachillerato (F = 0.02; t = 0.01, p < = 0.05). It means that the students degree of motivation varies considerably between the Phases compared.

It is also important to notice that the differences between Primary School and Secondary School students, in connection with the effect that Scolds and punishment have on their motivational level is statistically significant (t = .004, p < = 0.05), whereas, it is not in the comparison made between the ESO and Bachillerato students (t = .968, p < = 0.05). The mean score proves that the ESO students are more affected by scolds and feel a higher degree of affection than the Primary school pupils. As regards to Class Participation, our results show the opposite. That is, there are no significant differences (t = .719, p < = 0.05) between the Primary level and the 2nd Stage of ESO. It means that both groups feel motivated by participating in class. Nevertherless, in the comparison between the 1st Stage of ESO and Bachillerato there are more con-

	ANOVA		T-Student	
	Gender	Groups	Sig. (bilateral)	
	Boys = 218 Girls = 99	Primary = 74 1st Stage ESO = 60 2nd Stage ESO = 69 Bachillerato = 114	Primary & 2nd Stage ESO	1st Stage ESO & Bachillerato
1. Prizes and rewards	,168	,500	,851	,915
2. Scolds or punishment	,841	,001	,004	,968
3. Adequate difficulty of tasks	,031	,144	,418	,031
4. Intellectually challenging exercises	,948	,049	,092	,023
5. Good results vs. bad results	,446	,000	,000	,040
6. Working in pairs or groups	,949	,000	,021	,000
7. Negotiating curricular decisions	,714	,000	,060	,000
8. Self-evaluation processes	,426	,003	,032	,319
9. Working individually or autonomously	,966	,001	,728	,000
10. Class Participation	,826	,195	,719	,030
11. Using the FL/L2 in class	,367	,052	,309	,054
12. Satisfying needs and interests	,355	,000	,001	,137
13. Acting out with audience	,597	,000	,242	,000
14. Competing with others	,001	,000	,005	,002
15. Information on objectives and contents	,189	,000	,008	,012
16. No participation; listening passively	,479	,227	,825	,494
17. Discovering learning	,051	,002	,082	,007
18. Audiovisual and technological aids	,562	,335	,272	,115
19. GLOBAL MOTIVATION	,435	,002	,092	,001

Fig. 11. Statistical significance of student differences by gender and group.

siderable differences (t = .030): it seems that participation is not so essential for the older students. The are also significant differences between the 1st Stage of ESO and Bachillerato as regards to Working individually (t = .000, p < = 0.05): the upper-secondary students feel more motivated than the younger ones when working individually and autonomously.

8. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

We have started by considering motivation as a complex area to approach and define. Nevertheless, we have attempted to define it according to the major theories. We have seen that for the psychoanalytic theory, motivation emerge from two central concepts: *homeostasis* (tendency to achieve an internal balance) and *hedonism* (inclination towards pleasure and happiness in life). The drive theory explains individuals' motivation (and behaviour in general) through *impulses* and *habits*. For this approach, anxiety, conflicts, frustration and social facilitation are major components. The achievement theory gives a great importance to environmental factors: students' experiences and their struggle to attain good performance. Students motivated by need achievement tend to choose challenging and difficult tasks and make great effort to solve them. For the social learning theory, the most important elements of behaviour are learnt. The primary source of motivation is our *thought*, since it affects our actions. Another important source is the attainable objective and *goal setting*. Here, the teacher' social function in class is crucial. Weiner's attributional theory put the main emphasis on how individuals feel about their successes and failures. A great importance is given to the perception of casual dimension, casual antecedents and attributions and success expectancy. The attribution of success to controllable factors such us *effort* (instead of ability) is a key strategy to enhance low ability students' motivation. Avoiding anxiety is also highly recommended. Finally, for the humanistic theory, motivation depends on how the individual sees and evaluates him/herself and for the personal construct theory, motivation depends on how individuals construct and interpret their surrounding events. So, *thoughts* are more decisive than feelings.

We have also seen that motivation has been a key factor in most second language acquisition theories: Krashen's monitor theory includes the affective filter, which control language acquisition processes; Carroll's conscious reinforcement model uses reinforcement as a motivating re-

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source; Byalistok gives motivation a key role in transforming explicit knowledge into implicit knowledge and Shuman considers affective factors to be crucial for language learning.

Most authors consider that motivation is not a single concept, but a multidimensional construct. So, most theoretical models explain motivation as a set of integrated components. Gardner distinguishes 1) cultural beliefs, 2) the individual learner differences (intelligence, aptitude and motivation), 3) the learning contexts and 4) the outcomes. Skehan speaks about four sources of motivation: 1) teaching and learning activities, 2) learning outcomes, 3) internal motivation and 4) extrinsic motivation. Crookes and Smith, also relate motivation with four levels: 1) microlevel, 2) classroom level, 3) curricular level and 4) long-term learning outside the classroom. Dörnyei (1994) organized the components of motivation in three levels: 1) linguistic level, relate to the learner and 3) to the learning situation. More recently, he has proposed a process-oriented conceptualisation of student motivation (Dönyei, 2000) which, in essence, coincides with Lorenzo Bergillo's model (1997) and with the one we have adopted in this paper.

We have proposed a *dynamic* (changeable with time), *cyclical* (happening in repeated order) and *process-oriented* model of motivation (see fig. 3) which develops in three phases: pre-actional (initial motivation), actional (process motivation) and post-actional (evaluative), in line with Lorenzo Bergillos (1997) and Dönyei (2000). As figure 3 shows, the phase two and three in the model provide a feedback that influences the preactional phase and, in turn, further future motivational states.

We have considered that teachers often have to resort to extrinsic motives to enhance poorly motivated students. Though a considerable amount of research has proved that extrinsic motivation is ineffective to educate responsible, lifelong and self-directed learners, if properly managed, we believe that it can produce greater engagement in the classroom tasks (Connell & Wellborn, 1990), better performance on the part of the students (Miserandino, 1996), less absences (Vallerand & Bissonnette, 1992) and higher quality learning (Sheldon & Kasser, 1995). Apart from that, if *praises* are used as *encouragement* (Hitz & Driscoll, 1989) and extrinsic motives promote autonomous regulation, a sense of relatedness in the student and a proper perceived competence, they can generate or be transformed into intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

In this study we have proposed to study how powerful are eighteen classroom motivational strategies and what motivational state do the

students experience along their Primary and Secondary Education periods. We have used a reduced sample (319 students and 18 teachers), but it gives us an interesting idea about what the situation is like.

The results obtained show that the strongest and most powerful motivational strategies, among the controlled variables, according to the students' and teachers' perception, are the following: 18) The use of audiovisual resources and new technologies, 6) Group work, 12) Satisfying the students needs and interests, 10) Student participation in class, 5) Good grades and fulfilment of the student's success expectations, 1) Praises and rewards.

Our results also show that the weakest motivational strategies are the following: *16) No participation*; listening passively, 9) Working *individually* and 11) Using the L2 in class.

Most students feel that they are often or always motivated. They admit that their interest, level of attention, effort, persistence and satisfaction in the English class is good, but it is clear that their perception on their motivational level decreases with time and along their secondary school studies, as the mean scores illustrate: Primary (M = 3.87, SD = 1.02), 1st Stage of ESO (M = 3.77, SD = .64), 2nd Stage of ESO (M = 3.61, SD = .79) and Bachillerato (M = 3.42, SD = .72).

According to the T-Student values, statistically significant differences have been found between the perception of Primary and ESO students, and the ESO and Bachillerato groups in relation to following variables:

Working in pairs or groups, Negotiating curricular decisions, Acting out with audience and Competing with others.

There is also statistical significance in the T-Student values assigned to Global motivation between the 1st Stage of ESO and Bachillerato (F = 0.02; t = 0.01, p <= 0.05). It means that the students degree of motivation varies considerably between the Phases compared.

The ESO students are more affected by scolds and feel a higher degree of affection than the Primary school pupils. As regards to Class Participation, our results show the opposite. That is, there are no significant differences between the Primary level and the 2nd Stage of ESO: both groups feel motivated when participating in class. Nevertheless, it seems that participation is not so essential for the older students. Finally, our results prove that the upper-secondary students feel more motivated than the younger ones when working individually and autonomously.

We think that the implications of the results obtained in this study are clear: teachers should promote and put into practice those motivational strategies which increase the students interest, attention and satis-

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faction within the English class and these are the items with the highest mean scores. Nevertheless, there is one point which does not seem to be very popular, but which is necessary for the students to reach a reasonable communicative competence. That is: using English as much as possible in class. If the students do not appreciate the importance of that, teachers will have to instil it by showing its benefit in the short and long term.

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APPENDIX 1

M10. Efecto motivador de las situaciones de enseñanza y aprendizaje

Colegio:	Idioma: ....
Curso: .... Sexo: M ..... F....	Fecha: ....

Indica en qué medida te ocurre lo siguiente:

5 = siempre   4 = con frecuencia   3 = a veces   2 = poco   1 = nunca

1. Cuando me anima o me *felicita* el/la profesor/a por mis actuaciones de clase, me dan algún premio y obtengo recompensa por mis buenas actuaciones aumenta mi motivación.

2. Cuando me regañan, *me reprochan* algo o me castigan, disminuye mi motivación.

3. Cuando las *tareas* de la clase de idioma son *fáciles* o el profesor las adapta a mis posibilidades, me motivan y cuando son difíciles me desaniman y desmotivan.

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4. Los ejercicios que suponen para mi un *desafío intelectual* y un reto para mis capacidades me motivan.

5. Cuando consigo buenos resultados y buenas notas, y mis expectativas de *éxito* se cumplen, aumenta mi motivación y cuando me suspenden, no se cumplen mis expectativas y me siento más o menos *fracasado*, disminuye.

6. Cuando realizo cualquier actividad por parejas o en *equipo* y trabajo con los demás de forma cooperativa aumenta mi motivación.

7. Cuando participo en la *negociación* de las decisiones *curriculares*, es decir cuando el/la profesor/a da la opción de elegir lo que estudiamos en clase y el tipo de ejercicios que deseamos realizar, y lo acordamos entre profesor y alumnos, cuando intervengo en el **control** y autorregulación de lo que hago me siento más motivado/a.

8. Cuando participo en los procesos de *autoevaluación* de mi trabajo y cuando expreso mi opinión sobre las calificaciones que me merezco, me siento más motivado/a que si no participo.

9. Cuando *trabajo individualmente* o de forma autónoma me siento más motivado/a que cuando trabajo por equipos o por parejas.

10. Cuando intervengo en clase y *participo* me siento más motivado/a que cuando no participo y permanezco callado/a.

11. Cuando el/la profesor/a da la *clase en la LE/L2* (e.g. inglés/francés) me siento más motivado/a que cuando la da en español.

12. Cuando la clase satisface mis *necesidades e intereses*, cuando el/la profesor/a demuestra la relevancia y la importancia de lo que hacemos en clase me siento más motivado.

13. Mis actuaciones ante un *auditorio* –ya sean mis compañeros o el profesor– me sirven de estímulo y aumentan mi motivación.

14. Me gusta *competir* y aventajar a los demás y cuando realizo actividades competitivas aumento mi grado de motivación.

15. Aumenta mi motivación cuando se me *informa* con detalle sobre los *objetivos y contenidos* que estudiamos en cada tarea.

16. Cuando no me preguntan en clase y *no participo*, sino que escucho pasivamente lo que hace y dice el profesor y mis compañeros, me siento más a gusto, relajado y motivado.

17. Cuando no me dan las cosas hechas sino que me ponen en situación de que yo las *descubra* y saque mis conclusiones personales me siento más motivado.

18. Cuando el profesor usa *medios audiovisuales* y tecnológicos (láminas, fotos, grabaciones, ordenador, internet, etc.) me motiva más que cuando da las clases únicamente con el libro de texto.