

- the Faculty, No. 60. Ann Arbor: Center for Research on Teaching and Learning, University of Michigan.
- Fiore, N. 1985. "On Not Doing a Student's Homework". **Chemistry AT Handbook**. Berkeley: Chemistry Department, University of California.
- Forsyth, D. R., and McMillan, J. H. 1991. "Practical Proposals for Motivating Students". In R. J. Menges and M. D. Svinicki (eds.), **College Teaching: From Theory to Practice**. New Directions in Teaching and Learning, No. 45. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Lepper, Mark R. 1988. "Motivational Considerations in the Study of Instruction." **cognition and instruction** 5,4: 289-309.
- Lowman, J. 1984. **Mastering the Techniques of Teaching**. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Lowman, J. 1990. "Promoting Motivation and Learning". **College Teaching**. 38(4), 136-39.
- Lucas, A. F. 1990. "Using Psychological Models to Understand Students Motivation." In M. D. Svinicki (ed.), **The Changing Face of College Teaching**. New Directions for Teaching and Learning, No. 42. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Lumsden, L.S. (1994). **Student motivation to learn** (ERIC Digest No. 92). Eugene, Or: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 370 200)
- McCombs, B.L., & Whisler, J.S. (1997). **The learner-centered classroom and school: Strategies for increasing student motivation and achievement**. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- McCombs, B.L., & Pope, J.E. (1994). **Motivating hard to reach students**. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Marshall, Hermine H. "Motivational Strategies of Three Fifth-Grade Teachers". **the elementary school journal** 88, 2 (November 1987): 135-50. EJ 362 747.
- McKeachie, W.J. 1986. **Teaching Tips**. (8th ed.) Lexington, Mass.: Heath.
- McMillan, J. H., and Forsyth, D. R. 1991. "What Theories of Motivation Say About Why Learners Learn". In R. J. Menges and M.D. Svinicki (eds.), **College Teaching: From Theory to Practice**. New Directions for Teaching and Learning, No. 45. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Raffini, James. 1993. **Winners without losers: structures and strategies for increasing student motivation to learn**. Boston: Allyn and Bacon. 286 pages.
- Renchler, R. (1992). **School leadership and student motivation** (ERIC Digest No. 71). Eugene, OR: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 346 558).
- Sass, E. J. 1989. "Motivation in the College Classroom: What Students Tell Us". **Teaching of Psychology**. 19(2), 86-88.
- Skinner, E., & Belmont, M. (1991). **A longitudinal study of motivation in school: Reciprocal effects of teacher behavior and student engagement**. Unpublished manuscript, University of Rochester, Rochester, NY.
- Strong, R., Silver, H.F., & Robinson, A. (1995). **What do students want? Educational Leadership**, 53(1), 8-12.
- Tiberius, R.G. 1990. **Small Group Teaching: A Trouble-Shooting Guide**. Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education Press.
- Weinert, F. E., and Kluwe, R.H. 1987. **Metacognition, Motivation and Understanding**. Hillsdale, N.J.: Erlbaum.

goals (Lumsden, 1994). Doing so prevents students from becoming overwhelmed and discouraged by lengthy projects.

- To promote mastery learning (Anderman & Midgley, 1998). "When a student completes an assignment that does not meet the expected criteria, give her or him one or more opportunities to tackle the task again, with guidelines on how to achieve the desired result" (Dev, 1997, p. 17).
- To evaluate student work as soon as possible after project completion, and be sure that feedback is clear and constructive (Strong et al., 1995).
- To evaluate students based on the task, not in comparison to other students (Anderman & Midgley, 1998; Dev, 1997; Lumsden, 1994).

References

- Anderman, L.H., & Midgley, C. (1998). **Motivation and middle school students** [ERIC digest]. Champaign, IL: ERIC Clearinghouse on Elementary and Early Childhood Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 421 281)
- Angelo, T. A. "Ten Easy Pieces: Assessing Higher Learning in Four Dimensions". In T. A. Angelo (ed.), **Classroom Research: Early Lessons from Success**. New Directions for Teaching and Learning, No. 46. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1991.
- American Psychological Association. **Learner-Centered Psychological Principles: Guidelines for School Redesign and Reform**. Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association, 1992.
- Ames, Carole A. "Motivation: What Teachers Need to Know". **teachers college record** 91, 3 (Spring 1990): 409-21.
- Ames, R., and Ames, C. 1990. "Motivation and Effective Teaching". In B. F. Jones and L. Idol (eds.), *Dimensions of Thinking and Cognitive Instruction*. Hillsdale, N. J.: Erlbaum.
- Bligh, D. A. 1971. **What's the Use of Lecturing?** Devon, England: Teaching Services Centre, University of Exeter.
- Bodner, G. M. *J. Chem. Educ.* 1986, 63, 872-878.
- Bodner, G. M.; Herron, J. D. **chemtech**, in Press.
- Brock, S. C. 1976. **Practitioners' Views on Teaching the Large Introductory College Course**. Manhattan: Center for Faculty Evaluation and Development, Kansas State University.
- Brooks, S.R., Freiburger, S.M., & Grotheer, D. R. (1998). **Improving elementary student engagement in the learning process through integrated thematic instruction**. Unpublished master's thesis, Saint Xavier University, Chicago, IL. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 421 274).
- Brophy, Jere. 1986. **on motivating students**. Occasional Paper No. 101. East Lansing, Michigan: Institute for Research on Teaching, Michigan State University. 73 pages. ED 276 724.
- Cashin, W.E. 1979. "Motivating Students". **Idea Paper**, no. 1. Manhattan: Center for Faculty Evaluation and Development in Higher Education, Kansas State University.
- Daniel, J.W. 1988. "Survival Cards in Math". **College Teaching**, 36(3), 110.
- Dev, P.C. (1997). Intrinsic motivation and academic achievement: What does their relationship imply for the classroom teacher? **Remedial and Special Education**. 18(1), 12-19.
- Erickson, B. L., and Strommer, D. W. 1991. **Teaching College Freshmen**. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Ericksen, S. C. 1978. "The Lecture". **Memo to**

they have done the reading. If the answer is no, she says, "You'll have to read the material on your own. Expect a question on the next exam covering the reading". The next time she assigns reading, she reminds the class of what happened the last time, and the students come to class prepared. (Lowman, 1989)

3.6.8. Giving a written assignment to those students who have not done the reading

Some faculties ask at the beginning for the class who has completed the reading. Students who have not read the material are given a written assignment and dismissed. Those who have read the material stay and participate in class discussion. The written assignment is not graded but merely acknowledged. This technique should not be used more than once a term. (Lowman, 1989).

4. Conclusion

Ample research has demonstrated that school practices can and do affect a student's level of motivation (Lumsden, 1994). (Skinner and Belmont, 1991) caution, however, that this may not always be for the better:

If left to run their typical course, teachers tend to magnify children's initial levels of motivation. This is fine for students who enter the classroom motivationally "rich"; they will "get rich". However, for students whose motivation is low, their typical classroom experiences may result in its further deterioration (p. 31).

To be sure, efforts to promote student motivation need not be directed solely at students who have low levels of motivation. All students (and all schools, for that matter) would benefit from higher levels of engagement and motivation to succeed

(Anderman & Midgley, 1998; Lumsden, 1994). How to realize this dream is:

- ❑ To use extrinsic rewards sparingly. If extrinsic motivators are to be used, they are most effective when rewards are closely related to the task accomplished. Also, rewards should only be given when they are clearly deserved. Giving a prize for minimally successful work sends the message that minimum effort is acceptable, and the reward then becomes meaningless (Brooks et al., 1998).
- ❑ To ensure that classroom expectations for performance and behavior are clear and consistent (Skinner & Belmont, 1991). Students need to understand the criteria for individual assignments by giving them examples of high-, average-, and low-level work and then providing an opportunity to discuss how each piece was evaluated (Strong et al., 1995).
- ❑ To make students feel welcome and supported (Lumsden, 1994). Elementary school students in particular need to feel that teachers are involved in their lives. Take time to get to know students, talk to them individually, and "express enjoyment in [your] interactions" (Skinner & Belmont, 1991).
- ❑ To respond positively to student questions, and to praise students verbally for work well done (Dev, 1997).
- ❑ To work to build quality relationships with students, especially those considered to be at-risk and without other positive adult interaction; this is a critical factor of students engagement that allows children to foster a sense of connection with school (McCombs & Pope, 1994).
- ❑ To break large tasks into a series of smaller

3.6.1. Assigning the reading at least two sessions before it will be discussed

Students should have ample time to prepare and try to pique their curiosity about the reading: "This article is one of my favorites, and I'll be interested to see what you think about it". (Lowman, 1984)

3.6.2. Assigning study questions

Study questions that alert students to the key points of the reading assignment should be hand out. To provide extra incentive for students, they should be notified that exam questions are based on the study questions. (Lowman, 1989)

3.6.3. If the class is small, students may have turn in brief notes on the day's reading that they can use during exams

At the start of each class, a professor in the physical sciences asks students to submit a 3"x5" card with an outline, definitions, key ideas, or other material from the day's assigned reading. After class, he checks the cards and stamps them with his name. He returns the cards to students at a class session prior to the midterm. Students can then add any material they would like to the cards but cannot submit additional cards. The cards are again returned to the faculty member who distributes them to students during the test. This faculty member reports that the number of students completing the reading jumped from 10 percent to 90 percent and that students especially valued these "survival cards". (Daniel, 1988)

3.6.4. Asking students to write a one-word journal or one-word sentence

Angelo (1991) describes the one-word journal as follows: students are asked to choose

a single word that best summarizes the reading and then write a page or less explaining or justifying their word choice. This assignment can then be used as a basis for class discussion. A variation reported by Erickson and Strommer (1991) is to ask students to write one complex sentence in answer to a question you pose about the readings and provide three sources of supporting evidence: "In one sentence, identify the type of ethical reasoning Singer uses in his article 'Famine, Affluence, and Morality'. Quote three passages that reveal this type of ethical reasoning" (p. 125).

3.6.5. Asking nonthreatening questions about the reading

Initially general questions that do not create tension or feelings of resistance should be posed: "Can you give me one or two items from the chapter that seem important?" "What section of the reading do you think we should review?" "What item in the reading surprised you?" "What topics in the chapter can you apply to your own experience?" (Lowman, 1989)

3.6.6. Using class time as a reading period

To lead a discussion and finding that few students have completed the reading assignment. Asking students to read the material for the remainder of class time should be considered. Have them read silently or call on students to read aloud and discuss the key points. Make it clear to students that this unusual step is taken reluctantly because they have not completed the assignment.

3.6.7. Preparing an exam question on undiscussed readings

one faculty member asks her class whether



inadequacy.

3.5.6. Avoid giving in to students' pleas for "the answer" to homework problems

When the solution is simply given to the struggling students, they are robbed of the chance to think for themselves. A more productive approach should be used. (adapted from Fiore, 1985):

- The students should be asked for possible approach to the problem.
- The students' anxiety about not getting the answer should be gently brushed aside by refocusing their attention on the problem at hand.
- The students are to build on what they do

know about the problem.

- The question "is this right?" should be resisted to answer. The students should be suggested to a way to check the answer for themselves.
- Each small, independent steps of the students must be praised.

Following these steps, students will learn that it is all right not to have an instant answer. They will also learn to develop greater patience and to work at their own pace. And by working through the problem, students will experience a sense of achievement and confidence that will increase their motivation to learn.

3.6. Motivating Students to Do the Reading

3.4.2. Designing test that encourage the kind of learning students are expected to achieve

Many students will learn whatever is necessary to get the grades they desire. If tests are based on memorizing details, students will focus on memorizing facts. If they stress the synthesis and evaluation of information, students will be motivated to practice those skills when they study. (McKeachie, 1986).

3.4.3. Using grades as threats should be avoided

As McKeachie (1986) points out, the threat of low grades may prompt some students to work hard, but other students may resort to academic dishonesty, excuses for late work, and other counterproductive behavior.

3.5. Motivating Students by Responding to Their Work

3.5.1. Giving students feedback as quickly as possible

Returning tests and papers promptly, and rewarding success publicly and immediately, will give students some indication of how well they have done and how to improve. Rewards can be as simple as saying a student's response was good, with an indication of why it was good, or mentioning the names of contributors.

3.5.2. Rewarding success

Both positive and negative comments influence motivation, but research consistently indicates that students are more affected by positive feedback and success. Praise builds students' self-confidence, competence, and self-esteem. Sincere efforts should be recognized even if the product is less than stellar. If a student's performance is weak, let the student know that you believe he or she can improve and succeed overtime. (Cashin,

1979; Lucas, 1990)

3.5.3. Introducing students to the good work done by their peers

The ideas, knowledge, and accomplishments of individual students should be shared with the class as a whole:

- ❑ A list of research topics chosen by students should be passed out so they will know whether others are writing papers of interest to them.
- ❑ Copies of the best papers and essay exams should be made available.
- ❑ A class time should be prepared for students to read papers or assignments submitted by classmates.
- ❑ Students should be encouraged to write a brief critique of a classmate's paper.
- ❑ A brief talk by a student who has experience or who is doing a research paper on a topic relevant to the class lecture should be scheduled.

3.5.4. Being specific when giving negative feedback

Negative feedback is very powerful and can lead to a negative class atmosphere. Whenever a student's weakness is identified, it should be clear that the comments are related to a particular task or performance, not to the student as a person. Negative comments tried to be cushioned with a compliment about aspects of the task in which the student succeeded. (Cashin, 1979)

3.5.5. Demeaning comments should be avoided

Many students in the class may be anxious about their performance and abilities. Teachers should be sensitive to how they phrase their comments and how to avoid offhand remarks that might prick the student's feelings of

professor might devote some lecture time to examining the contributions of chemistry to resolving environmental problems. An explanation should be given of how the content and objectives of the course will help students achieve their educational, professional, or personal goals. (Brock, 1976; Cashin, 1979; Lucas, 1990)

3.3.2. When possible, letting students have some say in choosing what will be studied

Students should be given options on term papers or other assignments (but not on tests). Letting students decide between two locations for the field trip, or having them select which topics to explore in greater depth. If possible, optional or alternative units be included in the course. (Ames and Ames, 1990; Cashin, 1979; Forsyth and McMillan, 1991; Lowman, 1984)

3.3.3. Increasing the difficulty of the material as the semester progresses

Giving students opportunities to succeed at the beginning of the semester. Once students feel they can succeed, the difficulty level can be gradually increased. If assignments and exams include easier and harder questions, every student will have a chance to experience success as well as challenge. (Cashin, 1979)

3.3.4. Varying the teaching methods

Variety reawakens students' involvement in the course and their motivation. The routine should be broken by incorporating a variety of teaching activities and methods in the course: role playing, debates, brainstorming, discussion, demonstrations, case studies, audiovisual presentations, guest speakers, or small group work. (Forsyth and McMillan, 1991)

3.4. De-emphasizing Grades

3.4.1. Emphasizing mastery and learning rather than grades

Ames and Ames (1990) report on two secondary school math teachers. One teacher graded every homework assignment and counted homework as 30 percent of a student's final grade. The second teacher told students to spend a fixed amount of time on their homework (thirty minutes a night) and to bring questions to class about problems they could not complete. This teacher graded homework as satisfactory or unsatisfactory, gave students the opportunity to redo their assignments, and counted homework as 10 percent of the final grade. Although homework was a smaller part of the course grade, this second teacher was more successful in motivating students to turn in their homework. In the first class, some students gave up rather than risk low evaluations of their abilities. In the second class, students were not risking their self-worth each time they did their homework but rather were attempting to learn. Mistakes were viewed as acceptable and something to learn from.

Researchers recommend de-emphasizing grading by eliminating complex systems of credit points; they also advise against trying to use grades to control nonacademic behavior (for example, lowering grades for missed classes) (Forsyth and McMillan, 1991; Lowman 1990). Instead, ungraded written work should be assigned, the personal satisfaction of doing assignments stressed, and students should be helped to measure their progress.

Bligh, 1971; Forsyth and McMillan, 1991-; Lowman, 1984)

3.2.2. Helping students set achievable goals for themselves

Failure to attain unrealistic goals can disappoint and frustrate students. Students should be encouraged to focus on their continued improvement, not just on their grade on any one test or assignment. Students should be evaluate their progress by encouraging them to critique their own work, analyse their strengths, and work on their weaknesses. For example, consider asking students to submit self-evaluation forms with one or two assignments. (Cashin, 1979; Forsyth and McMillan, 1991)

3.2.3. Telling students what they need to do to succeed in the course

Students should not struggle to figure out what is expected of them. They should be reassured that they can do well in the course, and they should be exactly told what they must do to succeed. Say something to the effect "If you can handle the examples on these problem sheets, you can pass the exam. People who have trouble with these examples can ask for extra help". Or instead of saying, "You're way behind", the student should be told, "Here is one way you could go about learning the material. How can I help you?" (Cashin, 1979; Tiberius, 1990)

3.2.4. Strengthening students' self-motivation

Avoiding messages that reinforce the power as an instructor or that emphasize extrinsic rewards. Instead of saying, "I require", "you must", or "you should", it is better to say "I think you will find..." or "I will be interested

in your reaction" (Lowman, 1990).

3.2.5. Creating intense competition among students should be avoided

Competition produces anxiety, which can interfere with learning. Reduce students' tendencies to compare themselves to one another. Bligh (1971) reports that students are more attentive, display better comprehension, produce more work, and are more favourable to the teaching method when they work cooperatively in groups rather than compete as individuals. Refrain from public criticisms of students' performance and from comments or activities that pit students against each other (Eble, 1988; Forsyth and McMillan, 1991).

3.2.6. Being enthusiastic about the subject

An instructor's enthusiasm is a crucial factor in student motivation. If the instructor becomes bored or apathetic, students will too. Typically, an instructor's enthusiasm comes from confidence, excitement about the content, and genuine pleasure in teaching. If you find yourself uninterested in the material, think back to what attracted you to the field and bring those aspects of the subject matter to life for your students. Or challenge yourself to devise the most exciting way to present the material, however dull the material may seem to you.

3.3. Structuring the Course to Motivate Students

3.3.1. Working from students' strengths and interests

It should be found out why students are enrolled in the course, how they feel about the subject matter, and what their expectations are. Then attempts should be made to devise examples, case studies, or assignments that relate the course content to students' interests and experiences. For instance, a chemistry

lesson taught by an enthusiastic teacher who has a genuine interest in students and what they learn. Thus activities undertaken to promote learning will also enhance students' motivation.

3. General Strategies

3.1 Making students feel motivated

3.1.1. Capitalizing on students' existing needs

Students learn best when incentives for learning in a classroom satisfy their own motives for enrolling in the course. Some of the needs students may bring to the classroom are the need to learn something in order to complete a particular task or activity, the need to seek new experiences, the need to perfect skills, the need to overcome challenges, the need to succeed and do well, the need to feel involved and to interact with other people. Satisfying such needs is rewarding in itself, and such rewards sustain learning more effectively than do grades. Assignments, in class activities, and discussion questions should be designed to address these kinds of needs (McMillan and Forsyth, 1991).

3.1.2. Making students active participants in learning

Students learn by doing, making, writing, designing, creating, solving. Passivity dampens students' motivation and curiosity. Pose questions. Don't tell students something when you can ask them. Encourage students to suggest approaches to a problem or to guess the results of an experiment. Use small group work.

3.1.3. Asking students to analyse what makes their classes more or less "motivating."

□ Sass (1989) asks his classes to recall two recent class periods, one in which they were highly motivated and one in which their motivation was low. Each student makes a list

of specific aspects of the two classes that influenced his or her level of motivation, and students then meet in small groups to reach consensus on characteristics that contribute to high and low motivation. In over twenty courses, Sass reports, the same eight characteristics emerge as major contributors to student motivation:

- Instructor's enthusiasm
- Relevance of the material
- Organization of the course
- Appropriate difficulty level of the material
- Active involvement of students
- Variety
- Rapport between teacher and students
- Use of appropriate, concrete, and understandable examples

3.2. Incorporating Instructional Behaviours That Motivate Students

3.2.1. Holding high but realistic expectations for the students

Research has shown that a teacher's expectations have a powerful effect on a student's performance. If we act as though we expect our students to be motivated, hardworking, and interested in the course, they are more likely to be so. Realistic expectations should be set for students when making assignments, giving presentations, conducting discussions, and grading examinations. "Realistic" in this context means that our standards are high enough to motivate students to do their best work but not so high that students will inevitably be frustrated in trying to meet those expectations. To develop the drive to achieve, students need to believe that achievement is possible-which means that we need to provide early opportunities for success. (American Psychological Association, 1992;

(Bonder, in press):

When placed in a stimulating environment, with enthusiastic people, some that think they don't want to learn change their minds.

Some students seem naturally enthusiastic about learning, but many need or expect their instructors to inspire, challenge, and stimulate them: "Effective learning in the classroom depends on the teacher's ability... to maintain the interest that brought students to the course in the first place" (Ericksen, 1978, p.3). Whatever level of motivation students brings to the classroom it will be transformed, for better or worse by what happens in that classroom.

Unfortunately, there is no single magical formula for motivating students. Many factors affect a given student's motivation to work and to learn (Bligh, 1971; Sass, 1989): interest in the subject matter, perception of its usefulness, general desire to achieve, self-confidence and self-esteem, as well as patience and persistence. And, of course, the same values, needs, desire, or wants motivate not all students. Some of students will be motivated by the approval of others, some by overcoming challenges.

2. What Is Student Motivation?

Student motivation naturally has to do with students' desire to participate in the learning process. But it also concerns the reasons or goals that underlie their involvement or noninvolvement in academic activities. Although students may be equally motivated to perform a task, the sources of their motivation may differ.

A student who is **INTRINSICALLY** motivated undertakes an activity "for its own sake, for the enjoyment it provides, the learning it permits, or the feelings of accomplishment

it evokes" (Lepper, 1988). An **EXTRINSICALLY** motivated student performs "IN ORDER TO obtain some reward or avoid some punishment external to the activity itself", such as grades, stickers, or teacher approval (Lepper, 1988).

The term **MOTIVATION TO LEARN** has a slightly different meaning. It is defined by one author as "the meaningfulness, value, and benefits of academic tasks to the learner-- regardless of whether or not they are intrinsically interesting" (Marshall, 1987). Another notes that motivation to learn is characterized by long-term, quality involvement in learning and commitment to the process of learning (Ames, 1990).

Researchers have begun to identify those aspects of the teaching situation that enhance students' self-motivation (Lowman, 1984; Lucas, 1990; Weinert and Kluwe, 1987; Bligh, 1971). To encourage students to become self-motivated independent learners, teachers can do the following:

- ❑ Give frequent, early, positive feedback that supports students' beliefs that they can do well.
- ❑ Ensure opportunities for students' success by assigning tasks that is neither too easy nor too difficult.
- ❑ Help students find personal meaning and value in the material.
- ❑ Create an atmosphere that is open and positive.
- ❑ Help students feel that they are valued members of a learning community.

Research has also shown that good everyday teaching practices can do more to counter student apathy than special efforts to attack motivation directly (Ericksen, 1978). Most students respond positively to a well-organized

neatly done. The teacher's job was to present the information and guide the students through the exercises. Those do not seem to work anymore. Both teachers and parents have to constantly come up with new strategies to ensure good academic performance of the students. It seems that they even have to resort to bribes sometimes. Perhaps part of the problem is the lack of understanding of what really motivates students. Motivation is a difficult concept to define or explain. Motivation is generally understood as what arouses and sustains a particular behavior. However, it is agreed that, for school purposes at least, there are two types of motivation-the extrinsic motivation and the intrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivation usually derives from external rewards/prizes, grades, tokens and wanting to do better than others. This leads to students performing solely for these rewards or to avoid shame or embarrassment. Intrinsic motivation comes from within. When a student is driven to do well for his own self-satisfaction in developing a skill, then the learning is more meaningful and long lasting. Activities are presented here in this study to identify those aspects of the teaching situation that enhance students' motivation

Key Words: Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, Intrinsic Motivation.

1. Introduction

Infants and young children appear to be propelled by curiosity, driven by an intense need to explore, interact with, and make sense of their environment. As one author puts it, "Rarely does one hear parents complain that their pre-schooler is *unmotivated* (Raffini, 1993).

Unfortunately, as children grow, their passion for learning frequently seems to shrink. Learning often becomes associated with drudgery instead of delight. A large number of students leave school before graduating. Many more are physically present in the classroom but largely mentally absent; they fail to invest themselves fully in the experience of learning.

Awareness of how students' attitudes and beliefs about learning develop and what facilitates learning for its own sake can assist educators in reducing student apathy. There is a fundamental difference between theories of learning and teaching. Theories of learning

deal with the way in which an organism learns; theories of teaching deal with the ways in which the organism is influenced to learn. The two are distinguished for an important reason (Bodner, 1986):

Teaching and learning are not synonymous; we can teach--and teach well-- without having the students learn.

The process of teaching is a two-way street. It is most successful when a dedicated instructor works with an interested student. Some have gone so far as to phrase this notion in terms of a general rule (Bodner, in press):

People who don't want to learn usually don't; those who do want to learn may. The problem we face is simple: the students in our classes do not all have the motivation to do as well as we would like them to do. This raises two important questions: "Why not?" and "What can we do about it?"

There is no doubt that motivation to learn is an important factor controlling the success of learning because of another general rule

Motiv How to Make Students Motivated

Nasrin Barootchi

Khatam University M.A

Ministry of Education English Teacher

e-mail: jonquil_lilac@yahoo.com

چکیده

امروزه تمام دغدغه اولیا و معلمان این است که بفهمند، چرا هر روزه از انگیزه دانش آموزان برای کسب علم کاسته می شود. در گذشته کار اولیا این بود که دانش آموزان را بر سر تکالیفشان بنشانند و معلمان نیز اطلاعات را ارائه می دادند و یادو انجام تمرین ها، دانش آموزان را راهنمایی می کردند. اما اکنون باید به راهکارهایی دست یابند تا از یادگیری دانش آموزان مطمئن شوند. بنابراین باید بدانند چه چیزی سبب ایجاد انگیزه می شود. از آنچه سبب برانگیختن یک رفتار و یا تداوم آن می شود، به عنوان انگیزه یاد شده است. انگیزه می تواند برونی باشد که حاصل پاداش و یا نمره است و یا درونی باشد که جوشیده از درون انسان و نشأت گرفته از رضایت از خود می باشد که یادگیری را معنادارتر و طولانی تر می کند. در مطالعه حاضر، فعالیت هایی درخصوص ایجاد انگیزه مؤثرتر ارائه شده است.

واژگان کلیدی: انگیزه، انگیزه برونی، انگیزه درونی

Abstract

Parents and teachers all around the globe are pulling their hair out trying to understand why students seem less and less interested in school and school work. It used to be that the parent's job was simply to outfit the child for school and get him there and ensure that homework was